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COLLIER'S CYCLOPEDIA

OF

COMMERCIAL AND SOCIAL INFORMATION

AND

TREASURY OF USEFUL AND ENTERTAINING KNOWLEDGE

ON ART, SCIENCE, PASTIMES, BELLES-LETTRES, AND MANY OTHER SUBJECTS OF INTEREST IN THE AMERICAN HOME CIRCLE.

COMPILED BY
NUGENT ROBINSON.

This Edition has been carefully Revised to Date.

NEW YORK
PETER FENELON COLLIER & SON
MCM

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1882,

BY P. F. COLLIER.

PREFACE.

AT no period in the history of the United States has the necessity for a cheap but perfect Cyclopedia of Useful Knowledge been so imperative.

So keen is the competitive spirit of the age, that the advantage of knowledge in the struggle for advancement is apparent to all.

A good education is the best legacy we can leave to our children. It is the best investment we can make for ourselves. The educated man, in every walk of life, carries with him his own capital—a capital unaffected by monetary crises—an investment whose interest is not regulated by the success of speculation—a legacy which none can dispute, and of which none can deprive him.

This is essentially a practical book. Its aim and object is to enable people to educate themselves. The ambition of the Publisher is to place in every American home this treasury of knowledge, invaluable as a manual of study and a work of reference; and while it is simple, progressive and interesting in style, is a veritable power, from the manner in which it enforces education. A reference to the list of contents will show, that under various heads are included those numerous branches of study essential to the varied walks of life, while its social forms convey those instructions which so qualify persons of both sexes for appearing to the highest advantage in society.

COLLIER'S CYCLOPEDIA AND VERITABLE TREASURY OF KNOWLEDGE contains a complete digest of *Mercantile Law*, together with forms of *Legal Documents*, Government Bonds, and a dictionary of law terms, enabling every man to become his own lawyer. The newest and best system of Phonography is copiously illustrated. Bookkeeping in all its branches; arithmetic and algebra, together with a lightning calculator, form prominent features in this invaluable work.

The Complete Letter Writer is a gem in its way; and the selections of English prose and verse, from the works of the most renowned authors, are as chaste as they are elegant and classical. A very important section in this Treasury of Knowledge is the self teaching of French and German, and the self instructor—illustrated—for the Piano and the singing voice.

The *Golden Rules of Etiquette* will prove invaluable to those desirous of entering into, and shining in society; and the indoor games, parlor magic, etc., will serve to render the winter nights "bright as day;" while the outdoor, comprising gymnastics, riding, driving, etc., cannot fail to work the most beneficial and healthful results to those who are enabled to profit by the instruction.

The laws of health also form a portion of the Cyclopedia; nor have the all important items of agriculture or gardening been omitted. A glance at the Index will convey some slight idea of the numerous and varied subjects which the compiler has dealt with.

Never within the scope of any one volume have so many subjects been so skilfully compressed, each of which is handled in so able a manner as to render its study a source of intense enjoyment, while affording the most advanced information.

The Publisher has spared no expense in editing and illustrating, while the volume, for beauty, finish and cheapness, is a marvel of taste and progress.

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GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is the science of language, and its principal use is to enable those who study it to express their thoughts with correctness and propriety, so as to be understood by those whom they address.

It must always be remembered that grammars can only *define*, but cannot *determine*, the correct use of language. This depends, in every instance, upon the forms of thought and meaning to be conveyed; and in all languages was settled and employed long before the studies of grammarians commenced. And at this very time it may be seen how completely powerless are all the grammatical treatises on our own tongue, now existing, to prevent such changes as the disuse of the subjunctive mood of verbs, etc., from being made in the *forms* of the English language; by which the power of expressing some finer shades of meaning must be greatly circumscribed, if not entirely lost.

The best method, therefore, to be pursued by any one who desires to become practically and thoroughly acquainted with his mother-tongue, is carefully to read some select works of our best authors, in the manner now to be described, with the help of such a compendious grammar as that contained in the following pages. This method, by the peculiar interest it excites, relieves the study of all drudgery; and at the same time furnishes one of the most satisfactory means of intellectual training, and an available introduction to the study of any other language to which the attention may afterward be directed.

2. The following paragraphs form the commencement of Lord Bacon's Essay,

"OF STUDIES.

"I. Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability.

"II. Their chief use for delight is in privateness and retiring; for ornament, is in discourse; and for ability, is in the judgment and disposition of business.

"III. For expert men can execute and perhaps judge of particulars, one by one; but the general counsels and the plots, and marshaling of affairs, come best from those that are learned.

"IV. To spend too much time in studies is sloth; to use them too much for ornament is affectation; to make judgment only by their rules is the humor of a scholar.

"V. They perfect nature, and are perfected by experience; for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study, and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience.

"VI. Crafty men contemn studies; simple men admire them; and wise men use them, for they teach not their own use; but that is a wisdom without them and above them, won by observation.

"VII. Read not to contradict and confute; nor to believe and take for granted; nor to find talk and discourse; but to weigh and consider."

3. In the first paragraph we find something *spoken of*, "studies," and something *said about* them, viz., that they "serve" for certain purposes, as "for delight,"

"ornament," and "ability." The several parts may be arranged thus:

Studies.....serve.... { for delight, for ornament and for ability.

They are thus distinguished according to their offices in the paragraph, which can readily be noticed, when thus arranged, without the employment of any names for them.

4. The paragraph numbered (2) may be arranged in this manner:—

Their chief use... { for delight....is....in { privateness and retiring; / for ornament..is....in discourse; / and for ability.....is....in the { judgment and disposition } of business.

Here the three purposes mentioned in the former paragraph are the things *spoken of;* and certain things are *said about* each of them, though not exactly in the same manner as those purposes were said to be answered by "studies," above. These two parts, therefore—something *spoken of*, and something *said about* it—we may note as essential to a complete and intelligible sentence of the kind before us; and we may adopt the names given to them by grammarians—**subject** and **predicate**; which, signifying precisely what has just been said, require no further explanation.

5. Paragraph (3) we arrange thus:

For...expert men...can { execute and judge of } .. { particulars, one by one, ...perhaps; but.. the general counsels and the { plots and marshaling } of affairs } .. come ... { from those that are learned best.

Both subjects and predicates here are somewhat complex. "Expert" is prefixed to "men;" "general" to "counsels;" and to "the plots and marshalling" are appended the words "of affairs;" just as in paragraph (2) "chief" was prefixed to "use," and "for delight, for ornament, and for ability" added to the same word, with the evident intention of circumscribing and defining it. And with a similar intention, the meaning of "can execute and judge of" is carried out and completed by "particulars" and "one by one;" and that of the latter predicate, "can judge of," is further limited by the word "perhaps" being attached to it. In the second part of the paragraph, also, "from those that are learned," and "best," are appended to the predicate "come." And so in paragraph (1), "for delight, for ornament, and for ability," follow the word "serve;" and in paragraph (2), after "is," comes "in privateness and retiring, in discourse," etc.

It is evident that these appended words and phrases, although they are of the highest moment to the full and precise expression of the thoughts, when regard is had to the structure of the sentences alone, are not essential, but subordinate parts thereof. And they have accordingly received from grammarians distinct names; those employed to describe and define subjects being designated **attributives**; and those employed with predicates, for the purpose of modifying and supplementing their meaning—**objects**; which terms we will use for the future, to avoid trouble and confusion.

6. But we may observe further, that the attributives, which have occurred in these paragraphs, are of two kinds. One kind (like the subjects) consists of names of things, called by grammarians **nouns**; as "delight," "ornament," "ability," "business," "affairs;" and these have before them the little words "of" and "for," which are known as **prepositions**, to attach them to the subjects. The other kind consists of epithets merely, and not of names, as "chief," "expert," "general;" and they are called **adjectives**.

In paragraph (3) we find another word, "the," used very much in the same way as adjectives are used; except that its sole force is to point to the subject particularly spoken of; whence it has been named the **demonstrative**. And in paragraph (2) there is a word, "their," in form closely resembling it; but (in this instance) meaning, "of studies." It is plainly an adjective; but it is also called a **pronoun**, from its being thus used instead of a noun.

One other word, "and," which occurs in the subjects of these paragraphs, requires a passing glance. Its use is obvious; it connects certain parts of sentences together, so as to save much repetition, and the inconveniences that must result from it, and it is designated a **conjunction**.

7. Before we speak of the different kinds of objective words and phrases which we meet with in these paragraphs, some further notice should be taken of the predicates. In paragraph (1), and in the second example in paragraph (3), they are perfectly simple, consisting of the words "serve" and "come" alone;

words which convey assertions, and speak of some sort of action, and are called **verbs.** "Can execute and judge of" (observe the use of the conjunction) are also verbs, but the latter has a preposition attached to it, to bring it into a particular relation with the objects that follow; and to both of them is prefixed the word "can," which alters their force from the assertion of action to the assertion of the mere capability of it. In paragraph (2), again, we have for predicates, "in privateness and retiring," in "discourse," etc.,—which are plainly nouns with prepositions; and the quality of predicates is given to them by the employment of the word "is" with each, which changes them from attributives into assertions. "Is" must consequently be called a verb, although it only expresses being and not action. The complex character of these predicates must be observed; and the conjunctions, the demonstrative, and the addition of the attributive, "of business," to one of them (which happens because they are actually nouns) carefully noted.

8. Turning now to the objects, we see in paragraph (1) that they indicate the purpose or effect of the action expressed by the verb; and, in this example, are nouns attached to the verb by the help of prepositions,—"for delight," "for ornament," etc. In paragraph (3) the first object, "particulars," which is also a noun, indicates that on which the action represented by the verbs "execute and judge of," takes effect. Observe, also, that just as in the words "studies," "plots," and "affairs," the fact that more than one of the kind is meant, is shown by the addition of the letter "s" to the ordinary word; whilst in the instance of "men," the same fact is indicated by the change of the vowel sound from "a" in man.

The second object, "one by one," is of a different kind. It indicates the manner of execution and judgment; and consists of a word signifying number, called a numeral, repeated, with a preposition. "Perhaps," which is the third object, belongs to the predicate, "judge of," only; and is inserted for the purpose of lessening the strength of the assertion conveyed by the predicate. Words like it are called by grammarians **adverbs.** The second object in the other example contained in this paragraph, "best," is of the same class of words; but, instead of lessening the force of the predicate, it is employed to intensify it.

9. "From those that are learned," is a very remarkable kind of object; for it contains a complete sentence in itself. The actual object is "those," attached to the predicate by the preposition "from;" and indicating the source and origin of the action expressed by the verb. "Those" is not, however, the name of anything; but it stands here for "those men;" and thus partakes of the nature of pronouns, while it also serves demonstratively to point out the specific description of men spoken of. In consequence of its being in part a pronoun, it can have an attributive attached to it, and the sentence, "that are learned," serves as an attributive, to define and describe the "men" particularly intended.

The predicate of this sentence, "are learned," is of the same kind as those in paragraph (2), only an adjective takes the place of the nouns there used. The subject is neither a name nor an epithet, but a kind of pronoun, since it stands for "men," and plainly for the same men as "those" did; and, from its having relation thus to a noun already known, is called a relative pronoun. Sentences used in this manner are called **accessory sentences,** to mark their subordinate character, and their connection with the sentences of which they form parts, distinguished as principal sentences.

Only two words remain to be spoken of. "**For,**" at the commencement of this paragraph, shows its connection in meaning with the preceding paragraph; or, more correctly, with the last sentence in it; for which it assigns a reason. "**But,**" on the other hand, separates the two parts of this paragraph, by way of contrast; so that it is manifest that not the first, but the second part of it, contains the reason for the assertion made in the foregoing paragraph. Both words are called conjunctions, from their thus serving to connect otherwise disjoined and independent sentences together; yet it is evident that they are not conjunctions of the same nature as "and."

10. Paragraph (4) contains the principal sentences:

To spend	too much time in studies	.... is	sloth;
to use	them for ornament,	.... is	affectation;
to make	too much judgment by their rules only	.... is	the humor of a scholar.

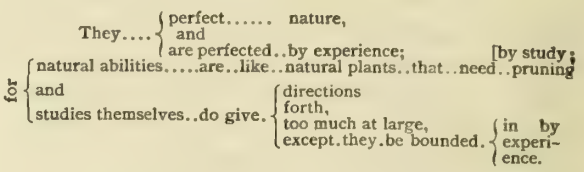
Of these predicates, since they so nearly resemble those of paragraph (2), we only need to observe, that the nouns are used without prepositions to modify their meaning; and the word "a" (before "scholar"), contracted from "an," is a numeral, and merely means "one," but in what we may call a somewhat general way.

The remarkable character of these sentences lies in the subjects, which, as we can perceive at the first glance, are verbs with objects,—and yet are not accessory sentences, since no assertions are made. This form of the verb, with the preposition "to" prefixed, differs entirely from the forms we have seen employed in the predicates. Grammarians distinguish all verbs used in this last-named way, as being in the indicative mood; and those with "to" before them as being in the infinitive mood. They are, in fact, as we see, used like nouns, only, being verbs, instead of attributives to define them, they have objects to complete them.

11. Some of these objects are in forms which we have already noticed; "time" and "judgment" are like "particulars" in paragraph (3), the direct objects of the action of the verbs they follow; "in studies" represents, by a very natural metaphor, that of place, the peculiar circumstances of the action spoken of; "for ornament" precisely resembles the "for delight," &c., of paragraph (1); but the object, "by their rules," expresses the means by which the action of the verb is accomplished. "Them," we see, is a pronoun, as it stands for the word "studies;" and it is the direct object of the verb "use;" it is one of the very few words in our language which have two forms, one employed when it is a subject, "they," and another when it is an object, as we find it here, "them." Here are also two objects belonging to the class of words called adverbs, "much" and "only," both of them expressive of the manner in which the action of the verbs they follow is performed; and the first of them has the adverb "too" prefixed, for the purpose of intensifying the meaning of "much."

The **first object** has the words "too much" prefixed, as an attributive; "too" being here, as in the instance last noted, an adverb expressive of intensity; but "much," what is termed an indefinite numeral, expressing quantity merely in a general way. There is another of the series with an attributive prefixed, "their rules;" but of this we have spoken in connexion with paragraph (2).

12. We find the next paragraph (5) rather complex, as this arrangement of it shows:



In the first part of this paragraph we find the same pronoun used as a subject, which we have just seen in its objective form. Grammarians call these different forms cases; and that now before us, the nominative or subjective case; that in the last paragraph, the accusative or objective case.

13. **The first predicate and object** are in the same form as several we have seen above; but the second predicate is quite new to us. It signifies that "experience perfects studies," just as "they perfect nature;" but we find what should be the subject following the predicate, and the real object in the place appropriated to the subject; the form of the predicate, too, is changed, and a preposition is inserted between it and the word "experience." We must admit, however, that the passage would lose immensely in compactness, vivacity, and force if it were written thus: "They perfect nature, and experience perfects them;" so that the reason for using this peculiar form is manifest.

It is distinguished by grammarians thus: When the agent of the verb is the subject, the verbal form employed is called active; but when the immediate object of the verb is the agent, the form employed is called passive. And in our tongue all passive forms, just as in this instance, consist of that form of the verb which grammarians call the perfect participle—a form resembling an adjective in this, that it can be used as an attributive; but also partaking of the nature of a verb, inasmuch as the notion it conveys is modified so as to express the completeness of the action. The object following this verb here expresses the means by which what is spoken of the subject is effected; as we have seen before. How the two sentences are combined by the conjunction, so that one subject serves for both, we need not more particularly point out.

14. "For," prefixed to the second part of the

paragraph, introduces two reasons for the last assertion respecting the influence of "experience" upon "studies;" as was seen in paragraph (3). Of the first reason, we have only to say, that the real predicate of the sentence is "like," to which the words, "natural plants," are added as an object; and that in the accessory sentence, added as a second attributive to "plants," whilst "pruning" is the immediate object of the verb "need;" "by study" is an object annexed to "pruning." For this last word is another of the participles, properly the imperfect one, which, like the verb, at times requires some attempering object, as we see here.

In the second reason, we must notice, first, an attributive attached to the subject, which we have not met with before,—"themselves." It is undoubtedly a pronoun, and it is here used as a most emphatic demonstrative. The objective form of one part of it, "them," does not concern us here. Next, we notice the predicate, which is in a form we have not before seen; but which is only equivalent to the word "give," alone, except that it is rather more emphatic. Grammarians call these words, "do," "can," "are," &c., when employed as in this case, auxiliary, or helping verbs. The first and second objects to this sentence do not require particular notice; and in the third, "too much at large," it is only needful to observe the use of an adjective preceded by a preposition, and having an adverbial phrase, which we have met with, before it, to express the manner of the action.

Of the third object, which is an accessory sentence, more is to be said. It is annexed to the principal sentence by means of a conjunction, "except," which implies some limitation to the meaning of the predicate and the preceding objects; but the form of its own predicate is different from any we have yet seen. Comparing it with the second predicate in this paragraph, "are perfected," we find that it is a passive form; but the employment of "be" instead of "are," shows that the limitation hinges upon the effect of "experience" upon the "studies" spoken of. The forms of verbs which are thus used, to express contingency, have been called by grammarians the subjunctive mood; they are far more rarely used now than they once were, and have, indeed, almost entirely disappeared from our *spoken* language.

15. Paragraph (6) affords us an opportunity of remarking some other facts in English Grammar:

	Crafty men	..	contemn	..	studies;
	simple men and wise men	..	admire	..	them;
		..	use	..	them;
for ..	they		teach	....	{ their own use; not;
but ..	that		is ..	a wisdom	{ without them, and above them, won by observation.

In the first three sentences there is nothing new to observe, except the use of the conjunction "and," without any abbreviation or condensation; it here serves only to combine all three assertions together, so that the reasons assigned in the remainder of the paragraph are seen to apply equally to all. We may, however, notice the fact, that the association of the several attributives with their objects is effected entirely by juxtaposition; there being nothing in the forms of the words specially to indicate their relation to the words they belong to. But the relation of the predicates to their subjects is shown by the agreement of their forms in one essential particular, called by grammarians number. Thus in paragraph (2) the noun "use," which is the subject, expresses but one thing; and the form of the verb, "is," applies to no more than one; whilst in paragraph (5), "they" (which is equivalent to "studies") and "abilities," referring to more things than one, have the form of the verb "are," which also applies to more than one, in the predicates following them. And similarly here, the subjects being in the plural number, "men," the verbs in the predicates are also in the plural, "contemn," "admire," "use."

In like manner the place occupied by the word "studies," shows it to be the object of the verb "contemn;" but the relation of the objects to the predicates in the other two sentences is indicated not only by their position, but (as we have before observed) also, and more certainly, by the form employed, "them."

16. Little needs to be said respecting the first sentence, which is introduced by the conjunction "for," most of its forms being familiar; but we may note the use of the word "own," an adjective rendering the pronoun, "their," emphatic. In the last sentence the subject is not a relative, but a demonstrative pronoun, and its reference to the "use" of "studies" is shown by the order of the words, or, as the grammarians say, by the construction. Besides this, only the attributives to the predicate, which is here a noun, require remark; for two of them, "without them, and above them," are pronouns attached by

prepositions, exactly as we have seen nouns attached, in paragraphs (2), (3), and (4), but showing their subordinate position to the subject, by being in the objective or accusative case; and the third, "won by observation," is a participle with an object expressive of means.

This participle is not formed in the same way as those were formed which we have before met with. "Perfect-ed" and "bound-ed" have been made by the addition of the final syllable; but "won" is formed by the change of the vowel in the verb "win."

17. The last paragraph (7) we thus arrange:

Read ..... { not ..... to { contradict / and / confute;
nor ..... to { believe / and / take for granted;
nor ..... to find { talk / and / discourse;
but ..... to { weigh / and / consider.

Here we have a predicate "read," and a considerable number of objects, but there is no subject; yet the sense is complete. There is, however, no assertion made by the verb; on the contrary, it conveys a command; and the subject, if expressed, would not occupy the customary place to the left of the predicate, but would come between it and the objects. Grammarians distinguish the forms of verbs which signify commands as the imperative mood. The four principal groups of objects belong to one and the same class, that which expresses the purpose or design of the action; and they are so combined by the conjunctions, "nor" and "but," as to enable a single verb to act as predicate to them all. The conjunction, "nor," serves to give to the second and third groups the same negative character that is imparted to the first by the negative object "not;" and the fourth is contrasted with all the preceding groups, as stating the design that should be kept in view in reading, by the use of "but."

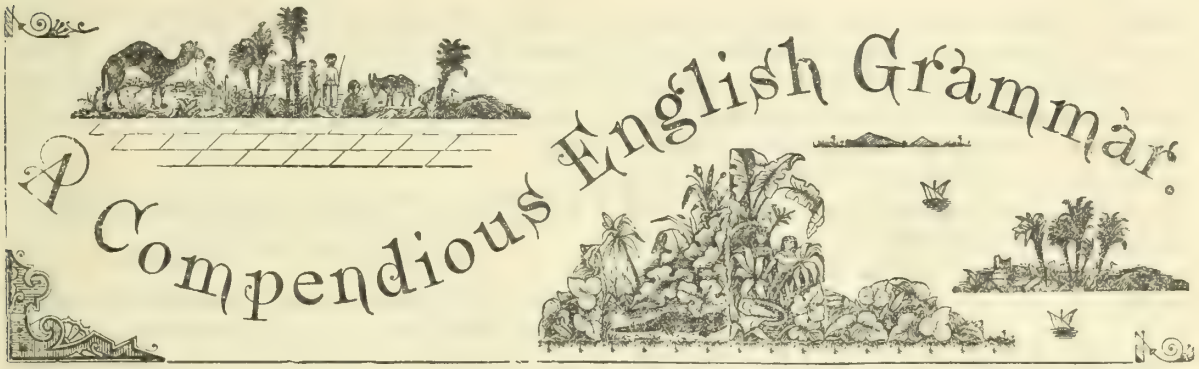
In the expression, "to take for granted," we have a participle attached to a verb by means of a preposition, as an object needful to complete it; and the next group shows two nouns, "talk and discourse," combined by the conjunction "and," so as to spare the repetition of the verb "to find," to which they both serve as "objects."

18. **From this illustration,** extending only to seven paragraphs—and those neither long nor very greatly complicated—may be seen, both what English grammar actually is, and what a large and clear knowledge of its facts and laws may be attained by the plan of study which we have recommended. It may also be seen how completely language is the product and representation of the thought or meaning of those who speak or write; and how subordinate is the office of the grammarian—limited, in fact, to the elucidation and interpretation of the forms and principles of language, by the most general laws and forms of thought. For not only cannot the grammarian determine what forms shall be used, and what discountenanced and avoided; but he cannot possibly frame his declensions and conjugations, his concords and governments, so as to provide a place for every combination and inflexion and mode of giving expression to the infinitely diversified shades of meaning, even in the language of common life.

19. **The following example** will show how easy it is to analyze and arrange the most complicated paragraphs, so as to exhibit, without the employment of a single technical term, every fact both of Etymology and Syntax contained in it. The passage is from Locke's "Essay concerning Human Understanding." Book iv., chap. i., § 1.

"God, having designed man for a sociable creature, made him not only with an inclination, and under a necessity, to have fellowship with those of his own kind, but furnished him also with language, which was to be the instrument and common tie of society."

God .. { not only made ..... { him / with an inclination, / and / under a necessity, } to have { fellowship / with those of his own kind,
but also { having designed { man / for a sociable creature,
furnished ... { him / with language, ... which ... was to be ... the { instrument / and / common tie } of society,



GRAMMAR is divided into two parts—one which treats of the classification, formation, derivation, and inflection of words by themselves, and is called Etymology;—and another, which treats of the combination of words into sentences, &c., and is called Syntax.

When languages are analyzed in any state already reached, and not in a state of transition, they become the subject of special grammar belonging to the province of linguistics. Comparative grammar seeks, by comparing the grammars of several languages, to reach the laws of inflection and construction common to them, and finally to all languages. General or historic grammar attempts to explain the growth of language within a specified group.

In this short treatise the formation and derivation of words are not included under Etymology, but are added by way of illustration to the concise History of the English Language, which forms the concluding portion of it. By this means, not only is some repetition spared, but, being disencumbered of that which is rather curious than useful, this Etymology is rendered more serviceable to those for whom it is specially intended.

Both Etymology and Syntax, it must be observed, are arranged, in the first place, with a view to assist in a study of the English language; and next, to present such an elucidation of its principal facts, and such an interpretation of its most important laws, as shall give to those who consider them attentively, some *real* and *practical* knowledge of their own tongue. And with the same intent, those technicalities only have been introduced, and those examples selected, which might be expected to aid in the simplification and explanation of the subject.

ETYMOLOGY.

LETTERS, ETC.

2. There are twenty-six letters in the English Alphabet; which have always been arranged in the following order, and are of these forms in Roman type: A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

The number of sounds to be represented by these letters is estimated at about forty; and, in consequence, several of them have to stand for more sounds than one. It is somewhat remarkable that since this is the case, the letters *c*, *q*, and *x* should be superfluous; the two sounds of *c* being represented by *s* and *k*, as in *c*ell, *s*ell; *c*alends, *k*alends; *q*, being always followed by *u*, with the sound expressible by *kw*; and the sounds of *x* differing in no respect from those of *ks*, *gz*, and *z* (in some words borrowed from the French). It would be of considerable advantage, if symbols for the sounds represented now by the combinations of letters, *ch*, *sh*, *th*, *ng*, &c., could be devised and introduced; but this is a matter of such great difficulty, as to be almost impossible.

3. **The twenty-six letters** are divided into two classes—Vowels and Consonants. The vowels are, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*; and with them *w* and *y* ought to be placed. They represent the sounds which are produced by the transmission of the voice through the mouth, whilst the cavity is more or less enlarged in different directions. All the rest are named con-

sonants, and represent the sounds produced when the voice is interrupted by the voluntary action of the throat, tongue, palate, nose, teeth, and lips.

Our vowel sounds differ from those of all other languages of Europe ; one of the sounds which we express by *a*, they express by *e* ; where we write *e*, they write *i* ; where we use *i*, they employ *ei* ; and our *u* corresponds with their *eu*. The natural series of vowel sounds, expressed in letters of our alphabet, is

ee, ay, ah, oh, oo.

The combinations of vowel sounds, called diphthongs and triphthongs, such as *ae, ai, au, ei, ie, oe, oi, ou, eau*, &c., express the intermediate sounds of this series, but they also do not correspond with those of the other European languages.

4. **Consonants** are divided into three orders, Mutes, Sibilants and Liquids ; and these are further subdivided according to the organs employed in giving utterance to them. Thus the mutes are classified first as Smooth or Aspirated, and next in the following manner ; the sounds for which we have no symbols being inserted in their proper places :—

	Smooth.		Aspirated.	
	Sudden.	*Gradual*	*Sudden.*	*Gradual.*
Guttural	*k, c, q*	*g*	*ch* (not English)	*gh* (not English)
Dental	*t*	*d*	*th*(in)	*th*(ine)
Labial	*p*	*b*	*f, ph*	*v*

The *ch* here is the terminal sound of the Scotch word "loch ;" and the *gh*, that of the Irish word "lough." The letter *h* finds no place in this scheme, because it is, in fact, nothing but a sign of the transmission of the breath called "aspiration," and not of a sound at all.

The sibilants may be classified thus :—

	Sudden.	*Gradual.*
Dental	*s, c*	*z*
Dental and Palatal	*sh*	*ch*(est)
Dental and Guttural	(a)z(ure)	*j*

And the liquids may be arranged in this manner:

Simple	Guttural	*r*
	Palatal	*l*
Nasal	Guttural	(ki)*ng*
	Dental	*n*
	Labial	*m*

The letter *x* represents the sounds of *ks, gs*, and sometimes of *z*.

5. Of the sounds expressed by the composition of various letters, both vowels and consonants, nothing more can be said, than that some of them are identical with sounds treated of above ; and others are compounded of such sounds. Thus the sound of the word *buoy* is identical with that of *boy* ; and in "adhesive," the sound *d* is pronounced distinctly, and followed by the aspirate, or hard breathing *h*

DERIVATION AND FORMATION OF WORDS.

With the History of our Tongue, which follows this Grammar, the subject is illustrated so as to show the relation of the English language to other languages, which have formerly existed, or are spoken at the present day. Here only the "internal relations" of words are regarded ; and the sole purpose is the illustration of the manner in which, from the radical words, wherein may be traced the ethnological connections of the English race, other words have in various ways been formed by the natural vitality and power of the language.

7. **Radical words** (called by etymologists "roots," simply) are either nouns, verbs, adjectives, or pronouns ; expressive of common things, conditions, actions, &c., &c. Primary Derivatives are constructed by slight changes in the vowel sounds, or in the consonants or in both ; and are sometimes designated "stems." Secondary Derivatives are formed by means of prefixes and affixes, from both roots and primary derivatives. Ex.—

Roots.	*Prim. Deriv.*	*Second. Deriv.*
Bake	batch	baker, baxter
Bear	bier, birth	barrow, forbear
Bind	band, bond, bound	bandage, bondage, bundle
Bite	bit	biter
Bless	bliss	blessing
Blood	bleed	bloody
Brood	breed	
Child		childish
Choose	choice	
Chop	chip	
Deal	dole	
Die	dead, death	deadly
Drive	drove	drover
Duck		duckling
Fall	fell, foal	
(De)file	foul, filth	filthy, fulsome
Find		foundling
Flee	fleet, fly, flight	
Flow	flood	
Forth		further, furtherance
Gape	gap	
Gird		girder, girdle
Gold	gild, gilt	golden, gilding
Good	God	goodness, godly, godliness
Guile	guilt	guilty
Heal(*to cover* or *hide*)	hell, hole, hale, health	hellish, hollow, healer
Lead	lode	leader, mislead

Roots.	*Prim. Deriv.*	*Second. Deriv.*
Lend	loan	
Lie	lay, law	lien, lawyer, layer
Lose	loss, loose	loser, unloose
Man		mannikin, manhood
Milk	milch	
Pin	pen, pound	
Pride	proud	
(Be)reave	raven	ravenous
Rise	raise, rouse	arise, arouse
See	sight	sightly
Shake	shock	shocking
Sing	song	singer, songster
Sit	set, seat	settle, settler
Speak	speech	speaker, bespeak
Stick	stake, stitch	
Strike	stroke	
Strong	strength	
Tell	tale	
Trow	truth	truthfulness
Wake	watch	waken, watchful
Weave	woof, web	weaver, webster
Win		winsome
Work	wright	
Wring	wrench, wrong	wrongful
Wry	writhe, wreath	

8. Derivative words are also formed by composition; that is, by the construction of a single word out of two or more words, each capable of being used independently. These compounds differ entirely from the secondary derivatives, and are found in every class of English words. They are not, however, so numerous in our tongue as in the German; and in that they are less common than in the Greek language. Ex. *Sunshine, fairhaired, thunderstorm, harvestman, daybreak, nevertheless, therefore, into, everlasting, midnight, noontime, elsewhere, however, undersell, overturn, because, hedgerow, warehouseman, earthquake, steamengine, railroad.*

CLASSES OF WORDS.

9. The classification of words depends upon their signification as parts of sentences, which will be treated of under the head of "Syntax." The following will, however, suffice as an introduction to this part of the Grammar; and the nature of Subjects and Predicates, Attributives and Objects, with the various means of expressing the relations between them, will be treated of in the succeeding division.

Names of things, persons, and of whatever exists, even in imagination, are called Nouns, and sometimes Substantives. Ex. *Tree, stone; man, boy; Cæsar, Wellington; virtue, hope.*

Words expressing an assertion respecting an action or condition, or the reception of the consequences of an action, or simply respecting existence, are called Verbs. Ex. *To run; to strike; to sleep, to be; to be beaten.*

Attributives which can only in figurative language be used without a noun (which they qualify in some way) are called Adjectives. Ex. *Good, bad, green, high, everlasting.*

These are the three principal classes of words, which represent distinct notions of things, persons, actions, qualities, &c., &c., formed in the mind. Other words express not so much the notions we have formed, as the connection of those notions with each other, or their relations to us, or some of the infinitely various associations of thoughts.

10. **Pronouns** serve not only to prevent the too frequent repetition of the same nouns, but yet more to indicate the relation of the persons or things spoken of to the speaker. Such are the Personal Pronouns. Others are used as attributives, but they also show the relations of the subjects they characterize to the speaker. Ex. *I, thou, he, they; mine, thine; this, those; whom, what.*

Whatever exists, or acts, or is acted upon, is regarded as being, or acting, or being acted on, in some particular time, place, manner, &c.; and these modifications of the simple notions indicated by the verb are expressed by a class of words called Adverbs. Ex. *Now, where, so, seldom, perhaps.*

Many of the relations of notions one to another, also, are those of place, time, manner, means, &c.; and these are expressed by words called Prepositions, which serve to connect nouns and pronouns with other nouns and pronouns, and with verbs. Ex. *From, by, of, to, after.*

The connection of things, &c., with each other, and of thoughts with other thoughts, is shown by means of Conjunctions. Ex. *And, or, but, though, for.*

Numerals are in part names, and in part attributives and adverbs; and therefore do not properly form a class by themselves. Ex. *Two, four, six; first, tenth, hundredth; firstly, secondly, lastly.*

Interjections, which are expressions of emotion, such as fear, joy, pain, wonder, &c., and not of thought, and the greater number of which are rather sounds than words, cannot be noticed in a grammar; although it is convenient to have such a class to which certain expressions which occur in the Dictionary may be referred. Ex. *Ah! O! Ha!*

11. *Nouns.* The Gender of Nouns is determined

by the sex of the persons or beings they represent, being called Masculine or Feminine, as they are the names of males or females. Beings without natural sex, things without life, and abstractions are called Neuter.

Figuratively, sex is attributed to many beings naturally having no such distinction, and to abstractions. Ex. The sun, *he* is setting; the moon, *she* is rising; Charity, *she* is the child of heaven. Very small beings, whatever sex they may be of, and those whose sex is not their distinctive characteristic, are spoken of as neuter. Ex. The ant, *it* is a patron of foresight and prudence; the child, *it* knows not what *it* does.

Very few words, in English, have terminations, or other specialties of form, indicative of their gender; the following are examples of the only kinds, and they are not numerous. Ex. *Arbiter, Arbitress; Prosecutor, Prosecutrix; Margrave, Margravine; he-bear, she-bear; Man-servant, Maid-servant.* In other instances different words are appropriated to the two sexes, but without any peculiarity of termination. Ex. *Brother, Sister; Horse, Mare; King, Queen.*

12. The only distinction of Number is that between one and more than one; the ordinary forms expressing the former, and being called Singular; and special forms being used for the latter, called Plural.

Most commonly, *s* or (when it ends in a sibilant or *x*) *es* is added to the singular. Ex. *Sword, swords; fish, fishes.* Words ending in *f* or *fe* generally make their plurals in *ves*. Ex. *Calf, calves; life, lives.* But all words ending in *ff*, except *staff, staves*, and several words in *f* or *fe*, add *s* without any change of letters for the plural. Ex. *Whiff, whiffs; grief, griefs; fife, fifes.* Those ending in *o*, preceded by a vowel, add *s* only; but if a consonant precede the *o*, *s* or *es* is added. Ex. *Cameo, cameos; ratio, ratios; cargo, cargoes; volcano, volcanoes; portico, porticoes; solo, solos.* Words ending in *y* after a consonant have *ies* in the plural. Ex. *fly, flies; history, histories.*

A very few change the vowel sound of the singular. Ex. *Foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; woman, women* (pronounced *wimmen*). One adds *en* to the singular—*ox, oxen.* One both changes the vowel and adds *en—brother, brethren.*

Besides these, the following must be noted: *Child* makes *children* in the plural. *Mouse* has *mice*, and *louse, lice;* but it is the spelling only which is peculiar. *Penny* has two plurals; when coins are meant, *pennies*, but when money is spoken of, *pence.* In like manner *die*, signifying a stamp for coining, has *dies;* but when it means a cube used in play, *dice. Pea* has *peas* and *pease*, the latter signifying peas collectively, or used for food. *Kine* is sometimes used as a plural to *cow.*

Deer, sheep, swine, are used in both numbers; and (when spoken of as food) *fish, cod, salmon, &c* The names of metals are made plural only when employed to signify some particular things composed of them. Ex. *Irons, coppers, brasses.* Articles of trade and commerce which, in ordinary language, are never used in the plural form, have plural forms in the market. Ex. *Cloth, oil, sugar, tea, &c.* On the other hand, *beast*, which has a regular and commonly used plural, is employed in the singular form alone by Smithfield salesmen. Words signifying abstract qualities seldom take the plural form, because they cannot have a plural meaning, except when used figuratively. Ex. The *honors* of the world; the *decencies* of life. Names of measures, weights, of some numbers, and of terms employed numerically, are in some instances used in the singular form, with a plural meaning. Ex. A ten-*pound* note, eighteen *hundred* and fifty-eight, an army of eighty *thousand* men, twelve *dozen* of wine, three *brace* of dogs, a fleet of twenty *sail*, twelve thousand *foot* and three thousand *horse*, fifteen thousand *stand* of arms, a hundred *head* of cattle, each weighing thirty *stone.*

Alms, means, news, pains, and *riches*, which are plural in form, are used both as singulars and as plurals. *Ashes, bellows, breeches, cates, dregs, gallows, pincers, scissors*, and *tongs*, have no singulars, either in form or meaning. The names of some sciences, derived from the Greek language, are plural in form, but in meaning singular. Ex. *Ethics, hydrostatics, mathematics, mechanics, politics.* And so is the term *morals. Suds*, and *wages*, plural in form, are singular in signification; and *pulse* (leguminous seeds), also plural in form, is simply collective in its meaning.

13. Almost all nouns, which have been simply adopted from foreign languages, retain their original plurals; but some have also plurals formed in the English fashion, and in a few instances with a dif-

ferent meaning. The following is nearly a complete list of these words :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Abacus,	abaci.
Acroterion (not used),	acroteria.
Addendum,	addenda.
Alluvion, alluvium,	alluvia.
Alto-relievo,	alti-relievi.
Alumnus,	alumni.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses,
Amphibium (not used),	amphibia.
Amphora,	amphoræ.
Analysis,	analyses.
Animalculum (not used),	animalcula.
Antenna,	antennæ.
Anthropophagus (not used),	anthropophagi.
Antithesis,	antitheses.
Apex,	apices.
Aphelion,	aphelia.
Aphis,	aphides.
Apparatus (*u* short),	apparatus (*u* long), apparatuses.
Appendix,	appendices, appendixes.
Aquarium,	aquaria, aquariums.
Arcanum,	arcana.
Asylum,	asyla, asylums.
Automaton,	automata, automatons.
Axis,	axes.
Bandit,	banditti.
Basis,	bases.
Basso-relievo,	bassi-relievi.
Beau,	beaux.
Bonvivant,	bonsvivans.
Calculus,	calculi.
Calx,	calces.
Candelabrum,	candelabra.
Catachresis,	catachreses.
Census (*u* short),	census (*u* long), censuses.
Chateau,	chateaux.
Cherub,	cherubim, cherubs.
Cheval-de-frise,	chevaux-de-frise.
Chrysalis,	chrysalides, chrysalises.
Cicerone,	ciceroni.
Cilium,	cilia.
Colossus,	colossi.
Convolvulus,	convolvuli.
Corps,	corps,
Crisis,	crises.
Criterion.	criteria.
Datum,	data.
Desideratum,	desiderata.
Diæresis,	diæreses.
Dictum,	dicta.
Dilettante,	dilettanti.
Dogma,	dogmata, dogmas.
Effluvium,	effluvia.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.
Emphasis,	emphases.
Emporium,	emporia, emporiums.
Encomium,	encomia, encomiums.
Ephemeris,	ephemerides.
Erratum,	errata.
Eulogium,	eulogia, eulogiums.
Fasciculus,	fasciculi.
Flambeau,	flambeaux.
Focus,	foci, focuses.
Foramen,	foramina.
Formula,	formulæ, formulas
Forum,	fora.
Fungus,	fungi, funguses.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Fulcrum,	fulcra.
Genius,	genii, *aerial beings.* geniuses, *persons of genius.*
Genus,	genera.
Gymnasium,	gymnasia.
Hiatus (*u* short),	hiatus (*u* long).
Hippopotamus,	hippopotami.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Inamorato,	inamorati.
Ignis-fatuus,	ignes-fatui.
Incubus,	incubi.
Index,	indices, *algebraic exponents.* indexes, *pointers, tables of contents.*
Improvisatore,	improvisatori.
Jeu-d'esprit,	jeux-d'esprit.
Lamina,	laminæ.
Larva,	larvæ.
Lusus- (*u* short) naturæ,	lusus- (*u* long), naturæ.
Lyceum,	lycea, lyceums.
Macula,	maculæ.
Madame (not used),	mesdames.
Magus,	magi.
Mausoleum,	mausolea.
Medium,	media.
Memorandum,	memoranda, memorandums.
Memorabile (not used),	memorabilia.
Menstruum,	menstrua.
Mephitis,	mephites.
Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses.
Miasma,	miasmata.
Millennium,	millennia.
Minutia (not used),	minutiæ.
Momentum,	momenta.
Morceau,	morceaux,
Monsieur,	messieurs.
Narcissus,	narcissi.
Nautilus,	nautili.
Nebula,	nebulæ.
Nidus,	nidi.
Nimbus,	nimbi.
Nostrum,	nostra.
Novus homo,	novi homines.
Nucleus,	nuclei.
Oasis,	oases.
Orchis,	orchides, orchises.
Ovum,	ova.
Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Parhelion.	parhelia.
Perihelion,	perihelia.
Phasis,	phases.
Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Polypus,	polypi.
Premium,	premia, premiums.
Proboscis,	proboscides.
Prima donna,	prime donne.
Radius.	radii.
Ranunculus,	ranunculi, ranunculuses.
Regale (not used),	regalia.
Rhombus.	rhombi.
Sarcophagus,	sarcophagi.
Savant,	savans.
Scholium,	scholia.
Scoria,	scoriæ.
Seraph,	seraphim, seraphs.
Series,	series.
Species.	species.
Spectrum,	spectra.
Speculum.	specula.
Sphinx,	sphinges, *hawk-moths.* sphinxes, *in mythology.*
Spicula,	spiculæ.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Stadium,	stadia.
Stamen,	stamens, *parts of flowers.* / stamina, *the solids of the human body.*
Stigma,	stigmata, *in botany and surgery.* / stigmas, *marks of reproach.*
Stimulus,	stimuli.
Stratum,	strata.
Stria.	striæ.
Succedaneum,	succedanea.
Symposium,	symposia.
Synopsis,	synopses.
Synthesis,	syntheses.
Tableau,	tableaux.
Terminus,	termini.
Thesis,	theses.
Triumvir,	triumviri, triumvirs.
Tumulus,	tumuli.
Vertebra,	vertebræ.
Vertex,	vertices.
Virtuoso,	virtuosi.
Viscus,	viscera.
Vortex,	vortices.

14. When a noun is the subject of a sentence it is said to be in the nominative case, and when it immediately follows a verb or a preposition it is said to be in the objective case, but its form is precisely the same in both cases. Ex. Nom. The *man* walks; *trees* grow. Obj. I pity the *man;* he fells the *trees;*—with the *man;* under the *trees.*

When one noun, in either the singular or plural number, is used along with another attributively, and indicating its possessor or origin, *'s* (with an apostrophe before it, which shows that a vowel sound has been dropped) is added to the former, except when it ends in a sibilant, when most frequently only the apostrophe is added. Ex. A *soldier's* life; the *soldiers'* friend; the *jury's* verdict; the *judges'* sentence; *Thomas's* horse (read "Thomases"); the *fox'* (read "foxes") brush; "He that despised *Moses'* law, died;" "If ye suffer for *righteousness'* sake, happy are ye."

Declension of a Noun.

	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative Case, / *Objective Case,*	King,	Kings.
Possessive Case.	King's,	Kings'.

15. In order to individualize the application of common nouns, two words usually designated articles, one a demonstrative pronoun, *the,* the other a numeral, *an* (or, as abbreviated before a consonant sound, *a*), almost universally precede them. The former, which is called the definite article, is used before nouns of both numbers. Ex. *The man, the men; the horse, the horses.* The latter is called the indefinite article, and is used before nouns in the singular number only. Ex. *A man, an hour, a tree, an enemy.*

Proper names, abstract nouns, names of materials, and some other classes of nouns, take the articles only when they are used as common nouns. Ex. *Solon, Brutus, hope, fear, water, wood; the Solon* of his country; he is *a Brutus; the hopes and fears* of youth; *the water's* edge; *the wood* of the ark.

16. **Verbs.** When the action signified by a verb takes effect immediately on any person or thing as its object, the verb is called transitive or active; but when the action is completely described by the verb itself, or when the verb signifies a condition, it is called intransitive or neuter. Ex. We *suspect deceit,* he *loves truth;* I *walk* or *run,* they *sleep,* you *stand.* Many verbs, as may be seen in the English Dictionary, are both active and neuter. Ex. *To abate a nuisance, the storm abated; to account a man wise, to account for one's conduct.*

Transitive verbs are conjugated in two ways: one form, called active, is used when the agent is the subject of the verb. Ex. *I esteem* him; *they speak* both French and German; *the Allies defeated* the Russians. The other is used when the agent is the immediate object of the verb, and is called passive. Ex. He *is esteemed by me;* both French and German *are spoken by them;* the Russians *were defeated by the Allies.*

In the conjugation of verbs, four moods are distinguished—the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive—and another class of forms, called participles. The indicative is used when the speaker asserts something as actually existing or acting. Ex. *He reads, we walked, they will consent, thou art punished, I was exalted, you will be confounded.* The subjunctive is used when some possible or probable action or state of being is spoken of. Ex. "*If I be* a father, where is mine honor?" "*Though thou detain* me, I will not eat;" "*If he were* a prophet, he would have known who touched him;" "*Though these three men were* in it, they should deliver neither son nor daughter." When a command is given, the imperative is employed. Ex. "*Honor* all men. *Love* the brotherhood. *Fear* God. *Honor* the king." The infinitive mood consists of the substantive forms, and the participles of the attributive forms, of the verb to which they belong. The preposition *to* is prefixed to all infinitives, except those which follow auxiliary verbs, and such verbs as *see, hear, etc.,* in the active voice. Ex. "*To err* is human; *to forgive,* divine;"

to have praised, to have been blamed; I saw him *weep*, he was seen *to weep; erring, forgiven;* "*having* nothing, and yet *possessing* all things."

17. **The three tenses of verbs,** or the times in which an action or event may be said to take place, are the present, the past, and the future; and in each of them, it may be considered as indefinitely, or imperfectly, or perfectly accomplished. Ex. (Indef. pres.) *I read,* (imperf. pres.) *I am reading,* (perf. pres.) *I have read;* (indef. past) *I read,* (imperf. past) *I was reading,* (perf. past) *I had read;* (indef. fut.) *I shall read,* (imperf. fut.) *I shall be reading,* (perf. fut.) *I shall have read.* In the subjunctive mood, the tense forms express the probability or improbability of the event or action spoken of. Ex. (Prob.) "What matter where, *if I be* still the same?" "*Though thou detain* me, I will not eat." (Improb.) "*If ye were* of the world, the world would love his own." "*If ye loved* me, ye would rejoice."

The imperative mood admits of no distinctions of time, but only of the completeness or incompleteness of the action commanded. Ex. (Imperf.) *Read thou,* (perf.) *Have done!*

In the infinitive mood the only tense is the present. Ex. (Indef. pres.) *to read,* (imperf. pres.) *to be reading,* (perf. pres.) *to have read.* And the participles admit only of the distinctions of completeness and incompleness of the action spoken of. Ex. (Imperf.) *reading,* (perf.) *read.*

18. By means of a class of verbs, called **Auxiliary verbs,** the capability of expressing the several relations of mood, tense, etc., is greatly extended and refined. Those tenses which are formed without the assistance of auxiliaries are called simple tenses, and the others, compound. Ex. *We hope, you fear, they fled; I am hoping, thou hast feared, he has fled, we shall learn.*

The auxiliary verbs of mood are such as *may* and *can,* which express possibility; *must, ought,* and *shall,* which express obligation; *shall* and *will,* expressing determination of will; *might, could,* and *would,* expressing desire; *let* and *may,* implying permission; *do,* which adds emphasis to assertion, and is employed in negatives and questions, etc., etc. Ex. *It may be* so, *he can do* it, *you must see* that *you should obey,* "these things *ought* not so *to be,*" *we shall see* to that, *I will be heard, might it* but *be* so! *could we* but *know* it, *would he were* here! *let him do* what he will, *you may do* as you please, *we do like* simplicity, *it does not* signify, *do you see* the meaning?

The auxiliary verbs of tense are such as *be, be about, be going, begin, do, have, keep, shall, will,* etc. Ex. *You are chosen, they were laughing, we are about to depart, we are going to learn* French, *I did* once *think, he has seen* too much, *they kept expecting* what was impossible, *he would dance* and *sing* the whole day long.

All the moods, tenses, etc., of the passive forms of verbs are made by the help of the verb *be.* Ex. *I am praised, we were loved, they shall be beaten, to be afflicted, having been disappointed.*

19. The only distinctive personal forms are those of the second and third persons singular of the present indefinite tense, and the second person singular of the past indefinite; all the other persons in each of the simple tenses are alike. Ex. *I lead, thou leadest, he leads* (*leadeth*), *we lead, you lead, they lead. I led, thou leddest, he led, we led, you led, they led.*

Impersonal Verbs, of which there are but two in our language (strictly so to be called), are found only in the third person singular. Ex. "*Meseems* I hear her singing loud," *meseemed;* "*methinks* he breaks it," "*methought* I saw my late espoused wife." But other verbs are often used impersonally. Ex. *It rained* last night, *it liked* him well, *it behoved* him to do the same.

20. By far the greater number of **English verbs,** including all that have been recently introduced, and almost all derivatives, are of the class called weak verbs, that is, they form their past indefinite tenses, and their perfect participles, by the addition of *d* (or *t*) to the present, or *ed* when the present ends in *d* or *t.* Ex. *Hope, hoped; light, lighted.* But it must be observed, there is a great difference between our spoken and our written language in this particular; the forms of the latter having departed widely from the sounds of the former. Ex. *Walk, walked* (pron. *walkd*); *step, stepped* (pron. *stept*); *stab, stabbed* (pron. *stabd*); *bar, barred* (pron. *bard*).

The remainder form their past indefinite tenses and perfect participles either by modifying the verbal sound, and adding *n* or (*en*) for the participle (being of the class called strong verbs); by modifying the vowel, and adding *t* for the participle; by changing the terminal *d* into *t;* or by retaining the present form for both the tense and the participle.

But the tendency to uniformity is so strong that many of these verbs have lost one or both of their peculiar forms, and others have two forms for the past indefinite and perfect participle.

21. The following is a complete list of these verbs, classified mainly by their present forms, yet not without regard to their original forms in the Anglo-Saxon. It must be observed that the original forms of many of these verbs are obsolete, or preserved in provincial usage only (and such forms are enclosed in parentheses); and that sometimes the past tense is used for the participle, and sometimes the terminal *n* or *en* has been dropped.

First Division. Verbs which change their vowel sounds, and form their perfect participles by adding *en* or *n*, or strong verbs.

1st Class. Vowels *e* and *a*, becoming *e*, *a*, or *o*.

Present Indef. Tense.	*Past Indef. Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Delve	(dolve, dalf) delved	delved
Get	got (gat)	(gotten) got
Help	(holp, halp) helped	(holpen) helped
Melt	(molt) melted	molten, melted
Sweat	(swote, swat) sweat, sweated	(sweaten) sweated
Swell	(swoll) swelled	swollen, swelled
Yell	(yoll) yelled	yelled
Burst	(brast) burst	(borsten) burst
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Eat	eat, ate	eaten, eat
Bear (*bring forth*)	bore (bare)	born
Bear (*carry*)	bore (bare)	borne
Break	broke (brake)	broken, broke
Cleave (*adhere*)	(clave) cleaved	cleaved
Cleave (*split*)	(clove, clave) cleft	cloven, cleft
Creep	(crope) crept	crept
(Falde) fold	folded	(folden) folded
Freeze	froze	frozen
Heave	(hove) heaved	(hoven) heaved
(Queath)	quoth	
Lead	(lode, lad) led	led
Leap	(lope) leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
Seethe	(soth) sod, seethed	sodden
Shear	(shore) sheared	shorn
Speak	spoke (spake)	spoken
Steal	stole (stale)	stolen
Swear	swore (sware)	sworn
Tear	tore (tare)	torn
Tread	trode, trod, (trade)	trodden, trod
Wear	wore (ware)	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	(wope) wept	wept
Wreak	(wroke) wreaked	(wroken) wreaked
Wreathe	wreathed	wreathen, wreathed
Yield	(yolde) yielded	yielded
(Be)		been
See	saw	seen
Awake, wake	awoke	awaked
Bake	(boke) baked	(baken) baked
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Grave	(grove) graved	graven, graved
Lade	(lode) laded	laden, loaden
Shake	shook, shaked	shaken, shaked
Shape	(shope) shaped	shapen, shaped
Shave	shaved	shaven, shaved
Stave	stove	
Take	took	taken
Stand	stood	stood
Wax	(wox, wex) waxed	(waxen) waxed

2d Class. Vowel *i*, becoming *a*, *o*, *u*, or *ou*.

Begin	began (begon)	begun
Cling	clung (clong)	clung
Dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
Drink	drank (drunk, dronk)	drunken, drunk
Fling	flung (flang, flong)	flung
Hang (hing)	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
Ring	rang, rung (rong)	rung
Run (rin)	ran	run
Shrink	shrank, shrunk (shronk)	shrunken, shrunk
Sing	sang, sung (song)	sung
Sink	sank, sunk (sonk)	sunken, sunk
Sling	(slang) slung (slong)	slung
Slink	(slank) slunk (slonk)	slunk
Spin	(span) spun (spon)	spun
Spring	sprang, sprung (sprong)	sprung
Stick	stuck (stoke)	stuck
Sting	(stang) stung (stong)	stung
Stink	stank, stunk (stonk)	stunk
String	(strang) strung	strung
Swim	swam, swum (swom)	swum
Swing	(swang) swung (swong)	swung
Swink	(swank, swonk) swink	(swonk) swinkt
Win	(wan) won	won
Wring	wrung, wringed	wrung
Bid	bade (bode), bid	bidden, bid
Give	gave (gove)	given
Sit	sate	sitten, sate
Slit	(slat) slit, slitted	slitten, slit, slitted
Spit	spat, spit	spitten, spit, spat
Betide	betid	betid
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Abide, bide	abode	abode
Arise, rise	arose (aris)	arisen
Bite	(bote, bat) bit	bitten, bit
Chide	(chode) chid	chidden, chid
Climb	(clomb, clamb) climbed	climbed
Dive	(dove) dived	dived
Drive	drove (drave)	driven
Glide	(glode, glid) glided	glided
Hight	(hote, hete)	
Lie	lay	lien, lain
Ride	rode, rid	ridden, rid
Rive	(rove) rived	riven
Shrive	(shrove) shrived	shriven
Smite	smote (smate), smit	smitten, smit
Stride	strode, strid	stridden
Strive	strove	striven
Thrive	throve, thrived	thriven
Write	wrote (wrate) writ	written, writ, wrote
Writhe	writhed	writhen, writhed
Shine	shone, shined	shone, shined
Wit (wite)	(wote) wot	
Strike	(stroke) struck	stricken, struck
Bind	bound (bond)	bounden, bound
Fight	fought	foughten, fought

Present Indefinite Tense.	*Past Indefinite Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Find	(fand, fond) found	found
Grind	ground	ground
Wind	wound (wond), winded	wound

3d Class. Vowel *o*, becoming *e* in past tense.

Draw	drew	drawn
Fall	fell	fallen
Saw	sawed	sawn, sawed
Wash	(wesh) washed	washen, washed
Blow	blew	blown
Crow	crew, crowed	crowed
Fly	flew	flown
Grow	grew	grown
Hew	hewed	hewn, hewed
Hold	held	holden, held
Know	knew	known
Mow	(mew) mowed	mown, mowed
Show	(shew) showed	shown, showed
Snow	(snew) snowed	snowed
Sow	(sew) sowed	sown, sowed
Strow, strew (straw)	strewed, strowed	strewn, strown, strewed
Throw	threw	thrown
Let (late)	let	let
Slay	slew	slain
Laugh	(loghe, leugh) laughed	laughed

4th Class. Vowel *o*, shortened.

Choose	chose (chase)	chosen
Go		gone
Lose	lost	(lorn) lost
Shoot	shot	shotten, shot
Do	did	done

5th Class.

Come	came	come

Note, that the participle "*sawn*" seems to have been formed analogically after "*drawn*;" also, that the word *did* is a contracted form; and the vowel *i* does not represent the *o* of the present, but is the short vowel sound of a reduplication of the *d*. It is the only instance in our language.

22. *Second Division.* Verbs which change their vowel sound, but form their perfect participles in *d* or *t*; and are therefore weak verbs.

1st Class. Vowels shortened.

Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Feed	fed	fed
Meet	met	met
Read	read	read
Speed	sped	sped
Bereave, reave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved
(Clepe)		y-clept
Deal	dealt	dealt
Deem	(dempt) deemed	deemed
Dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed
Feel	felt	felt
Flee	fled	fled
Hear	heard	heard
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
Lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned
Mean	meant	meant
Sleep	slept	slept
Sweep	swept	swept
Shoe	shod	shod

2d Class. Vowels, *a*, *e*, *i*, and *o*, changed into *o*, *au*, *ou*.

Present Indefinite Tense.	*Past Indefinite Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Sell	sold	sold
Tell	told	told
Catch	caught, catched	caught, catched
Reach	(raught) reached	(raught) reached
Stretch	(straught, streight) stretched	stretched
Teach	taught	taught
Distract	distracted	(distraught) distracted
Freight	freighted	fraught, freighted
Shall	should	
Will	would (woll)	
May	(mought) might	
Beseech	besought	besought
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Own	ought, owed	owed
Seek	sought	sought
Think	thought	thought
Work	wrought, worked	wrought, worked

Note, that the *y* in "*y-clept*" is the old participial prefix, of which only one other instance remains in occasional use in our language, "*y-clad*."

Note, also, that both "*distraught*" and "*fraught*" are formed from words derived from other languages.

23. *Third Division. Contracted Weak Verbs.*

Have	had	had
Make	made	made
Lay	laid	laid
Pay	paid	paid
Say	said	said
Dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
Pen	penned	pent, penned
Spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled
(Wis)	(wist)	
Bend	bent, bended	bent, bended
Build	built, builded	built, builded
Gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded
Gird	girt, girded	girt, girded
Lend	lent	lent
Rend	rent	rent
Send	sent	sent
Shend	shent	shent
Spend	spent	spent
(Wend)	went	
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
Lift	lift, lifted	lift, lifted
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
Rid	rid	rid
Roast	roasted	roast, roasted
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Split	split, splitted	split, splitted
Spread	spread	spread
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted

24. *Defective Verbs.*

Present Indefinite Tense.	*Past Indefinite Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Am	was	been
Clothe	clad, clothed	(y-clad) clothed
Go	went	gone

In the first of these, each part belongs to a different verb; in the second, "*clad*" and "*y-clad*" are derived from some word not greatly unlike "*clothe;*" and both forms in this kind have appeared in the preceding lists.

25. *Irregular Verbs.*

Can	could
Dare, durst	durst

It is the introduction of the *l* into "*could*," which makes the former of these irregular. The other appears to have adopted its original past tense as an additional form for the present; when used transitively, in the meaning of "to challenge or provoke," its past tense and perfect participles are "*dared.*"

26. *Conjugation of Auxiliary Verbs.*

1. To Be.

Indicative Mood. Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I am,	2. Thou art,	3. He is,
Plur.	1. We are,	2. You are,	3. They are.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I was,	2. Thou wast,	3. He was,
Plur.	1. We were,	2. You were,	3. They were.

Subjunctive Mood. Form implying probability.

Sing. and *plur.* (If) I, thou, he, we, you, they be.

Form implying improbability.

Sing and *plur.* (If) I wert; thou wert; he, we, you, they were.

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Be thou. *Plur.* Be ye.

Infinitive Mood. Present Indefinite Tense.

To be.

Participles.

Imperfect. Being. *Perfect.* Been.

2. To Have.

Indicative Mood. Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I have,	2. Thou hast,	3. He hath or has,
Plur.	1. We have,	2. You have,	3. They have.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I had,	2. Thou hadst,	3. He had,
Plur.	1. We had,	2. You had,	3. They had.

Subjunctive Mood. Probable form.

Sing. and *plur.* (If) I, thou, he, we, you, they have.

Improbable form.

Sing. and *plur.* (If) I had; thou hadst; he, we, you, they had.

Infinitive Mood. Present Indefinite Tense.

To have.

Participles.

Imperfect. Having. *Perfect.* Had.

3. To Do.

Indicative Mood. Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I do,	2. Thou dost,	3. He doth or does,
Plur.	1. We do,	2. You do,	3. They do.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing.	1. I did,	2. Thou diddest or didst,	3. He did,
Plur.	1. We did,	2. You did,	3. They did.

Subjunctive Mood. Probable form.

Sing and *plur.* (If) I, thou, he, we, you, they do.

Improbable form.

Sing. and *plur.* (If) I did; thou didst; he, we, you, they did.

Infinitive Mood. Present Indefinite.

To do

Participles.

Imperfect. Doing. *Perfect.* Done.

In the auxiliaries, *may, can, shall, will,* the only change of form is in the second person singular, which are *mayest, mightest; canst, couldst; shalt, shouldst; wilt, wouldst;* in the present and past tenses respectively. *Let* and *must* have no inflexions, and *ought* (which admits of no distinction of time) has *oughtest* in the second person singular.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I might, could, would, *or* should be,	We might, could, would, *or* should be,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst be,	Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should be,
He might, could, would, *or* should be.	They might, could, would, *or* should be.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, *or* should have been,	We might, could, would, *or* should have been,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been,	Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have been,
He might, could would, *or* should have been.	They might, could, would, *or* should have been.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I might, could, would, *or* should have,	We might, could, would, *or* should have,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst *or* shouldst have,	Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have,
He might, could, would, *or* should have.	They might, could, would, *or* should have.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, *or* should have had,	We might, could, would, *or* should have had,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have had,	Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have had,
He might, could, would, *or* should have had.	They might, could, would, *or* should have had.

27. Conjugation of the Verb, *To See.*

ACTIVE FORMS.

Moods.	Tenses.	Indefinite. Sing.	Indefinite. Plur.	Imperfect. Sing.	Imperfect. Plur.	Perfect. Sing.	Perfect. Plur.
Indicative.	*Pres.*	1. I see, 2. Thou seest, 3. He seeth, or sees.	We see, You see, They see.	I am seeing, Thou art seeing. He is seeing.	We are seeing, You are seeing, They are seeing.	I have seen, Thou hast seen, He has seen.	We have seen, You have seen, They have seen.
	Past.	1. I saw, 2. Thou sawest, 3. He saw.	We saw, You saw, They saw.	I was seeing Thou wast seeing, He was seeing.	We were seeing, You were seeing, They were seeing.	I had seen, Thou hadst seen, He had seen.	We had seen, You had seen, They had seen.
	Fut.	1. I shall see, 2. Thou shalt see, 3. He shall see.	We shall see, You shall see, They shall see.	I shall be seeing, Thou shalt be seeing, He shall be seeing.	We shall be seeing, You shall be seeing, They shall be seeing.	I shall have seen, Thou shalt have seen, He shall have seen.	We shall have seen, You shall have seen, They shall have seen.
Subjunctive.	*Probab.*	1. (If) I see, 2. (If) Thou see, 3. (If) He see.	We see, You see, They see.	(If) I be seeing, (If) Thou be seeing, (If) He be seeing.	We be seeing, You be seeing, They be seeing.	(If) I have seen, (If) Thou have seen, (If) He have seen.	We have seen, You have seen, They have seen.
	Improb.	1. (If) I saw, 2. (If) Thou sawest, 3. (If) He saw.	We saw, You saw, They saw.	(If) I were seeing, (If) Thou wert seeing, (If) He were seeing.	We were seeing, You were seeing, They were seeing.	(If) I had seen, (If) Thou hadst seen, (If) He had seen.	We had seen, You had seen, They had seen.
Imperative.		See thou.	See you.	Be thou seeing.	Be ye seeing.		
Infinitive Present.		To see.		To be seeing.		To have seen.	
Participle.				Seeing.		Seen.	

PASSIVE FORMS.

Moods.	Tenses.	Indefinite. Sing.	Indefinite. Plur.	Perfect. Sing.	Perfect. Plur.
Indicative.	*Pres.*	1. I am seen, 2. Thou art seen, 3. He is seen.	We are seen, You are seen, They are seen.	I have been seen, Thou hast been seen, He has been seen.	We have been seen, You have been seen, They have been seen.
	Past.	1. I was seen, 2. Thou wast seen, 3. He was seen.	We were seen, You were seen, They were seen	I had been seen, Thou hadst been seen, He had been seen.	We had been seen, You had been seen, They had been seen.
	Fut.	1. I shall be seen, 2. Thou shalt be seen, 3. He shall be seen.	We shall be seen, You shall be seen, They shall be seen.	I shall have been seen, Thou shalt have been seen, He shall have been seen.	We shall have been seen, You shall have been seen, They shall have been seen
Subjunctive.	*Probab.*	1. (If) I be seen, 2. (If) Thou be seen, 3 (If) He be seen.	We be seen, You be seen, They be seen.	(If) I have been seen, (If) Thou have been seen, (If) He have been seen.	We have been seen, You have been seen, They have been seen.
	Improb.	1. (If) I were seen, 2. (If) Thou wert seen, 3. (If) He were seen.	We were seen, You were seen, They were seen.	(If) I had been seen, (If) Thou hadst been seen, (If) He had been seen.	We had been seen, You had been seen, They had been seen.
Imperative.		Be thou seen.	Be ye seen.		
Infinitive Present.		To be seen.		To have been seen.	
Participle.		Being seen.		Having been seen.	

Note. That by means of the various auxiliaries a great number of additional tenses, in all the moods, might be formed.

Note also, that in the passive, the imperfect tenses cannot be formed except for a few verbs, and then only in the past and present, and in two ways—"*the house is building*," or "*the house is being built;*" "*the books were printing*," or "*were being printed.*" Formerly the first of these forms was different. Ex. *The ark was a-preparing.*

28. **Adjectives.**—There are no changes of forms in the adjectives, to show their relations to the nouns they qualify, as to gender, number or case. **Ex.** A *wise man, wise men;* a *tall man,* a *tall woman,* a *tall tree;* they saw the *powerful king's golden crown;* he defeated *three great emperors' vast armies.* But the degree of intensity in which any quality is regarded as characterizing one or more persons or things, when compared with others, is expressed by the addition of *er* (or *r*) and *est* (or *st*) to the simple (or positive) form of the adjective;—the former (called the comparative degree) being employed where only two subjects are compared, the latter (named the superlative) when a subject is compared with more than one other in respect of the same quality. Ex. This tree is *taller* than that, but the next is the *tallest* of the three, and those trees are the *tallest* in the wood; this man is *wiser* than those

and those men are the *wisest* in our country; platinum is the *heaviest* metal, or platinum is *heavier* than any other metal.

Instead of using these inflexions, with adjectives of more than one syllable, the comparative is frequently formed by prefixing *more*, and the superlative by prefixing *most*, to the simple form. Ex. A *more prudent* man, the *most prudent* conduct; *more seasonable* weather, *most unseasonable* importunities.

29. Some adjectives are defective, or have comparatives and superlatives formed from other words; and some do not form them according to the common rule. The following are the principal adjectives to which these remarks apply:—

Bad	worse (worser)	worst
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	further	furthest, first
Good	better	best
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Little	less, lesser	least
Much, many	more	most
Near, nigh	nearer, nigher	nearest, next
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest.

Another class of adjectives differ from the common rule in having a positive signification with the comparative form (as is the case with the comparatives, *superior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, and *interior*, borrowed from the Latin), and only a superlative degree of comparison beside. Ex. *Former*, *foremost; hinder*, *hindmost*, and *hindermost; hither*, *hithermost; inner*, *inmost*, and *innermost; nether*, *nethermost; outer*, *outmost*, and *outermost; under*, *undermost; upper*, *upmost*, and *uppermost; utter*, *utmost*, and *uttermost*. The following superlatives also occur: *midmost* for *midst*, *nothernmost* and *southernmost*.

Different degrees of intensity are also more generally expressed by the use of some adverbs. Ex. *Too hot*, *very cold*, *exceedingly angry*. "*Less*" and "*least*" are employed when the comparison regards lower degrees of intensity. Ex. *Less scrupulous*, *least scrupulous*.

30. **Numerals.**—When the cardinal numerals are employed to signify abstract numbers, they are nouns. Ex. *Four* and *three* are *seven*, *two* and *one* are *three*. But when used to express concrete quantities they are adjectives. Ex. *Four* horses, *ten* men, a *hundred* pounds.

The ordinal numerals (which signify position in a series) are most frequently adjectives. Ex. The *first* man, the *tenth* sheep, the *thirtieth* day. But they are sometimes used objectively, and then are adverbs. Ex. He stands *first*, I am *tenth* on the list. There are also the regularly formed adverbial ordinal numerals, *firstly*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.

Fractional numerals are the same as ordinals, but they are nouns, and are so because they are abbreviations. Ex. One-*third* (for "one *third part*") three-*fourths* (for "three *fourth parts*"), four-*fifths*, two-*tenths* of an inch. In this series *first* is omitted, *half* is used for *second*, and *quarter* is often substituted for *fourth*.

Beside these there are the reiterative numerals, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, *four times*, &c.; the multiplicatives, *single*, *double* or *two-fold*, *triple* or *three-fold*, *quadruple* or *four-fold*, &c.;—the distributives, *singly* or *one by one*, *two by two*, &c.; and other classes.

The words *neither*, *either*, *other*, *both*, *next*, *again*, *then*, and some others, which are also called pronouns, are frequently employed as numerals, to signify *not one*, *one*, *second*, *two*, *secondly*, &c.

Indeterminate numerals express number and quantity, but not definitely. They are such words as *more*, *some*, *none*, *few*, *many*, *several*, *much*, *all*, &c.

31. **Pronouns.**—Those which are used as nouns only, are the personal pronouns, *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and their plurals. They are thus declined.

	First Person.		Second Person.	
	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nominative Case,	I	we	thou	you, ye
Objective Case,	me	us	thee	you, ye
Possessive Case,	my, mine	our, ours	thy, thine	your, yours

	Third Person.			
	Sing.			*Plur.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*All genders.*
Nominative Case,	he	she	it	they
Objective Case,	him	her	it	them
Possessive Case,	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs.

The possessive cases of these pronouns are sometimes spoken of as a class by themselves, and called possessive (adjective) pronouns. In the first and second persons, the possessive cases, and in the third person, the objective cases, with *self* or *selves* affixed, constitute the reflective pronouns. Ex. Know *thyself*, he loves *himself*, they were ashamed of *themselves*. And these and the possessives are rendered emphatic by the insertion of *own*. Ex. "I scarcely coveted what was *my own*;" "Thou owest unto me even *thine own self*."

32. The demonstrative pronouns are *this* and *that*, with the plurals *these* and *those; such*, *the same*, *yon* and *yonder*, *here*, *there*, *hence*, *thence*, *then*, &c., most of which are adverbs. Ex. "*This same* shall comfort us," "after *this* or *that* determinate manner," "it makes a greater show in *these* months than in *those*," "*such* are the cold Riphean race, and *such* the savage Scythian," "darkness *there* might well seem twilight *here*," "*now* shaves with level wing the deep, *then* soars," "useless and *thence* ridiculous," "*yon* flowering arbors, *yonder* alleys green." *The*, commonly called the definite article, is properly a demonstrative pronoun.

Pronouns used in questions, called interrogative, and those used in subjective and adjective accessory sentences, called relative, are *who* (in the objective *whom*, and the possessive *whose*, in both numbers), *which* (occasionally with a possessive case, *whose*) *what*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *when*, *how*; some of them being adverbs. Ex. *Who* art thou? *Which* is it? *What* do you mean? "*Whose* dog are you?" "*Whom* dost thou serve?" *Whence* come you? "*Whither* goest thou?" "*How* can these things be?" "The son of Duncan, from *whom* the tyrant holds the due of birth, lives in the English court." "The handsel or earnest of that *which* is to come." "See *what* natures accompany the several colors." "In Lydia born, *where* plenteous harvests the fat fields adorn." "Grateful t'acknowledge *whence* his good descends." "I strayed I knew not *whither*." *Note*, that the relative pronoun *what* is in signification equivalent to *the*, *that*, or *those which*.

33. *Whoever*, *whosoever* (and *whomsoever*, *whosesoever*) *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *wherever*, *whencesoever*, *however*, *herein*, *therein*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *whereof*, *whereas*, &c., are compounded or contracted pronouns and pronominal phrases. Ex. "I will follow thee *whithersoever* thou goest." "I think myself beholden, *whoever* shows me my mistakes." "*Whomsoever* else they visit, with the diligent only do they stay." "In *whatsoever* shape he lurk, I'll know." "Thy very stones prate of my *whereabout*." "You do take the means *whereby* I live." "*Herein* is a wonderful thing." "*Howbeit*, this wisdom saved them not."

In addition to these various classes of pronouns, there are some which are called indefinite, such as *one*, *aught*, *naught*, (sometimes spelt *ought*, *nought*), *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *any*, *other* (which has a plural when used as a noun, but not when used attributively), *they* (when used to signify "people in general"), &c. Ex. "*One* may be little the wiser for reading," "for *aught* that I can understand," "it cometh to *naught*." "are there *any* with you?" "the virtue and force of *every* of these three is shrewdly allayed," "*they* say that he has died immensely rich."

34. **Adverbs.**—These words do not admit of inflexion, and of them some are found only in the adverbial form, others are used as prepositions or conjunctions also; some are pronouns or adjectives; and many are derived from adjectives and even from substantives.

They are employed to express the relations of place—as *here*, *there*, *where*, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, *above*, *below*, *before*, *behind*, *in*, *out*, *off*, *on*, *near*, *afar*, *backwards*, *forwards*, *aside*, &c.,—of time, as, *then*, *when*, *now*, *after*, *before*, *still*, *soon*, *already*, *lately*, *daily*, *hitherto*, &c.,—of manner, as *how*, *thus*, *so*, *as*, *otherwise*, *well*, *fluently*, *kindly*, *blindly*, *lovingly*, *bravely*, *brightly*, &c.,—of mood, as *yes*, *no*, *not*, *if*, *perhaps*, *probably*, *possibly*, *likely*, *really*, &c., —of degree or intensity, as *frequently*, *seldom*, *often*, *again*, *very*, *quite*, *even*, *nearly*, *only*, *too*, *almost*, *much*, *rather*, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, &c.,—of causality, as *wherefore*, *therefore*, *however*, *nevertheless*, &c.

Some of those of manner, degree, and mood, admit of degrees of comparison, which they form after the manner of adjectives. Ex. *Soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*, *bravely*, *more bravely*, *most bravely*.

35. **Prepositions.**—These also are uninflected words, and besides the prepositions, properly so-called, nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, and adverbs, and even combinations of words, are employed as prepositions. Almost all the real prepositions admit of being used to express every variety of relation between the predicate and its objects, and between a subject and its attributes; but originally they all expressed the relation of place alone.

The prepositions, properly so called, and other words used for prepositions, are such as *above*, *about*, *across*, *after*, *against*, *along*, *among*, *at*, *before*, *behind*, *beside*, *between*, *beyond*, *by*, *concerning*, *down*, *during*, *from*, *in*, *into*, *of*, *off*, *on*, *over*, *save*, *since*, *through*, *till*, *to*, *towards*, *up*, *upon*, *with*, &c.

The following are some of the combinations of words used as prepositions:—*because of*, *by means of*, *on account of*, *in behalf of*, *instead of*, *according to*, *adjacent to*, *contrary to*, *with respect to*, &c.

Verbs frequently have prepositions as affixes, to modify their signification; and sometimes prepositions are used as adverbial objects in our language, which in other tongues are compounded with the verb. Ex. He *undertook* that business willingly; they have *overcome* their enemies; what would I not *undergo* for you? "they *went over* to the enemy;" "the poet *passes* it *over* as hastily as he can;" "to *set forth* great things by small;" "I shall *set out* for London to-morrow."

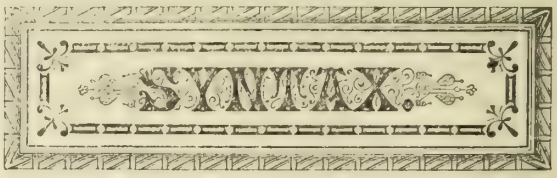
36. **Conjunctions,** like adverbs and prepositions, are indeclinable words. Some words are used only as conjunctions, and are called conjunctions proper; others are really pronouns, adverbs, &c.

Coördinative conjunctions are simply copulative, as, *and, also, besides, moreover, too, not only—but also, both—and, as well as, neither—nor, then, &c.;* adversative, as, *else, either—or, not—but, on the contrary, still, nevertheless, &c.;* or causative, as, *therefore, hence, so, consequently, for, accordingly.* Subordinative conjunctions connect adverbial and subjective accessory sentences with their principal sentences; and are such as, *that, but that, but, whether, if, since, although, unless, so, when, while, whilst, where, whence, &c.*

37. Amongst these indeclinable classes of words may be found many very interesting examples of ancient forms and inflexions of the English language, some of which have been lost in all but these instances, and in these the original signification is no longer preserved. Ex. Possessive cases, *else, unawares, needs;* dative cases, *seldom, whilom;* neuter objective cases, *little, less, well, nigh, athwart;* comparative degrees, *after, yonder, over, ere;* superlative degrees, *erst, next, almost.*

Note, that indeclinable words, which are used only as adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, are frequently called particles—and also, that the direct affirmative, *yes,* and the direct negative, *no,* are by some grammarians placed in a distinct class, as not being properly adverbs.

The great cause of the varied appearances or pronunciations of words originally the same in the speech of several races, is loss of care in utterance. The reasons for preferring one form to another are not always exactly definable, but as a rule the linguistic laws of phonetic alteration conform to the physical laws of articulation. Loss of care in utterance is ever to be avoided.



38. For the purpose of rendering this compendium of English Grammar more serviceable in such a study as that recommended in the first part, the examples in illustration of the Syntax are taken from casually opened pages of the English Bible, Shakespeare, the quotations in Dr. Johnson's English Dictionary, and one or two other books. In the same manner, the student should select examples by way of exercise, and to demonstrate to himself that he understands the grammatical principles exhibited here.

Words are combined in the formation of sentences in three ways; as subjects and predicates, as attributives to subjects, and as objects to predicates. And sentences are combined coördinately, or subordinately; subordinate or accessory sentences occupying the positions of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, in the principal sentences of which they form part.

39. **Subject and Predicate.**—In every sentence of perfectly expressed thought, these two elements are absolutely requisite—some person or thing spoken of, or a subject; and something asserted respecting it, or a predicate. If either subject or predicate be wanting, the expression in itself is unintelligible.

For subjects, nouns (which stand for persons or things) or pronouns (used in the place of nouns, and always in the nominative case), adjectives, participles or infinitive moods (representing qualities, actions, &c.), single words or letters (in which the thing and the name are identical), or subjective accessory sentences, may be used. Ex. "All *tongues* speak of him;" "*action* is eloquence;" "my *praises* made the first a soldier;" "*you* are a traitor;" "here *he* comes;" "*they* say, *she* 's mad;" "the *dead* shall rise and live again;" "the *wise* shall inherit glory;" "in him *sparing* would show a worse sin than its doctrine;" "*to err* is human, to *forgive*, divine;" "*who* is now used in relation to persons, and *which* to things;" "*A* has, in the English language, three different sounds;" "*that you have wronged me*, doth appear in this;" "*who steals my purse*, steals trash;" "*for a holy person to be humble* is as hard as for a prince to submit himself to tutors."

The strictly impersonal verbs have no subject expressed. Ex. "*Methinks* already I your tears survey," "*methought* I saw the grave where Laura lay." Actions or conditions which are not assignable to any subject, have the pronoun *it*, as a formal subject. Ex. "*It* thunders, *it* lightens," "*it* snows at the top of them, oftener than *it* rains," "*it* was freezing," "*it* is very cold," "*it* is hot to-day," "*it* seems." And similarly, for the sake of emphasis or animation, *it* and *there* are used formally as subjects, the real subjects being placed after their predicates. Ex. "*It* is excellent *to have a giant's strength*, but *it* is tyrannous *to use it as a giant*," "*it* is good *to be here*," "*it* is *I*," "it was *you* who did this," "*it* behoved him *to suffer*," "*it* is said *that parliament is dissolved*," "*it* repented the Lord *that he had made man*," "*it* doth not yet appear *what we shall be*," "*there* be *many that say*," "*there* was in a city *a judge*," "once upon a time *there* lived *a man*," "*there* arose *a mighty famine* in that land," "*there* were *that thought it a part of Christian charity to instruct them.*"

40. The essential characteristic of the predicate being assertion, a verb is indispensable in this part of a sentence. But besides verbs of all kinds, the verb *to be*, with nouns or pronouns (and that not only in the nominative case, but in the possessive also, and in the objective with a preposition), adjectives, participles, the infinitive mood, adverbs (and adverbs with prepositions), single words or letters, and accessory sentences, may be used as predicates. In the latter cases, the form of the verb *to be*, which is employed, is called the copula, or link, which unites the predicate to the subject. Ex. "He *ran* this way, and *leaped* this orchard wall," "he *hath hid* himself among those trees," "I *'ll believe* thee," "Juliet *is the sun*," "I *am a villain*," "you *'ll be the bear*," "her mother *is the lady of the house*," "ye *are Christ's*, and Christ *is God's*," "oh, he *is* even *in my mistress' case*, just *in her case*," "the haughty prelate, with many more confederates *are in arms*," "*of noble race was* Shenkin," "they *were to the number of three hundred horse*," "they *shall be mine*," "you *shall be ours*," "he *is not of us*," "the sky *is red*," "you *are meek*," "you *are excused*," "they *are running* this way," "you *are not to be taught*," "the holy treasure *was to be reserved*," "the woman *will be out*," "ye *are from beneath*," "the preterit of creep *is crept*," "the ending of the genitive case *is s*," "this *is what I said*," "thou *art whom I fear*," "men *should be what they seem.*" Nevertheless, in poetry and oratory, when peculiar emphasis or effect is desired, the copula is omitted, and the other predicative word placed before the subject. Ex. "*Vain, all in vain, the weary search;*" "*sweet the moments, rich in blessing.*

The connection between the predicate and the subject in a sentence is shown by the predicate being in the same number as the subject. Ex. *He loves, they love*, the *tree falls, trees grow, I am* afraid, *we are* satisfied. Two or more singular subjects connected by the conjunction "*and*" (which, however, is often omitted), so as to form either a compound or a single subject, have their predicate in the plural. Ex. "*Bacon and Shakespeare are* the greatest geniuses that England has produced;" "now *abide faith, hope, charity;*" *one and one are* two." And similarly, collective nouns have their predicates in the singular when they are thought of in the aggregate, but the plural when their component parts are most regarded. Ex. "*Parliament is* sitting," "*a cluster* of mob *were* making themselves merry with their betters," "*the people are* the city," "my *people doth* not consider." But when the predicate is a singular noun, the copula is often singular. Ex. "*Bread and cheese is* fit diet for a prince." And when the conjunction *or* or *nor* is used, unless the last subject be plural, the predicate is singular. Ex. "Either *you or your brother has* deceived me," "*neither shall the sun* light on them, *nor any heat*," "either *he or they have* carried her off."

41. When the speaker makes the assertion respecting himself, the subject is a personal pronoun of the first person, and the verb is also in the first person; when the assertion is addressed to him respecting whom it is made, the personal pronoun of the second person, and the form of the verb to correspond with it, are employed; and when it relates to any other person or thing, the third person of the verb (with the pronoun to correspond, if requisite), is used. Ex. "*I*, that *speak* unto thee, *am* he," "*I know* in whom *I have* believed," "*we speak* that *we do know*," "*thou art* the man," "*thou knewest* that I was an austere man," "*ye believe* not, because *ye are* not of my sheep." "Hamlet, *thou hast* thy father much *offended.*—Mother, *you have* my father much *offended.*" "*He planteth* an ash, and the *rain doth nourish* it," "*he drinketh* no water, and *is* faint," "the great *duke came* to the bar," "gentlemen, the *penance lies* on you," "heavenly *blessings follow* such

creatures," "the *hearts* of princes *kiss* obedience, so much *they love* it." In commands, the subject is very commonly omitted. Ex. "*Observe, observe,* he is moody," "*believe* it, this is true," "pray *hear* me." The subject is also very frequently omitted in animated discourse, before the verbs *pray, please,* &c., when used in accessory sentences. Ex. "*Pray* hear me," "give it me, *please.*"

42. When the assertion is general, or refers to the time at which it is made generally, the present indefinite sense is used. Ex. "Man *wants* but little here below." "I *am* the most unhappy woman living." "My lords, you *speak* your pleasures. What he *deserves* of you and me, I *know;* what we *can do* to him (though now the time *gives* way to us) I much *fear.*" When it refers to the actual point of time at which the assertion is made, the present imperfect is used. Ex. "The duke *is coming*," "his grace *is entering*," "from all parts they *are coming*," "England *is* not *wanting* in a learned nobility." And when it is made respecting an action regarded at the time as completed, the present perfect is employed. Ex. "*I have heard* one of the greatest geniuses this age *has produced*," "the gods *have placed* labor before interest," "this observation *we have made* on man." The present perfect sometimes appears with a different auxiliary. Ex. "*I am come, they are gone.*" "Cardinal Campeius *is stolen* away to Rome." The indefinite tense is frequently used instead of the imperfect. Ex. He *bites* his lip, and *starts, stops* on a sudden, *looks* upon the ground." And the present perfect is sometimes employed to indicate past time, or in a sense equivalent to that of the past indefinite tense. Ex. "We *have done* that which it was our duty to do," "we *have heard* with our ears, and our fathers *have declared* unto us the noble works thou didst in their days."

In animated historical narrative, and in narrative poetry, the present indefinite is often employed. Ex. "The boy *starts* to his feet, and his keen eye *looks* along the ready rifle .... Lo! a deer from Dalness, hound-driven, or sullenly astray, slowing, bearing his antlers up the glen, then stopping for a moment to snuff the air, then away—away! The rifle-shot *rings* dully from the scarce echoing snow-cliff, and the animal *leaps* aloft struck by a certain but not sudden death-wound."

"Her lover *sinks*—she *sheds* no ill-timed tears;
Her chief *is slain*—she *fills* his fatal post;
Her fellows *flee*—she *checks* their base career;
Her foe *retires*—she *heads* the sallying host.

"My General *descends* to the outer staircase, and *harangues;* once more in vain...Lafayette *mounts* the white charger; and again *harangues,* and *reharangues,* ...so *lasts* it, hour after hour, for the space of half a day."

43. In like manner, actions, &c., are referred to the past generally, or as proceeding and incomplete, or as completed, by the use of the past indefinite, imperfect, and perfect tenses. Ex. "My father *loved* you, *he said he did*," "*I* thrice *presented* him a kingly crown," "*you wronged* yourself;"—"they of Bethshemesh *were reaping*," "Israel *were fighting* with the Philistines," "they *were eating,* and *drinking,* and *dancing;*"—"when Boaz *had eaten* and *drunk,* he went to lie down," "Elihu *had waited* till Job *had spoken.*" The emphatic form is commonly used interchangeably with the indefinite. Ex. "Thus *did* my master *bid* me kneel, and thus *he bade* me say." The indefinite is often employed definitely when any particular past time is indicated in the sentence. Ex. "*I saw* him *yesterday.*"

And in the same way actions, &c., in time become discriminated by the employment of the future indefinite, imperfect, and perfect tenses. Ex. "A weighty secret *will work* a hole through them," "he *will* not *stoop* till he falls," "I shall never forget;"—"thy people *shall be willing* in the day of thy power," "they *will* be still *praising* thee;"—"we *shall have completed* our task before you commence yours," "then cometh the end, when *he shall have delivered* up the kingdom to God." Instead of the future, the indefinite present is often used. Ex. *I leave* England to-morrow, *we sail* next week. Other forms for expressing future time are mentioned above. Ex. "*We are going to spend* some time on the continent," "*I was about to write.*"

44. When simple assertion, or denial, is intended, the predicate is always in the indicative mood. Ex. "*I am glad* to see your lordship abroad," "the mouse *gnawed* the threads to pieces, and *set* the lion at liberty," "he *goeth* in company with the workers of iniquity, and *walketh* with wicked men," "*you did wish* that I would wake her then," "*she may go* to bed when she list; *all is* as she will," "*thou must run* to him," "*flatter him it may, I confess.*"

In principal sentences, when a wish is to be expressed, or a concession to be made for the sake of

argument, the subjunctive mood is used. Ex. "Now, all my joy *trace* the conjunction!" "the Lord *forbid!*" the Lord *increase* this business!" "*be it so*, my argument remains unshaken."

Commands are conveyed by means of the imperative mood. Ex. "*Know* thyself," "*follow thou* me," "*cease* to do evil, *learn* to do well," "*rejoice*, you men of Angiers, *ring* your bells." The auxiliary *let* is employed for the first and third persons. Ex. "Acknowledge then the king, and *let me in*," "*let* none of them *escape*," "rise, *let us go*," "*let* the soldiers *seize* him," "*let* Euclid *rest*, and Archimedes *pause*," "*let him be known* among the heathens."

45. The distinction between the use of the active and the passive forms of verbs has been pointed out and illustrated above (p. 11); and from that it will appear that whatever has been said here respecting predicates applies as much to the latter as to the former, with this exception—there being no (or but few) imperfect tenses in the passive, the indefinite tenses are in all cases (except the few referred to) used to express actions still in progress, or incomplete. Ex. "The colors *are changed* by viewing them at different obliquities," "*I am determined* to prove a villain," "*you shall be* new *christened* in the town," "to that sweet region *was* our voyage *bent*," "Hector *was dragged* about the walls of Troy," "the Irish horse-boys *should be cut off*," "after all that *can be said* against it, this remains true," "*it may be occasioned* thus," "*it shall be reported* to the king," "the Presbyterian sect *was established* in all its forms," "*it was said*, that the elder should serve the younger."

46. In questions the same grammatical forms are employed as in assertions; but the order of the words is generally inverted, and when compound tenses are used (as they most frequently are), the subject follows the auxiliary, whilst the verb itself occupies its usual place. Interrogative pronouns are put at the beginning of questions. Ex. "*Where is he?*" "*Shall I live* in hope?" "*What, do you tremble, are you* all afraid," "*Saw you* the king to-day?" "*When have I injured* thee?" "*Why look you* so pale?" "*Who hath believed* our report?" "*To whom will ye liken* God?" "Lucentio *is your name?*" "What, *you mean* my face?" "*You saw* this and *opposed* it not?"

The grammatical construction of negative sentences differs not at all from that of affirmative ones, such as have been chiefly selected for examples; the relation of the negative words *no*, *not*, &c., being either that of the attributive to its subject, or of the object of manner to its predicate, as may be seen below.

47. **Subject and Attributive.** In order to describe the subjects respecting which assertions are made in sentences, more accurately than their mere names are sufficient to do; and to define them, so that the assertions may not become ambiguous by reason of the vagueness of the subjects they relate to, words, phrases, and accessory sentences are employed, which are called attributives.

The commonest attributives are adjectives; with which may be included participles (which are the adjective forms of verbs), numerals, some kinds of pronouns, nouns used as adjectives, and a few adverbs, which are also occasionally used attributively. The only sign of the relation between these attributives and their subjects is their position, which is immediately before the words they refer to, except in cases where peculiar emphasis or animation is aimed at, when they immediately follow their subjects, Ex. "*The wierd* sisters," "*my dread* exploits," "from *this* moment," "*my dearest* coz," "*my pretty* cousin," "to offer up a *weak, poor, innocent lamb*," "O nation *miserable!*" "*a most miraculous* work in *this good king*," "*thy royal* father was a *more sainted king*," "*each several* crime," "*many* ways," "*the healing* benediction," "*all my pretty* chickens," "*an accustomed* action," "curses, not *loud*, but *deep*," "*those linen* cheeks of thine are counsellors to fear," "*a rooted* sorrow," "*the written* troubles of the brain," "*what* wood is this," "within *this three* mile," "*a moving* grove," "lead *our first* battle, "hateful to *mine* ear," "thou shalt have *none* assurance of *thy* life," "there was *no* day like that before," "it is *no good* report that I hear," "in *that very* day his thoughts perish," "to *poor* we *thine* enmity's most capital," "*a hundred* altars in *her* temples smoke, *a thousand* bleeding hearts *her* power invoke," "*some* men with swords may reap the field," "see where *the victor* victim bleeds," "*his* knowledge of good *lost*," "man's *first* disobedience," "these are *the martyr* spirits of mankind," "*which* way went he?" "*what* man is he?" "on the *hither* side," "*yon flowery* arbors, *yonder* alleys *green*," "in *russet* gear and *honest kersey* hose," "a hundred upon *poor four* us!" "*an everlasting* now."

In some cases where a noun is compounded with

an attributive word, in the plural number, the noun assumes the plural form. Ex. Attorney general, *Attorneys* general; Lord lieutenant, *Lords* lieutenant. But where the compound word expresses an inseparable notion the plural ending is added to the attributive, if that is the second element in the word. Ex. Two *spoonfuls*.

48. Nouns and pronouns in the possessive case are exceedingly common as attributives. But it must be noted that there is no distinction between the possessive cases of personal pronouns, and certain adjective pronouns called possessive; examples of which are given in the preceding paragraph. Sometimes the subject to these attributives is omitted; and frequently the preposition *of* is inserted before the possessive case. Ex. I am not yet of *Percy's* mind," "the roaring of the *lion's* whelp," "a *herald's* coat without sleeves," "hearts no bigger than *pins'* heads," "I did pluck allegiance from *men's* hearts," "a fair queen in a *summer's* bower," "I must to the *barber's*, monsieur," "the knight came to the *tailor's*," "I saw thee late at the Count *Orsino's*," "which is the way to Master *Jew's?*" "let *ours* also learn to maintain good works," "I seek not *yours* but you," "the king is now in progress towards *St. Alban's*," "a friend *of mine* on his journey," "if e'er those eyes *of yours* behold another day," "a seal ring *of* my *grandfather's*," "this dotage *of* our *general's* o'erflows the measure."

49. The objective case of nouns and pronouns, with various prepositions, but especially with the preposition *of* (which combination is equivalent to the possessive case), is used attributively. Ex. "I speak in behalf *of* my *daughter*, in the minority *of them* both," "the wicked ministry *of arms*," "the instrument *of Providence*," "the customs *of* the *Irish*," "thou art a soul *in bliss*," "a wholesome law time *out of mind*," "compassion *on* the *king* commands me stoop," "travels *by sea* and *land*," "the messenger *from* our *sister*," "our duty *to God*," "sons *to Cymbeline*," "four rogues *in buckram*." Imperfect participles are also employed with the preposition *of* as attributives. Ex. "A famine *of hearing* the word of the Lord," "he hath a bad habit *of frowning*," "the greatest care *of fulfilling* the Divine will." Another attributive use of this preposition (with one or two others) with nouns and pronouns is called partitive, from its evident force and signification. Ex. "The most diminutive *of birds*," "I have peppered two *of them*," "seven *of* the *eleven*, I paid," "every one *of them*," "all *of us*," "it contained the whole *of religion*," "for which *of* these *works* do ye stone me?" "one *amongst a thousand*."

50. Subjects are further defined and described by means of the words expressing subjects, in the same number, and immediately preceding or following them, and said to be in apposition with them. Ex. "Fulvia thy *wife* came first into the field, against my *brother* Lucius," "the false *house-wife* Fortune," "thou, my *brother*, my *competitor*, my *mate* in empire, *friend* and *companion* in the part of war," "*King* Cophetua wooed the *beggar* maid," "Hamlet, *Prince* of Denmark," His royal *highness*, *Prince* Albert; *Lord John* Russell, *Mr.* Smith. When several persons of the same name are spoken of, or addressed by letter, the honorary title is put in the plural, whilst the name is in the singular number. Ex. *Messieurs* Smith, Cheeryble *Brothers*, *the Mesdames* Robinson.

In some cases the noun in apposition is connected by means of the preposition *of*. Ex. The empire *of Russia*, the city *of St. Petersburg*, the university *of Cambridge*, the county *of Kent*, the port *of London*, the month *of July*, the province *of Judea*.

When two nouns in apposition are attributives to another, the latter only is put into the possessive case. Ex. "Our *neighbor Shepherd's* son," "King *Henry's* head," "*Dr. Johnson's* Dictionary," "*Duke Humphrey's* deeds," "The *Lord Protector's* wife," "my *Lord Cardinal's* man," "*Saint Alban's* shrine."

Accessory sentences are employed as attributives. Ex. "Whose hand is *that the forest bear doth lick?* Not his *that spoils her young before her face*," "a day will come, *when York shall claim his own*," "in that chair, *where kings and queens are crowned*."

51. Many of the illustrations given above show how common it is for a single subject to be described and defined by means of many attributives. The following examples will show some of the ways in which the repetition of the same word as subject to several attributives, or as attributive to several subjects, is prevented. Ex. "I thought the king had more affected *the Duke of Albany* than *Cornwall*," "the *princes*, *France* and *Burgnndy*," "here I disclaim all . . . *propinquity* and *property of blood*, and as *a stranger to my heart* and *me*, hold thee," "we still retain the *name* and all the *additions to a king*," "thy dowerless daughter is *queen of us*, *of ours*, and *our fair France*," "he wrote this but as *an essay* or *task*

of my virtue;" "*menaces* and *maledictions against king* and *nobles;*" "the *marks of sovereignty, knowledge,* and *reason;*" "my train are *men of choice* and *rarest parts;*" "*the messengers from our sister* and *the king;*" "he, *the* sacred *honor of himself, his queen's, his* hopeful *son's, his babe's* betrays to slander;" "*uncles of Glo'ster* and *of Winchester;*" "the Dukes *of Orleans, Calaber, Bretaigne,* and *Alençon.*"

52. **Predicate and Object.**—The signification of predicates is modified or completed by means of words, phrases, and accessory sentences, which are called objects. And not only are all parts of verbs followed by these adjuncts, but adjectives also frequently require them.

Objects which complete or supplement the meaning of their predicates are of three kinds:—(1.) The immediate or direct object of the predicate; (2.) the remoter, or mediate and indirect object; (3.) the remotest object, or that which indicates the effect or result of what is asserted in the predicate. Ex.

	1st obj.	2d obj.	3d obj.
"I will take	*you*	*to me*	*for a people.*"
	2d obj.	1st obj.	3d obj.
"This opinion gave	*them*	*courage*	*to all adventures.*"

Those which modify or attemper the signification of their predicates are six in number:—(1.) Those which indicate the cause or origin of whatever is asserted in the predicate; (2.) those which tell its design or purpose; (3.) those which declare the means by which it is brought about; (4.) those which show the manner of its existence or action; (5.) and (6.) those indicating the time and place of its occurrence. It must, however, be observed, that it is not easy in all instances to determine to which class an object belongs—those expressing cause, purpose, or means frequently being distinguishable by exceedingly evanescent characteristics. But this is not, practically, either inconvenient or productive of ambiguity; as may be seen in the examples of these and other kinds of objects. Ex. (1.) "My soul grows sad *with troubles;*" "*by that sin* fell the angels." (2.) "She went *to glean Palæmon's fields;*" "one man pursues power *in order to wealth,* and another wealth *in order to power.*" (3.) "Judge the event *by what has passed;*" "the strong *through pleasure* falls soonest." (4.) "They act *wisely;*" "beware and govern *well* thy appetite." (5.) "We lacked your counsel and your help *to-night;*" "it hath been sung *at festivals, on ember eves,* and *holy ales.*" (6.) "The lion's foe lies prostrate on *the plain;*" "I am *with thee, by* and *before, about* and *in thee,* too."

53. Nouns, pronouns, and other words used as nouns,—such as the infinitive mood of verbs, and participles,—most commonly without, but also with prepositions before them, serve as immediate objects of predicates; and also of the infinitive mood of verbs, and participles, and of adjectives, when they are not the predicates of sentences. And the personal pronouns, whether with or without prepositions, are in the objective case. Ex. "Do you not hear *him?*" "you mar our *labor;*" "keep your *cabins;*" "you do assist the *storm;*" "'t is time I should inform *thee* further;" "wipe thou thine *eyes;* have *comfort;*" "you have often begun to tell *me* what I am, but stopped, and left *me* to a bootless inquisition;" "he *whom,* next thyself, of all the world I loved, and to him put the *manage* of my state;" "the *government* I cast upon my brother;" "the ivy which had hid my princely *trunk,* and sucked the *verdure* out on't;" "triumphing *over death,* and *chance,* and *time;*" "*on* mine *arm* shall they trust:" "victorious *over temptation.*"

The common exclamations, "ah *me!*" and "woe is *me!*" are contractions; the latter was originally, "woe *becomes* or *befits me,*" and the former is equivalent to it in meaning, and may have been derived from it.

54. **The more remote object** is also expressed by nouns, and most commonly preceded by the preposition *to;* but this is often omitted; and there are other prepositions which serve to connect this object with its predicate. Whenever the remoter object is expressed, but the immediate object left out, the sense is imperfect. The personal pronouns, as in the last, are always in the objective case. Ex. "Three great ones of the city oft capp'd *to him;*" "whip *me* such honest knaves;" "throwing but shows of service *on their lords,* do *themselves* homage;" "I am beholden *to you;*" "forgive *us* our trespasses;" "he makes a supper, and a great one, *to many lords and ladies;*" "I need not add more fuel *to your fire;*" "comparing spiritual things *with spiritual;*" "I have charged *thee* not to haunt about my doors;" "fetch *me* an iron crow;" "O continue thy loving-kindness *unto me;*" "the services, which I have done *the signiory;*" "the goodness of the night *upon you, friends;*" "I'll refer me *to all things*

of sense;" "good-night *to every one!*" "it cannot be that Desdemona should long continue her love *to the Moor*, nor he his *to her;*" "I have told *thee* often, and I re-tell *thee* again and again, I hate the Moor."

55. **For the remotest object,** which expresses the result or effect of the predicate, nouns (with or without prepositions, or preceded by the conjunction *as*), pronouns, adjectives, participles, the infinitive mood of verbs, and *to be* with nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, are employed. Ex. "He, in good time, must *his lieutenant* be, and I, *his Moorship's ancient;*" "the king, your father, was reputed *for a prince most prudent;*" "whom I hold *my most malicious foe*, and think *not at all a friend to truth;* bade me *enjoy it;*" "man became *a living soul;*" "why should damage grow *to the hurt of the king?*" "they looked upon themselves *as the happiest people of the universe;*" "things were just ripe *for a war;*" "those pearls of dew she wears prove *to be presaging tears;*" "his servants ye are to whom ye obey, whether of sin *unto death*, or of obedience *unto righteousness;*" "we take a falling meteor *for a star;*" "it were not *for your quiet, nor your good, nor for my manhood, honesty, ana wisdom*, to let you know my thoughts;" "I believe him *to be a very honest man;*" "*whom* do you suppose it *to be?*"

56. Of the objects which **modify the meaning** of the predicate, those which do so by indicating its origin or cause are expressed by nouns (and all words and combinations of words that can be used instead of them), preceded by certain prepositions, and by some adverbs. Oaths are included under this head, as indicating the ground of the assertion, though not of what is asserted. Ex. "I would not follow him *then;*" "*therefore* to our best mercy give yourselves;" "whom *from the flow of gall* I name not, but *from sincere motions;*" "you lost your office *on the complaint of the tenants;*" "men are pleased *with variety;*" "astonished *at the voice*, he stood;" "they were jealous *of her beauty;*" "guilty *of high treason;*" "I can tell you *why;*" "thou hast forced me *out of thy honest truth* to play the woman;" "they boast themselves *of idols;*" "Sempronius gives no thanks *on this account;*" "you are good, but *from a nobler cause, from your own knowledge, not from nature's laws;*" "*by the faith of a man*, I know my prince;" "*by heaven*, I rather would have been his hangman;" "*on my honor*, it is so."

57. Those objects which point out the design and purpose of the predicate are expressed by the infinitive mood of verbs, most commonly, and also by nouns, &c., with prepositions. Ex. "I follow him *to serve my turn upon him;*" "wears out his time *for nought but provender;*" "in following him, I follow but myself, *not* I *for love and duty*, but seeming so, *for my peculiar end;*" "I come *to bury Cæsar, not to praise him;*" "he traveled the world, *on purpose to converse with the most learned men;*" "*with this design* I have visited all the most celebrated schools in Europe;" "he writes *not for money nor for praise;*" "there is a time *to weep*, and a time *to laugh;*" "be swift *to hear*, slow *to speak;*" "one man pursues power *in order to wealth*, and another wealth *in order to power;*" "thou art not able to go against this Philistine *to fight with him.*"

58. Objects by which the means employed in producing any result are declared are generally expressed by nouns, &c., with prepositions. Ex. "I must be be-lee'd and calm'd *by debtor and creditor, this countercaster;*" "preferment goes *by letter and affection, not by the old gradation;*" "plague him *with flies;*" "we may outrun *by violent swiftness* that which we run at, and lose *by overrunning;*" "my soul grows sad *with troubles;*" "the strong *through pleasure* soonest falls, the weak *through smart;*" "you must think we hope to gain *by you;*" "thus, *by the music* we may know when noble wits a-hunting go;" "you absolved him *with an axe;*" "some he killed *with his gun*, others *by poison.*"

59. **Manner** is expressed by adjectives, participles, adverbs, and nouns, &c., with prepositions or the conjunction *as*. Ex. "He, *as loving his own pride and purposes*, evades them, *with a bombast circumstance;*" "wears out his time, *much like his master's ass;*" "*wide* was spread their fame in ages past;" "*in madness, being full of supper and distempering draughts*, dost thou come to start my quiet;" "he, *with his father*, is going home;" "a Puritan amongst them sings psalms *to hornpipes;*" "we are not to stay *all together*, but to come by him, where he stands, *by ones, by twos, and by threes;*" "seize her *by force*, and bear her hence *unheard;*" "so frown'd the mighty combatants;" "*thus* he spake;" "quit yourselves *like men;*" "ye shall be *as gods;*" "come *quickly;*" "he answered *well;*" "they that sow *in tears* shall reap *in joy;*" "he that goeth

forth *weeping, bearing precious seed,* shall doubtless come again *with rejoicing, bringing his sheaves with him;*" "they act *wisely.*"

60. All the various ways in which objects indicate the time of an action, &c., are expressed by nouns, &c., with or without prepositions, adjectives, participles, and adverbs. Ex. "He *in good time* must his lieutenant be;" "we rose both *at an instant,* and fought *a long hour by Shrewsbury clock;*" "then have sat *the livelong day;*" "he came *by night;*" "doomed *for a certain time* to walk the night, and *for the day* confined to fast in fires;" "he did them meditate *all his life long;*" "*till then,* who knew the force of those dire arms?" "I have not wept *this forty years;*" "*morning by morning* shall it pass over;" "yet in her sanguine gown *by night and day;*" "depart *immediately;*" "I was *never* pleased;" "thy servants' trade hath been about cattle *from our youth even until now;*" "*sometimes* walking;" "*now* is the time."

61. **Place where, and direction** whence and whither, are expressed by nouns, &c., with or without prepositions, and by adverbs. Ex. "I will wear my heart *upon my sleeve;*" "his eyes had seen the proof *at Rhodes, at Cyprus, and on other grounds;*" "proclaim him *in the streets;*" "I, *upon my frontiers here,* keep residence;" "I saw *hereabout* nothing remarkable;" "let them *hence away;*" "a puissant and mighty power is marching *hitherward* in proud array;" "if they come to sojourn *at my house,* I'll not be there;" "darkness *there* might well seem twilight *here;*" "ah! *where* was Eloise?" "the good man is gone *a long journey;*" "come *a little nearer this way;*" "the eyes of the Lord are *in every place;*" "we must measure *twenty miles* to-day;" "he looked *this way and that way;*" "come *hither,* child, *to me.*"

62. **Accessory sentences** are sentences complete in themselves as to syntax, but occupying subordinate places in other sentences, which stand to them in the relation of principals. They are of three kinds, named (after the offices they discharge in their principal sentences) subjective, attributive, and objective sentences. Their relation to their principals is shown by their position, and by the use of relative pronouns and certain conjunctions, and in many cases by the employment of the subjunctive mood.

63. **Subjective accessory sentences** are found in every relation in which a noun could stand; and may be either subjects, predicates (both of which have been illustrated above), or completing objects to predicates (with or without prepositions); but being equivalent to nouns, they are named after that part of the sentence which is especially taken by the noun. Ex. "See *that thou do it;*" "I take *it* much unkindly, *that thou, Iago, shouldst know of this;*" "thou toldst me, *thou didst hold him in thy hate;*" "be judge yourself, *whether I in any just term am affined to love the Moor;*" "right glad I am, *he was not in this fray;*" "I have forgot *why I did call thee back;*" "*what you would work me to* I have some aim;" "mark me *with what violence she loved the Moor;*" "I could well wish *courtesy would invent some other custom of entertainment;*" "you must not think, then, *that I am drunk;*" "*what you can make her do,* I am content to look on; *what to speak,* I am content to hear;" "mark *what it is his mind aims at in the question, and not what words he expresses;*" "she said, *Say on;*" "as when we say, *Plato was no fool.*"

64. **Attributive accessory sentences** occur wherever adjectives might be used as attributives. The relation between these sentences and their subjects is shown by their position, by their predicates assuming the same personal forms as those of their subjects, and by the employment of the relative pronouns *who, which,* and *that,* in them. Where no confusion is possible, these pronouns may be omitted. Ex. "*Thou, Iago, who hast had my purse;*" "*a fellow that never set a squadron in the field, nor the division of a battle knows, more than a spinster;*" "I hold *him* to be unworthy of his place *that does those things;*" "I fear the *trust Othello puts him in* will shake this island;" "honest *Iago, that lookst dead with grieving;*" "*every one* hears that, *which can distinguish sound;*" "that forbidden *tree, whose mortal taste brought death into the world;*" "the *son* of Duncan, *from whom this tyrant holds the due of birth;*" "*fruits that blossom first,* will first be ripe;" "*he that is of God,* heareth *God's words;*" "unto *me, who am less than the least of all saints;*" "thinkest thou this, O man, *that judgest them which do such things, and doest the same,* that thou shalt escape the judgment of God?" "*I, that speak unto thee,* am he."

Note, that whether the relative be subject attributive, or object, in its own sentence, it is always

placed at the very commencement of it, because it has so few inflexions, that otherwise its connection with the subject (or antecedent) it refers to might be obscure.

These sentences frequently stand as attributives to other sentences, which are related to them as subjects. Ex. "They shall obey, unless they seek for hatred at my hands, *which if they do*, they shall feel the vengeance of my wrath;" "he was unsatisfied in getting, *which was a sin;*" "as he spoke, a braying ass did sing most loud and clear, *whereat his horse did start.*"

65. **Objective accessory sentences** are those which serve instead of objects of cause, purpose, means, manner (including degree or intensity), time, and place; and those expressing a condition or concession, which are distinguished by the employment of the probable or improbable forms of the subjunctive mood, according to the amount of contingency affecting the condition or concession, and generally after certain conjunctions. The indicative mood is, however, now very commonly used instead; always, indeed, where no contingency or uncertainty is to be expressed. Ex. "*Because we come to do you service*, you think we are ruffians;" "*since neither love, nor sense of pain, nor force of reason can persuade*, then let example be obeyed;" "be ye steadfast, immovable, . . . *forasmuch as ye know that your labor is not in vain in the Lord;*" "he makes it his care both to write and to speak plainly, *so that he may be understood;*" "treat it kindly, *that it may wish, at least, with us to stay;*" "judge not, *that ye be not judged;*" "as will appear *by what follows;*" "*from what has been said*, you may perceive the hopelessness of your undertaking;" "be taught *by what I am suffering;*" "who, *he knew*, would be willing;" "thou hast used my purse, *as if the strings were thine;*" "it is *as* sure *as you are Roderigo;*" "throw *such* changes of vexation on't, *as it may lose some color;*" "*the longer I am acquainted with him*, the *more* I like him;" "*so great* was the cold, *that the deepest rivers were frozen;*" "he is *as* merry *as the day is long;*" "I'll see, *before I doubt;*" "kings may take their advantage, *when and how they list;*" "use physic, *or ever thou be sick;*" "*while I was protector*, pity was all the fault that was in me;" "he is the most improved mind, *since you saw him*, that ever was.;" "*where your treasure is*, there will your heart be also;" "I will follow thee *whithersoever thou goest;*" "I have shown *whence the understanding may get all the ideas it has;*" "the noise pursues me, *whereso-e'er I go;*" "despise me, *if I do not;*" "*were I the Moor*, I would not be Iago;" "you will not serve God, *if the devil bid you!*" "*think we, or think we not*, time hurries on;" "thou dost conspire against thy friend, *if thou but thinkst him wronged, and makest his ear a stranger to thy thoughts;*" "*though thou detain me*, I will not eat;" "*wert thou an oracle to tell me so*, I'd not believe it;" "*had fate so pleased*, I had been eldest born;" "I had been happy, *so I had nothing known;*" "*unless I look on Sylvia in the day*, there is no day for me to look upon;" "*though he was rich, yet* for our sakes he became poor;" "many things are believed, *although they be intricate, obscure, and dark.*"

66. **Contracted and compound sentences.**—Two or more sentences having the same subjects, or the same predicates or objects, and two or more subjects having the same attributives, or *viceversâ*, are frequently contracted into one compound sentence, or phrase, by the use of conjunctions. Examples of several kinds may be found in the former parts of this Compendium; others are such as these: Ex. "With fairest flowers, whilst summer lasts, *and* I live here, Fidele, I'll sweeten thy sad grave;" "his honesty got him small gains, but shameless flattery, *and* filthy beverage, *and* unseemly thrift, *and* borrow base, *and* some good lady's gift;" "it shall ever be my study to make discoveries of this nature in human life, *and* to settle the proper distinctions between the virtues *and* perfections of mankind, *and* those false colors *and* resemblances of them, that shine alike in the eyes of the vulgar."

In contracted sentences, where a comparison is expressed, care should be taken to avoid ambiguity. Ex. "He would make a better soldier *than scholar*," expresses the greater aptitude of the person spoken of for the arts of war, than for the pursuit of learning. "He would make a better soldier *than a scholar*," expresses that the person spoken of displays greater aptitude for war than a student would. "He likes them better *than I*," signifies that his liking for the persons spoken of is greater than my liking for them; whilst "he likes them better *than me*" signifies that his liking for them is greater than his liking for me.

Similarly, wherever two or more subjects are distinguished by the attributive adjectives only, unless

in cases where no ambiguity can arise, they should be distinguished by the repetition of the demonstrative. Ex. "*The red and blue* vestments were most admired," should be, "*the red and the blue* vestments," if two kinds are intended. But we may say, "*the Lords Spiritual and Temporal*, because the attributives are incompatible in their signification.

67. **Construction** is the arrangement of words in sentences, and of sentences in relation to each other, so as to indicate the subordination of the several parts, and their connection and union; and the universal rule is to place the subordinate words, or phrases, before the principal ones. Yet for the sake of imparting special significance to some words or sentences, the form of this rule is often violated, and particularly in poetry. This is called inverted construction, to distinguish it from the ordinary arrangement, which is designated direct.

Ex. **Direct.** "The orator had the honor of haranguing Pope Clement the Sixth, and the satisfaction of conversing with Petrarch, a congenial mind; but his aspiring hopes were chilled by disgrace and poverty; and the patriot was reduced to a single garment, and the charity of an hospital!" "The apartments, porticoes, and the courts of the Lateran were spread with innumerable tables for either sex, and every condition; a stream of wine flowed from the nostrils of Constantine's brazen horse; no complaint, except the scarcity of water, could be heard; and the licentiousness of the multitude was curbed by discipline and fear."

Inverted. "At last, after much fatigue, through dull roads, and bad weather, we came, with no small difficulty, to our journey's end." "Unto the French, the dreadful judgment-day so dreadful will not be, as was his sight." "So shaken as we are, so wan with care, find we a time for frighted peace to pant." "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!" "Fallen, fallen is Babylon, that great city!" "Silver and gold have I none: but such as I have, give I unto thee." "Go I must, whatever may ensue." "Up rose the sun, and up rose Emily."

68. **Accentuation.**—In order to show the subordination of the less important phrases in sentences, to the principal ones in each of the several combinations treated of above, and to give prominence to the most important elements in words, a particular stress of voice (called accent) is customarily laid upon the radical part of all inflected words, and upon the principal words or phrases in each of those combinations. Ex. Gólden, disgráceful, grátitude, kíngdom, trúthfulness, wákeful; they reád; the men were astónished, my suspicions were corréct; the secrets of the gráve this viperous slander enters; the míghty dead; áll his gólden words are spent; kíng David; here is one Lucianus, néphew to the kíng; the kíngdom of England; the world háteth you; I jóy to meet thee; give the book to mé; I cráve your pardon.

69. **Emphasis** is distinguished from accent by this; the latter serves to indicate the connection of the words, &c., and to give unity to the meanings of the several parts which enter into the different combinations that make up sentences, &c.; whilst emphasis shows some special meaning which the speaker desires to give to his words, and which they would not ordinarily bear. Ex. "Théy read, wé write; the mén were astonished, and the wóman fled; my suspícions were correct, but my knówledge was no more than yours; the kingdom of England, not that of Scótland; no, sir, I do not bite my thumb at yoú, sir; but I bite my thúmb, sir; be not afraid, shé shall not harm thee; I' scorn you not, it seems that you scorn mé."

70. **Punctuation.**—The pauses which, in speaking, are used to impart greater accuracy and clearness to our expressions, in writing are represented by characters called stops; and the notes of interrogation and admiration, the parenthesis and the dash, as well as the breaking up of composition into paragraphs, are employed for similar purposes. In poetry they are more used than in prose; and the fewest number possible should always be employed.

The **full point**, or **period**, indicates the termination of a passage which is complete both in meaning and in syntax. The colon marks the end of a grammatical combination, but shows that what follows is required to complete the meaning. The semicolon shows that, both in meaning and in syntax, the expression it follows is incomplete. And the comma is used to distinguish, rather than to divide, the parts of grammatical combinations, so that the connection between them, and their signification when combined, may be more clear. But where the passages are not very long, and no mistake would arise, the comma is used for the semicolon, and even for the colon; and the semicolon is employed instead of the colon. The period is frequently employed, also, where we

should expect only the colon. Ex. "The Roman senators conspired against Julius Cæsar to kill him: that very next morning Artemidorus, Cæsar's friend, delivered him a paper (desiring him to peruse it) wherein the whole plot was discovered: but Cæsar complimented his life away, being so taken up to return the salutations of such people as met him in the way, that he pocketed the paper, among other petitions, as unconcerned therein; and so, going to the Senate-house, he was slain."

"The noble Brutus
Hath told you, Cæsar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault;
And grievously has Cæsar answered it."

71. Parentheses indicate either an explanatory remark, or a thought related to what has been said, which is noted but not pursued; and instead of the common sign, two commas, or two semicolons, or two dashes, are often employed. Ex. "Traveling on the plain (which notwithstanding hath its risings and fallings), I discovered Salisbury steeple many miles off." "I find two (husband and wife), both stealing, and but one of them guilty of felony." "Spill not the morning (the quintessence of the day!) in recreation." "Raleigh had (besides his own merits) two good friends."

In general the **dash** is used to show that a pause should be made, because the sense is broken off abruptly; or whilst the sense is not interrupted, something unexpected follows; or to call for greater attention to what is about to be said. Ex.

To die,—to sleep,—
No more;—and, by a sleep, to say we end
The heart-ache, and the thousand natural shocks
That flesh is heir to,—'tis a consummation
Devoutly to be wished."

"O thou invisible spirit of wine, if thou hast no name to be known by, let us call thee—devil!"

"'Thou art a villain.'
'You are—a senator.'"

"Some people, handsome by nature, have willfully deformed themselves;—such as wear Bacchus' colors in their faces, arising not from having—but being—bad *livers*."

"Romeo, the hate I bear thee can afford
No better term than this—Thou art a villain."

Other artifices are employed, such as italics and SMALL CAPITALS, in typography to represent some of the effects of the tones and inflexions of the voice.

RHETORIC.

72. Some modes of expression, called tropical, or figurative, which are strictly amongst the matters respecting which rhetoric is conversant, should be noticed here; as they serve to account for some of the forms which have been noticed above.

Personification, or prosopopœia, is the treating of things and subjects without life, even abstractions, as though they were living persons. Ex. "*Confusion* heard his voice." "I have no spur to prick the sides of my *intent*, but only vaulting *ambition*, which o'erleaps itself." "Doth not *wisdom* cry, and *understanding* put forth her voice?" "Make *temperance* thy companion, so shall *health* sit on thy brow."

Ellipsis, or omission, is the suppression of some word, which from the nature of what is spoken of, or from the context, can be readily supplied. Ex. "All in vain [is] my frantic calling, all in vain [are] my falling tears!" "[There is] no way to fly, nor strength to hold out flight!" "The knight came to the tailor's [shop]." "Are you going to the House [of Parliament]?"

Pleonasm, or redundancy, is the introduction of some words not actually required, but often exceedingly effective, as a means of giving peculiar emphasis, or expressing a particular feeling. Ex. "The skipping king, *he* ambled up and down." "They returned *back again* to the *same* city *from* whence they came *forth*." "The dawn is overcast, *the morning lowers, and heavily with clouds brings on the day.*"

Zeugma, or syllepsis, is the suppression of a verb or a noun, in positions in which it will readily be suggested by another verb or noun, which is expressed; and with which the object, or attributive belonging to the suppressed words, appears to be connected. Ex. "And his mouth was opened immediately, and his tongue [loosed];" "forbidding to marry, and [commanding] to abstain from meats;" "my paternal house is desolate, and he himself [my father] destitute and in exile."

These examples illustrate the working of the zeugma, or syllepsis.

PROSODY.

73. Prosody treats of the laws of metrical compositions, regarding accent, quantity, rhythm, rhyme, alliteration, &c., &c.

Accent is the stress laid upon one or more syllables of a word. Monosyllables are capable of accents only when they are uttered with other words. Ex. Fáther, índustry, níghtingale, himsélf, disséver, éxquisitely, whátsoéver, volúptuous ;—"there is thát in his fáce which léads one to trúst him."

Quantity is the time required to pronounce a syllable, and is either long, marked (–), or short, marked (˘). Seēĭng, ŭprīght, pĕrsŏnăblĕ, tūtĕlărў, peērāge, trănslātiŏn, nŏt, nōte, ăt, āte, tēn, tĕnd, fūll, cŭll.

Rhythm is the harmonious arrangement of words in lines of various definite lengths; and is one of the chief elements of metre. Ex.

"The póetry of eárth is néver dead."

"The wíllow léaves that dánced in the breéze."

"Fúll mány a glórious mórning háve I seén
Flátter the móuntain-tóps with sóvereign eye."

"Seé the dáy begíns to breák."

"Léssons sweét of spríng retúrning."

"At the clóse of the dáy, when the hámlet is stíll."

74. **Rhyme** is the correspondence of the final sound in a metrical line, with those of one or more other lines preceding or following, immediately or alternately. It is distinguished into assonance and consonance; the former being the correspondence of the vowel sounds alone, the latter of both vowels and consonants. Ex.

"The baron he stroakt his dark-brown ch*ee*ke,
And turned his heade *asyde;*
To whipe away the starting te*a*re
He proudly strave to *hyde.*"

"Have owre, have *owre* to Aberd*our,*
It's fiftie fadom d*ee*p,
And thair lies guid Sir Patrick Spence,
Wi' the Scots lords at his f*ee*t."

"My cloake it was a very good cl*oa*ke,
It hath been alwayes true to the *weare*
But now it is not worth a gr*oa*t;
I have had it four-and-twenty *yeere.*"

Single and double rhymes are also to be distinguished. Ex.

"The Abbot had preached for many *years.*
With clear articu*lation,*
As ever was heard in the House of *Peers*
Against Emanci*pation.*
His words had made battalions *quake,*
Had roused the zeal of *martyrs;*
Had kept the Court an hour a*wake,*
And the king himself three-*quarters.*"

Alliteration is the commencement of two or more words, in the same or adjoining lines, with the same or closely allied sounds. Ex.

"The parted bosom *c*lings *t*o *w*onted *h*ome,
If aught that's *k*indred *c*heer *th*e *w*elcome *h*earth;
*H*e that is *l*onely, *h*ither *l*et *h*im roam,
And gaze *com*placent on *con*genial earth,
Greece is no *l*ightsome *l*and of social mirth:
But *h*e *whom* *S*adness *s*ootheth may abide,
And scarce *reg*ret the *reg*ion of his birth,
*Whe*n *w*andering slow by Delphi's *s*acred *s*ide,
Or *g*azing o'er the *p*lains, where *G*reek and *P*ersian died."

75. **Specimens of the principal English meters.**—In order to distinguish the different kinds of metre, certain names are borrowed from the prosody of Latin and Greek. Thus, an accented syllable preceded by one unaccented is regarded as equivalent to a long syllable following a short one, and is called an Iambic. Ex. "Awáy, or ăwāy; rejoíce, or rĕjoīce." An accented or long syllable before an accented or short one, is called a Trochee. Ex. "Wrétched, or wrētchĕd; rísing, or rīsĭng." An accented syllable followed by two unaccented is called a Dactyl. Ex. "I'ndustry, or ĭndŭstrў; éxquisite, or ēxquĭsĭte." An accented syllable following two unaccented is called an Anapest. Ex. "Lochinvár' or Lŏchĭnvār; cavalíer, or căvălīēr."

The most common metres are varieties of the Iambic, the Trochaic, and the Anapestic; the differences consisting in the number of Iambics, &c., in each line. Further differences arise out of the various kinds of lines, and the manner in which they are grouped so as to form the stanzas. Our examples principally illustrate the composition of single lines.

1. Iambic meter. *Four syllables.*

"With rávisht éars,
The mónarch héars;
Assúmes the gód,
Affécts the nód."

Six syllables.

"What thóugh light Phœ'bus' beáms
Refrésh the soúthern gróund,
And thóugh the príncely thrónes
With béauteous ny'mphs abóund."

Eight syllables.

"And máy at lást my wéary áge
Find oút the peáceful hérmitáge,
The háiry gówn and móssy ríll."

Ten syllables. (Heroic.)

Such swéet compúlsion dóth in músic líe,
To lúll the dáughter óf nécessity,
And kéep unstéady náture tó her láw,
And the slow wórld in méasured mótion dráw."

Twelve syllables. (Alexandrine.)

"A cónstant máiden stíll she ónly díd remáin,
The lást her génuine láws which stoútly díd retáin."

Fourteen syllables.

As whén aboút the sílver móon, when aír is frée from wínd,
And stárs shine cléar: to whóse sweet béams, high próspects, ánd the bróws
Of áll steep hílls and pínnacles, thrust úp themsélves for shóws."

The most frequent combinations of Iambic meters are those exemplified in the following stanzas:

1. Short.

"Thou knów'st that twíce a dáy
I've bróught thee, ín this cán,
Fresh wáter fróm the rúnning broók,
As cleár as éver rán."

2. Common.

"Of á' the áirts the wínd can bláw,
I déarly líke the wést;
For thére the bónnie lássie líves,
The lássie I' lo'e best."

3. Long.

"O thoú by whóse expréssive árt
Her pérfect ímage náture seés,
In únion wíth the Gráces stárt,
And sweéter by' refléction pleáse."

2. Trochaic meter. *Three syllables.*

"Hére we máy
Thínk and práy
Béfore deáth
Stóps our breáth."

Four syllables.

"Rích the treásure,
Swéet the pleásure."

Five and six syllables.

"Fíll the búmper fáir,
E'very dróp we sprínkle
O'n the brów of cáre,
Smoóthes awáy a wrínkle."

Seven syllables.

"Lóve is húrt with jár and frét,
Lóve is máde a váin regrét.
Eyes wíth idle teárs are wét.
I'dle hábit línks us yét."

Eight syllables.

"Bínd the séa to slúmber stílly,
Bínd its ódor tó the líly,
Bínd the áspen né'er to quíver,
Thén bind Lóve to lást for éver."

The most common use of this meter is in quatrains (or stanzas of four lines) of seven syllables.

There is an almost infinite variety of meters and of stanzas, produced by the intermixture of Iambics and Trochees, and of Iambic with Trochaic metres.

3. **Dactylic meter.**—The following specimen will suffice for the illustration of the varieties of this meter.

"Hád I a cáve on some wíld distant shóre,
Whére the winds hówl to the wáves' dashing roár;
Thére would I weép my woes,
Thére seek my lóst repose,
Till grief my eyes should close,
Ne'ér to wake móre."

4. **Anapestic meter.**—The effect of this meter can be learned from this illustration:

"I have lóst for that faíth more than thoú canst bestów,
As the Gód who permíts thee to prósper doth knów
In his hánd is my heárt and my hópe; and in thíne,
The lánd and the lífe which for hím I resígn."

Of the imitations of classical meters little needs to be said, except that they are not adapted to the genius of our language. Many attempts have been made to render them acceptable, some with considerable success; but the great number of our monosyllables will always prevent them from coming into general use or favor.

76. Beside the kinds of stanza given already, which are principally used in Divine service, some other kinds may be exemplified here.

1. *Elegiac.*

"Here rests his héad upón the láp of eárth,
A youth to fórtune ánd to fáme unknówn,
Fair scíence smíled not ón his húmble bírth,
And mélancholy márk'd him fór her ówn."

2. *Ottava rima.*

"'Tis sweét to heár the wátchdog's hónest bárk
Bay deép-mouth'd wélcome ás we dráw near hóme;
'Tis sweét to knów there is an éye will márk
Our cóming, ánd look bríghter whén we cóme;
'Tis swéet to bé awákened by' the lárk,
Or lúll'd by fálling wáters; swéet the húm
Of bées, the voíce of gírls, the sóng of bírds,
The lísp of chíldren ánd their eárliest wórds."

3. *Spenserian.*

"The Níobé of nátions; thére she stánds,
Childléss and crównless, ín her voíceless wóe;
An émpty úrn withín her wíther'd hánds,
Whose hóly dúst was scátter'd lóng agó;
Her Scípio's tómb contaíns no áshes nów;
Her véry sépulchrés lie ténantléss
Of théir heróic dwéllers: dóst thou flów,
Old Tíber, thróugh a márble wílderness?
Rise, wíth thy yéllow wáves, and mántle hér distréss!"

SYNONYMES OF WORDS IN GENERAL USE.

SYNONYME is a term applied to different words, whose meaning is so nearly the same, that the one may be substituted for the other, without altering the sense of the sentence, in order to avoid the inelegant repetition of the same word:

ABANDON, leave, forsake, desert, renounce, relinquish, quit, forego, let go, waive.

Abandoned, wicked, reprobate, dissolute, profligate, flagitious, corrupt, depraved, vicious.

Abandonment, leaving, desertion, dereliction, renunciation, defection.

Abasement, degradation, fall, degeneracy, humiliation, abjection, debasement, servility.

Abash, bewilder, disconcert, discompose, confound, confuse, shame.

Abbreviate, shorten, abridge, condense, contract, curtail, reduce.

Abdicate, give up, resign, renounce, abandon, forsake, relinquish, quit, forego.

Abet, help, encourage, instigate, incite, stimulate, aid, assist.

Abettor, assistant, accessory, accomplice, promoter, instigator, *particeps criminis*, coadjutor, associate, companion, coöperator.

Abhor, dislike intensely, view with horror, hate, detest, abominate, loathe, nauseate.

Ability, capability, talent, faculty, capacity, qualification, aptitude, aptness, expertness, skill, efficiency, accomplishment, attainment.

Abject, grovelling, low, mean, base, ignoble, worthless, despicable, vile, servile, contemptible.

Abjure, recant, forswear, disclaim, recall, revoke, retract, renounce.

Able, strong, powerful, muscular, stalwart, vigorous, athletic, robust, brawny, skillful, adroit, competent, efficient, capable, clever, self-qualified, telling, fitted.

Abode, residence, habitation, dwelling, domicile, home, quarters, lodging.

Abolish, quash, destroy, revoke, abrogate, annul, cancel, annihilate, extinguish, vitiate, invalidate, nullify.

Abominable, hateful, detestable, odious, vile, execrable.

Abortive, fruitless, ineffectual, idle, inoperative, vain, futile.

About, concerning, regarding, relative to, with regard to, as to, respecting, with respect to, referring to, around, nearly, approximately.

Abscond, run off, steal away, decamp, bolt.

Absent, *a.*, inattentive, abstracted, not attending to, listless, dreamy.

Absolute, entire, complete, unconditional, unqualified, unrestricted, despotic, arbitrary, tyrannous, imperative, authoritative, imperious.

Absolve, set free, loose, clear, acquit, liberate, release, forgive.

Absorb, engross, swallow up, engulf, imbibe, consume, merge, fuse.

Absurd, silly, foolish, preposterous, ridiculous, irrational, unreasonable, nonsensical, inconsistent.

Abuse, *v.*, asperse, revile, vilify, reproach, calumniate, defame, slander, scandalize, malign, traduce, disparage, depreciate, ill-use.

Abuse, *n.*, scurrility, ribaldry, contumely, obloquy, opprobrium, foul invective, vituperation.

Accede, assent to, consent, acquiesce, comply with, agree, coincide, concur, approve.

Accelerate, hasten, hurry, expedite, forward, quicken, despatch.

Accept, receive, take, admit.

Acceptable, agreeable, pleasing, pleasurable, gratifying, welcome.

Accident, casualty, incident, contingency, adventure, chance.

Acclamation, applause, plaudit, exultation, joy, shouting, cheering, triumph, jubilation.

Accommodate, adapt, adjust, fit, suit, serve, supply, furnish.

Accomplice, confederate, accessory, abettor, coadjutor, assistant, ally, associate, *particeps criminis*.

Accomplish, do, effect, finish, execute, achieve, complete, perfect, consummate.

Accomplishment, attainment, qualification, acquirement.

Accord, grant, allow, admit, concede.

Accost, salute, address, speak to, stop, greet.

Account, *v.*, assign, adduce, reckon, compute, calculate, estimate.

Account, *n.*, narrative, description, narration, relation, detail, recital, moneys, reckoning, bill, charge.

Accountable, punishable, answerable, amenable, responsible, liable.

Accredited, authorized, commissioned, empowered, intrusted.

Accumulate, bring together, amass, collect, gather.

Accumulation, collection, store, mass, congeries, concentration.

Accurate, correct, exact, precise, nice, truthful.

Achieve, do, accomplish, effect, fulfill, execute, gain, win.

Achievement, feat, exploit, accomplishment, attainment, performance, acquirement, gain.

Acknowledge, admit, confess, own, avow, grant, recognize, allow, concede.

Acquaint, inform, enlighten, apprise, make aware, make known, notify, communicate.

Acquaintance, familiarity, intimacy, cognizance, fellowship, companionship, knowledge.

Acquiesce, agree, accede, assent, comply, consent, give way, coincide with.

Acquit, pardon, forgive, discharge, set free, clear, absolve.

Act, do, operate, make, perform, play, enact.

Action, deed, achievement, feat, exploit, accomplishment, battle, engagement, agency, instrumentality.

Active, lively, sprightly, alert, agile, nimble, brisk, quick, supple, prompt, vigilant, laborious, industrious.

Actual, real, positive, genuine, certain.

Acute, shrewd, intelligent, penetrating, piercing, keen.

Adapt, accommodate, suit, fit, conform.

Addicted, devoted, wedded, attached, given up to, dedicated.

Addition, increase, accession, augmentation, reinforcement.

Address, tact, skill, ability, dexterity, deportment, demeanor.

Adhesion, adherence, attachment, fidelity, devotion.

Adjacent, near to, adjoining, contiguous, conterminous, bordering neighboring.

Adjourn, defer, prorogue, postpone, delay.

Adjunct, appendage, appurtenance, appendency, dependency.

Adjust, set right, fit, accommodate, adapt, arrange, settle, regulate, organize.

Admirable, striking, surprising, wonderful, astonishing.

Admonition, warning, notice, caution.
Adopt, take, assume, appropriate, choose.
Adorn, beautify, decorate, embellish, ornament.
Adroit, skillful, clever, dexterous, expert.
Advance, bring forward, adduce, assign, allege.
Advancement, preferment, promotion, progress.
Advantage, benefit, good, profit, avail, utility, service.
Advantageous, beneficial, profitable, salutary.
Adventure, incident, occurrence, casualty, contingency, accident, event.
Adventurous, bold, enterprising, daring, chivalrous, rash, precipitate, foolhardy.
Adversary, opponent, antagonist, enemy, foe.
Adverse, opposed to, contrary, opposite, counteractive, hostile, repugnant.
Adversity, misfortune, affliction, calamity, disaster.
Advertise, publish, announce, proclaim, promulgate.
Advice, warning, counsel, instruction, information, deliberation, consultation, reflection, consideration.
Advise, acquaint, inform, communicate, notify, tell.
Advocate, counsel, defender, upholder.
Affability, courteousness, courtesy, urbanity, politeness.
Affect, influence, act upon, interfere with, feign, pretend, assume.
Affecting, touching, pathetic, melting, moving.
Affection, fondness, attachment, kindness, love, tenderness, endearment.
Affectionate, loving, attached to, fond, kind, tender, filial.
Affinity, relationship, alliance, union, kin, kindred, relation.
Affirm, swear, assert, asseverate, declare, aver, protest.
Affirmation, asseveration, protestation, declaration.
Affix, attach, annex, subjoin, connect, adjoin.
Afflict, grieve, give pain, distress, trouble, torment, agonize.
Afflicting, grievous, unhappy, painful, disastrous, calamitous.
Affluence, opulence, wealth, riches, abundance, luxuriance.
Afford, give, impart, communicate, produce, bestow, grant, confer, spare.
Affright, frighten, terrify, appall, overawe, dismay, scare, daunt, cow.
Affront, injury, wrong, insult, offence, outrage.
Afraid, timid, fearful, timorous, faint-hearted.
Age, period, time, date, generation, era, epoch, decade, century.
Agency, instrumentality, influence, operation, management.
Aggrandize, exalt, promote, prefer, advance, elevate.
Aggravate, tantalize, irritate, inflame, provoke, chafe, nettle, embitter, exasperate, increase, enhance, heighten, make worse.
Aggregate, *n.*, total, entire, complete, the whole.
Aggregate, *v.*, heap up, amass, accumulate, get together.
Agitate, convulse, disturb, stir, move, shake, oscillate, toss, upheave.
Agitation, perturbation, emotion, trepidation, throb, thrill, tremor.
Agonize, distress, rack, torture, writhe, excruciate, pain.
Agony, anguish, pang, throe, pain, distress, suffering, woe.
Agree, consent, assent, accede, acquiesce, comply, coincide, tally.
Aid, *n.*, assistance, support, sustenance, succor, relief, help, coöperation.
Ailing, unwell, sickly, diseased, ill.
Aim, *v.*, direct, point, level, endeavor to attain.
Aim, *n.*, end, purpose, object, drift, scope, design, intent, intention, tendency.
Alarm, terror, fright, affright, dismay, consternation, disquietude.
Alienate, estrange, take off, withdraw from, transfer, assign, convey.
Allay, appease, assuage, mitigate, soothe, alleviate, solace, compose, calm, pacify, tranquilize, repress.
Allege, affirm, declare, maintain, adduce, advance, assign.
Alleviate, assuage, mitigate, soothe, solace, relieve, abate, allay, diminish, extenuate, soften.
Alliance, affinity, union, connection, relation, confederacy, combination, coalition, league, confederation.
Allot, assign, apportion, appropriate, appoint, distribute.
Allow, admit, concede, yield, grant, give, permit, tolerate, suffer, sanction, authorize.
Allude, hint, refer, insinuate, imply, glance at, intimate, suggest.
Allure, entice, attract, decoy, tempt, seduce, abduce.
Alteration, change, variation, shifting, transition, changeableness, mutability.
Altercation, contention, dispute, dissension, variance, affray, brawl, feud, quarrel.
Altitude, height, elevation, ascendant.
Always, continually, ever, perpetually, constantly, incessantly, unceasingly, forever, eternally.
Amass, accumulate, collect, gather, heap up, pile up, hoard, store up.
Amazing, astonishing, wondrous, surprising, marvelous, stupendous.
Ameliorate, improve, amend, better.
Amend, mend, better, improve, correct, rectify, ameliorate.
Amends, compensation, recompense, restoration, reparation, atonement.
Amicable, friendly, social, sociable.
Ample, complete, full, wide, spacious, capacious, extensive, liberal, expansive, diffusive.
Amplification. enlargement, exegesis, expansion, development.
Amusement, recreation, pastime, entertainment, diversion, sport.
Ancient, old-fashioned, old, antique, antiquated, obsolete.
Anger, *v.*, vex, exasperate, enrage, inflame, irritate, kindle, provoke, imbitter, incense.
Anger, *n.*, wrath, passion, rage, fury, indignation, ire, choler, bile, exasperation, irritation, resentment, incensement, pique, displeasure
Angry, passionate, irascible, choleric, touchy, hasty, hot, sullen, moody, incensed, irritated, enraged, provoked, galled, chafed, nettled, piqued, exasperated, wrathful.
Anguish, woe, agony, pain, distress, suffering.
Animosity, enmity, feeling against, malignity, hostility, antagonism.
Annex, add, attach, affix, append, subjoin, adjoin.
Annihilate, destroy, annul, extinguish, nullify.
Announce, make known, publish, advertise, proclaim, report, notify, give out.
Annoy, vex, tease, chafe, molest, incommode, discommode, inconvenience, disaccommodate.
Annoyance, trouble, uneasiness, discomfort.
Annul, revoke, abolish, abrogate, repeal, cancel, destroy, extinguish, quash, nullify.
Answerable, responsible, accountable, amenable, suitable.
Anterior, preceding, antecedent, previous, prior, foregoing, former.
Anticipate, forestall, foretaste, prejudge.
Antipathy, dislike, aversion, repugnance, contrariety, opposition, hatred, antagonism, hostility, feeling against.
Antithesis, contrast, opposition.
Anxiety, care, solicitude, attention, intentness, eagerness.
Apathetic, insensible, impassive, insensitive, indifferent.
Apocryphal, uncertain, unauthentic, legendary.
Appall, affright, dismay, terrify, frighten, scare, daunt, cow.
Apparent, easily seen, visible, palpable, clear, plain, transparent, unmistakable, unambiguous, evident, manifest, distinct, self-evident.
Appease, pacify, quiet, calm, compose, sooth, tranquilize, assuage.
Appellation, name, denomination, cognomen.
Applaud, praise, extol, commend, approve.
Appoint, assign, allot, ordain, depute, order, prescribe, constitute, settle, determine.
Apportion, distribute, allot, appropriate.
Apprehend, take, arrest, seize, think, feel, conceive, imagine, fancy, anticipate, fear, dread, understand.
Apprise, make known, acquaint, notify, inform, make aware, make cognizant, disclose, communicate.
Appropriate, *v.*, take to, adopt, assume, arrogate, usurp, allot, assign.
Approval, assent, approbation, concurrence, consent.
Apt, fit, meet, suitable, pertinent, prompt, ready, quick, dexterous, appropriate.
Arbitrary, despotic, imperious, domineering, tyrannous, tyrannical.
Arbitrator, arbiter, judge, umpire, referee.
Ardent, eager, fervid, hot, fiery, glowing, passionate.
Arrange, put in order, place, assort, classify, regulate, dispose, adjust.
Arrest, stop, apprehend, withhold, keep back, restrain.
Arrogance, assumption, haughtiness, pride, loftiness.
Art, skill, tact, aptitude, adroitness, expertness, cunning, subtilty.
Artifice, trick, stratagem, machination, deception, cheat, imposture, delusion.

Artless, fair, honest, ingenuous, frank, candid, unsophisticated, open.
Ascendency, superiority, influence, authority, sway, mastery.
Ask, request, entreat, solicit, beg, claim, demand, invite, question.
Aspect, light, view, appearance, complexion, feature, lineament, air, look, mien, countenance.
Asperity, acrimony, acerbity, harshness, smartness, pungency, poignancy, tartness, roughness.
Asperse, accuse falsely, malign, slander, traduce, defame, scandalize, disparage, depreciate.
Assault, *v.*, assail, attack, invade, encounter, storm.
Assemble, congregate, collect, gather, muster, bring together.
Assembly, assemblage, collection, group, company, muster, congregation, convention, congress, diet, council, convocation, conclave, synod, meeting, auditory, audience.
Assert, affirm, declare, aver, protest, maintain, vindicate, defend.
Assign, adduce, allege, advance, bring forward, appoint, allot, appropriate, apportion.
Associate, colleague, ally, partner, coadjutor, comrade, companion.
Association, company, society, confederacy, union, partnership, fellowship, companionship.
Assuage, compose, calm, pacify, allay, soothe, conciliate, appease, tranquilize, mitigate, alleviate, palliate, mollify.
Assume, pretend to, arrogate, usurp, appropriate, affect.
Assurance, confidence, certainty, consciousness, conviction, effrontery, impudence.
Athletic, stalwart, powerful, brawny, muscular, robust, able-bodied.
Atrocious, heinous, enormous, flagrant, villainous, notorious, monstrous, inhuman.
Attach, affix, append, subjoin, annex, adjoin, connect, stick, distrain.
Attachment, affection, devotedness, devotion, fondness, love, endearment.
Attain, gain, get, procure, reach, arrive at, acquire, win, obtain.
Attempt, effort, exertion, endeavor, essay, trial, experiment.
Attend, go with, accompany, escort, wait on, listen, nearken, heed.
Attest, testify, witness, prove.
Attire, *n.*, dress, apparel, garments, clothes, habiliments.
Attitude, posture, gesture, gesticulation, action.
Attract, draw to, allure, entice, charm, wheedle.
Attribute, quality, property, grace, accomplishment. attainment.
Audacious, assuming, forward, presumptuous.
Augment, increase, enlarge, extend, stretch out, spread out.
Auspicious, fortunate, favorable, propitious, prosperous, lucky, happy.
Austere, rigid, severe, rigorous, stern, harsh.
Authoritative, commanding, swaying, imperative, imperious.
Auxiliary, assistant, helping, conducive, furthering, instrumental.
Avail, advantage, profit, use, benefit, service, utility.
Available, profitable, advantageous, useful, beneficial.
Avarice, covetousness, cupidity, greediness.
Averse, adverse, hostile, reluctant, unwilling, backward.
Aversion, dislike, antipathy, hatred, repugnance, distaste.
Avocation, employment, calling, business, occupation, office, engagement, function, profession, trade.
Award, adjudge, adjudicate, judge, determine.
Awkward, rough, clumsy, unpolished, untoward, backward.
Awry, crooked, wry, bent, curved, inflected, oblique.

BAD, wicked, evil, unsound, unwholesome, baneful, deleterious, pernicious, noisome, noxious.
Baffle, defeat, discomfit, bewilder.
Balance, poise, weigh, neutralize, counteract, equalize.
Balmy, fragrant, sweet-scented, odoriferous, odorous, perfumed.
Baneful, hurtful, destructive, pernicious, noxious, deleterious.
Barbarous, savage, brutal, cruel, inhuman, ruthless, merciless, remorseless, unrelenting, uncivilized.
Bargain, agreement, convention, compact, stipulation, covenant, contract.
Base, bad, low, mean, sordid, grovelling, ignoble, ignominious, dishonorable, vile, counterfeit.
Battle, combat, engagement, action, conflict, contest, fight.
Bear, hold up, sustain, support, endure, carry, maintain, convey, transport, waft, suffer, tolerate, undergo, put up with.
Bearing, manner, deportment, demeanor, behavior, conduct.
Beat, strike, knock, hit, belabor, thump, dash, vanquish, overpower, conquer, defeat.
Beau, sweetheart, wooer, lover, suitor, fop, dandy, coxcomb.
Beautiful, elegant, beauteous, handsome, fair, pretty.
Beautify, adorn, decorate, embellish, deck, ornament.
Becoming, befitting, comely, decent, fit, proper, suitable.
Beg, ask, entreat, crave, solicit, beseech, implore, supplicate.
Beguile, amuse, entertain, deceive, mislead, impose upon.
Belief, faith, credence, credit, trust, confidence, reliance, conviction, persuasion.
Below, underneath, beneath, under, lower, inferior, subordinate.
Bend, lean, incline, distort, stoop, descend, condescend.
Beneficent, benevolent, bountiful, bounteous, munificent, liberal, generous.
Benefit, advantage, good, profit, service, ability, avail, use.
Benevolence, beneficence, benignity, kindness, generosity.
Benign, benignant, benevolent, kind, gracious, bland, tender, good.
Bent, *n.*, inclination, disposition. tendency, bias, prepossession, propensity, predilection, proneness.
Bereave, deprive, strip, dispossess, disarm, divest.
Better, improve, amend, ameliorate, reform, rectify.
Bewail, wail, bemoan, lament, mourn over.
Bewilder, confound, perplex, embarrass, entangle, puzzle.
Bewitch, entrance, enchain, fascinate, charm, enchant, enrapture, captivate, enamor.
Bias, bent, inclination, predilection, tendency, partiality, prejudice.
Bid, offer, proffer, tender, propose, call, invite, summon.
Bind, tie, restrain, restrict, connect, link, engage, oblige.
Binding, astringent, costive, valid, obligatory, stringent, constraining.
Bitter, harsh, pungent, poignant, stinging.
Black, dark, murky, pitchy, inky, Cimmerian.
Blacken, defame, calumniate, slander, scandalize, asperse.
Blamable, culpable, censurable, reprehensible, reprovable.
Blame, reprove, reprehend, censure, condemn, reprobate, reproach.
Blameless, inculpable, guiltless, sinless, innocent, immaculate, unsullied, unblemished, spotless.
Bland, soft, gentle, mild, kind, gracious, benign, benignant.
Blast, *v.*, blight, wither, shrivel, destroy.
Blatant, noisy, clamorous, braying, bellowing, vociferous.
Blemish, *v.*, stain, blur, sully, spot, obscure, dim, ruin, spoil, mar.
Blemish, *n.*, flaw, speck, spot, blur, defect, imperfection, fault.
Bliss, ecstacy, felicity, blessedness, blissfulness.
Bloodshed, carnage, slaughter, butchery, massacre.
Bloody, gory, sanguinary, ensanguined, murderous.
Bloom, blossom, bud, sprout, germinate, shoot forth.
Blot, stain, blur, speck, flaw, blemish, defect.
Blot out, wipe out, erase, expunge, delete, obliterate, cancel, efface, annihilate.
Bluff, blustering, burly, swaggering, hectoring, bullying.
Blunt, pointless, obtuse, edgeless, unpolite, rough, rude.
Boast, glory, triumph, vaunt, brag.
Boisterous, violent, furious, impassioned, impetuous, vehement, stormy, turbulent.
Bold, fearless, undaunted, dauntless, brave, daring, adventurous, intrepid, audacious, impudent, contumacious.
Bondage, slavery, thraldom, vassalage, servitude, serfdom, captivity, imprisonment, confinement.
Bound, limit, circumscribe, confine, restrict, restrain, terminate.
Boundless, unlimited, unbounded, infinite, interminable.
Bounty, munificence, liberality, generosity, benevolence, beneficence, charity, benignity, humanity.
Brand, stigmatize, denounce, mark.
Brave, courageous, gallant, chivalrous, daring, adventurous, valorous, heroic, valiant, bold, dauntless, intrepid, magnanimous, fearless.
Brawny, muscular, athletic, sinewy, powerful, robust, stalwart, able-bodied, strong.
Break, burst, rend, rack, violate, infringe, transgress, demolish, destroy.
Breed, hatch, brood, incubate, beget, engender, generate, produce.
Brevity, shortness, conciseness, succinctness.

Brief, short, concise, compendious, succinct, summary.
Bright clear, lucid, transparent, limpid, lustrous, translucent, shining, brilliant, luminous, radiant, gleaming.
Brisk, active, agile, nimble, lively, quick, sprightly, prompt, alert, assiduous, vigorous, vigilant.
Broad, wide, large, ample, expanded, extensive.
Brotherly, fraternal, affectionate, kind.
Bruise, break, crush, squeeze, pulverize, levigate, triturate.
Brutality, savageness, ferocity, barbarity.
Brutish, cruel, inhuman, merciless, ferocious, remorseless, ruthless, barbarous, savage, irrational, sensual.
Bud, sprout, germinate, blossom, bloom, shoot forth.
Build, erect, construct, raise, found.
Bulk, size, dimension, magnitude, greatness, bulkiness, bigness, largeness, massiveness.
Buoyancy, lightness, elasticity, animation, spirit, vivacity.
Burst, break, crack, split, rend.
Bury, inter, inhume, entomb, immure.
Bystander, onlooker, spectator, beholder, observer.

CAJOLE, coax, wheedle, flatter, fawn.
Calamitous, disastrous, fatal, unfortunate, unlucky, hapless, luckless, ill-fated, ill-starred.
Calculate, reckon, guess, suppose, compute, estimate.
Call together, convene, convoke, assemble, muster, collect, gather.
Called, named, termed, designated, denominated, ycleped.
Calling, *n.*, employment, business, avocation, vocation, pursuit, engagement, occupation, trade, profession, office, duty, function.
Callous, hard, obdurate, impenitent, unfeeling, insensible, insensitive, unsusceptible.
Calm, *v.*, tranquillize, allay, appease, quiet, hush, pacify, assuage, soothe, compose.
Calm, *a.*, quiet, undisturbed, serene, placid, composed, collected, imperturbable, tranquil, pacific, unruffled, still.
Calumniate, vilify, revile, accuse falsely, asperse, traduce, malign, slander, defame, scandalize, disparage.
Calumny, slander, false accusation, aspersion, defamation.
Cancel, blot out, obliterate, expunge, efface, wipe out, rub out, erase, quash, abolish, annul, repeal, abrogate, revoke, destroy, invalidate, nullify.
Candid, fair, sincere, honest, open, artless, ingenuous, frank, plain.
Canvass, discuss, dispute, contest, controvert, sift, examine, solicit, apply for.
Capable, able, qualified, competent, efficient, fitted, susceptible, clever, skillful.
Capacious, roomy, ample, spacious.
Capacity, capability, skill, ability, faculty, power, talent, efficiency.
Caprice, freak, whim, humor, crotchet, fancy.
Captious, touchy, testy, cross, petulant, peevish, fretful.
Captivate, charm, enchant, fascinate, enrapture, bewitch, entrance enchain, enamor, confine, imprison.
Captivity, imprisonment, confinement, bondage, slavery, thraldom servitude, serfdom.
Care, anxiety, solicitude, concern, attention, regard, circumspection, caution.
Career, history, course, race, passage, life.
Careful, attentive, anxious, solicitous, heedful, provident, circumspect.
Careless, negligent, heedless, supine, inattentive, incautious, thoughtless, remiss, indolent, listless.
Caress, fondle, hug, embrace.
Carnage, butchery, bloodshed, slaughter, massacre.
Carnal, fleshly, sensual, voluptuous, luxurious, secular, worldly.
Carry, bear, sustain, convey, transport.
Casualty, accident, contingency, incident, occurrence, event, adventure.
Catch, overtake lay hold on, grasp, seize, capture, grip, clutch, snatch, arrest, apprehend.
Catching, infectious, contagious, pestilential, miasmatic, insidious.
Cause, *n.*, motive, reason, incentive, inducement, incitement, impulse, effort, work, operation.
Cause, *v.*, occasion, make, induce, originate, give rise to, evoke, provoke, incite.
Caution, care, vigilance, circumspection, admonition, warning, notice
Cautious, careful, watchful, prudent, wary, vigilant, circumspect.
Celebrate, commend, applaud, laud, extol, magnify, glorify.
Celebrated, famous, renowned, far-famed, illustrious, glorious.
Celerity, quickness, speed, rapidity, velocity, swiftness, fleetness.
Celestial, heavenly, divine, godlike, seraphic, angelic.
Censure, *v.*, blame, reprove, reprehend, reprobate, condemn, upbraid.
Ceremony, form, observance, rite, solemnity.
Certain, sure, indubitable, unquestionable, unfailing, secure, real, actual, positive.
Certify, testify, vouch, declare.
Cessation, intermission, rest, pause, discontinuance.
Champion, leader, chieftain, head.
Chance, accident, fortune, casualty, hazard, luck.
Change, *v.*, alter, vary, transform, exchange, barter.
Change, *n.*, variety, alteration, alternation, vicissitude.
Changeable, variable, unsteady, undecided, wavering, hesitating, vacillating, fluctuating, inconstant, unsteadfast, unstable, fickle, versatile, restless, fitful, capricious.
Character, cast, turn, tone, description, nature, disposition, reputation.
Charge, *v.*, accuse, impeach, arraign, inculpate.
Charge, *n.*, care, custody, ward, trust, management, cost, price, expense, account, fee, bill, assault, shock, onset, attack, accusation, impeachment, imputation.
Charity, kindness, benignity, beneficence, benevolence, tenderness.
Charm, enchant, fascinate, bewitch, enrapture, captivate, enamor.
Chat, chatter, prattle, prate, babble, gossip.
Cheat, *v.*, defraud, gull, dupe, trick, beguile, deceive, delude, hoodwink.
Cheat, *n.*, deception, imposture, fraud, delusion, artifice, deceit, trick, imposition.
Check, curb, restrain, repress, control, counteract, chide, reprimand, reprove, rebuke.
Cheer, exhilarate, animate, inspirit, inspire, enliven, gladden, comfort, solace.
Cheerfulness, gayety, sprightliness, merriment, mirth, liveliness, vivacity, joviality.
Cheerless, broken-hearted, comfortless, disconsolate, inconsolable, desolate, forlorn.
Cherish, nourish, nurture, nurse, foster, sustain.
Choose, prefer, select, elect, call, pick.
Circuitous, roundabout, tortuous, flexuous, tiresome.
Circulate, spread, diffuse, disseminate, propagate.
Circumspection, caution, watchfulness, vigilance, deliberation, thoughtfulness, wariness.
Circumstance, situation, condition, position, fact, incident.
Cite, quote, adduce, summon, call.
Civil, polite, complaisant, affable, courteous, obliging, urbane, well-bred.
Claim, *v.*, ask, demand, challenge, call for, plead.
Clamor, outcry, fuss, noise, hubbub, uproar.
Clandestine, hidden, secret, private.
Class, *n.*, order, rank, degree, grade, category, caste, tribe.
Clause, stipulation, proviso, term, article.
Clean, *v.*, cleanse, clarify, purify.
Clear, *v.*, absolve, acquit, liberate, deliver, release, set free, unbind.
Clear, *a.*, apparent, palpable, visible, obvious, plain, evident, manifest, unmistakable, distinct, intelligible, lucid, transparent, limpid.
Clemency, leniency, mercy, mildness, mitigation.
Clever, skillful, expert, dexterous, adroit.
Cling, hold, stick, adhere, attach.
Close, *v.*, conclude, shut, end, terminate, finish.
Close, *a.*, compact, solid, firm, dense.
Clothes, garments, vestments, dress, habiliments, apparel, attire, array raiment, vesture, drapery.
Cloudy, dim, obscure, dark, dusky, murky, indistinct, shadowy, mysterious.
Clumsy, awkward, unpolished, uncourtly, ponderous.
Clutch, grasp, lay hold on, catch, seize, grip.

Coalition, union, alliance, confederacy, league, combination.
Coarse, rough, rude, rugged, gruff, harsh.
Coeval, contemporaneous, cotemporary, contemporary.
Cogent, forcible, strong, valid, irresistible, resistless.
Colleague, fellow, compeer, companion.
Collect, *v.*, gather, assemble, muster, congregate, accumulate, hoard.
Colossal, large, gigantic, huge, enormous, immense, vast.
Color, hue, tint, tinge, complexion.
Combat, *n.*, engagement, conflict, contest, fight, action, battle.
Combat, *v.*, oppose, resist, withstand, thwart.
Combination, alliance, union, league, confederacy, coalition, conspiracy.
Comfort, solace, console, encourage, revive.
Comfortless, cheerless, forlorn, disconsolate, inconsolable, desolate, wretched.
Comic, funny, laughable, droll, ludicrous.
Command, *n.*, order, decree, injunction, mandate, precept, behest.
Commence, begin, enter upon.
Commend, *v.*, praise, applaud, extol, eulogize, recommend.
Comment, observation, remark, annotation, elucidation.
Commerce, dealing, trade, traffic, intercourse, interchange, reciprocity.
Commit, perpetrate, do, intrust, confide, consign.
Commodious, convenient, useful, suitable.
Common, vulgar, low, mean, frequent, ordinary, usual, general.
Communicate, make known, divulge, disclose, reveal, impart.
Communication, intercourse, correspondence, commerce, interchange.
Community, society, commonwealth, social state.
Commute, change, alter, exchange, barter.
Companion, comrade, coadjutor, partner, ally, associate, confederate, fellow, colleague.
Company, association, society, assemble, assemblage, audience, auditory, corporation, body, troop, horde, crew.
Comparison, simile, similitude, illustration.
Compassion, pity, commiseration, sympathy, condolence.
Compatible, consistent, consonant, accordant.
Compel, force, constrain, coerce, enforce, oblige, necessitate.
Compendious, brief, short, succinct, concise.
Compensate, recompense, make amends, remunerate, requite.
Competent, able, capable, efficient, qualified, fitted, clever, skillful, sufficient, adequate.
Complete, *v.*, accomplish, fulfil, realize, execute, effect, achieve, conclude, consummate, finish, end, fill up, terminate.
Complexion, aspect, appearance, feature, lineament, look.
Complicated, complex, compound, involved, intricate.
Compliment, praise, flatter, adulate, applaud.
Comply, yield, accede, assent, consent, acquiesce.
Compose, form, compound, put together, constitute, soothe, calm, quiet, lull, hush, frame, indite.
Composed, serene, placid, calm, collected.
Comprehend, comprise, take in, embrace, contain, embody, include, conceive, imagine, apprehend, understand.
Comprehension, capacity, capability, knowledge, intelligence, understanding.
Compress, condense, press, squeeze.
Comprise, contain, include, comprehend, embody.
Compromise, concede, implicate, involve, entangle, embarrass.
Compulsion, constraint, force, coercion.
Compute, calculate, count, sum, number, account, reckon, estimate, rate, measure.
Comrade, associate, companion, ally.
Conceal, hide, secrete, disguise, dissemble.
Concede, give up, deliver, yield, compromise, allow, grant, admit.
Conceited, proud, vain, egotistical.
Conceive, think of, imagine, suppose, comprehend, understand.
Concern, affair, business, matter, care, regard, interest.
Concerted, joint, coöperative, designed, wrought out, studied, elaborate.
Concise, brief, short, succinct.
Conclude, end, close, finish, terminate.
Conclusion, end, upshot, event, inference, deduction.
Concord, concert, chorus, harmony, unity.
Concourse, crowd, confluence, conflux.
Concur, acquiesce, agree, coincide.
Condemn, blame, reprobate, reprove, reproach, upbraid, censure, reprehend, doom, sentence.
Condense, compress, press, squeeze, concentrate, epitomize.
Condition, state, plight, case, predicament, category, stipulation, covenant, article, term.
Condolence, sympathy, commiseration, compassion.
Conduce, contribute, subserve, lead, tend, incline.
Conduct, *n.*, behavior, demeanor, carriage, walk, deportment.
Conduct, *v.*, guide, lead, direct, manage.
Confer, bestow, give, discourse, converse.
Conference, meeting, conversation, talk, colloquy, dialogue, parley.
Confess, acknowledge, avow, own, recognize.
Confide, trust, repose, depend, rely.
Confidence, assurance, trust, faith, reliance, hope.
Confident, dogmatical, positive, absolute, bold, presumptuous, sanguine.
Confine, limit, bound, circumscribe, restrict, restrain, shut up.
Confirm, ratify, establish, substantiate, corroborate, settle.
Conflicting, jarring, discordant, irreconcilable.
Confused, muddled, mixed, promiscuous, indistinct, deranged, disordered, disorganized, bewildered.
Confusion, disorder, derangement, disorganization, chaos, anarchy, misrule.
Confute, refute, disprove, belie.
Conjure, *v.*, adjure, beseech, entreat, implore.
Connect, join, link, bind.
Connection, union, alliance, coalition, junction, intercourse, commerce, affinity, relationship.
Conquer, vanquish, subdue, overcome, subjugate, surmount.
Consecrate, sanctify, hallow, devote, dedicate.
Consent, *n.*, assent, acquiescence, concurrence, approval.
Consequence, effect, result, event, issue, sequence.
Consider, reflect, regard, weigh, ponder, deliberate.
Consistent, consonant, compatible accordant.
Console, solace, comfort, soothe.
Conspicuous, distinguished, noted, marked, prominent, eminent, preeminent, illustrious, famed.
Constancy, firmness, stability, steadiness.
Constantly, ever, always, continually, perpetually, incessantly, everlastingly.
Constitute, make, form, compose, mould.
Constitutional, legal, regulated, organized, radical, rooted, fundamental.
Consult, advise with, take counsel, deliberate, debate.
Consume, burn, absorb, spend, swallow, imbibe, engulf, devour.
Consumption, decay, decline, waste.
Contagious, infectious, pestilential, miasmatic.
Contain, comprise, comprehend, include, embrace, hold, incorporate, embody.
Contemplate, meditate, muse, think.
Contemporary, contemporaneous, coeval, simultaneous.
Contemptible, mean, vile, despicable, pitiful, paltry.
Contend, contest, debate, argue, dispute, cope, strive, vie.
Contingency, casualty, accident, incident, occurrence, adventure, event.
Continual, unceasing, incessant, continuous, perpetual, uninterrupted, unremitting, endless, everlasting.
Contort, distort, twist, writhe, wrest, wrench.
Contract, *v.*, abbreviate, curtail, shorten, condense, abridge, retrench, reduce.
Contract, *n.*, agreement, compact, bargain, stipulation, covenant.
Contradict, oppose, deny, gainsay, controvert.
Contrary, adverse, opposite, antagonistic, repugnant, hostile.
Contribute, give to, coöperate, conspire.
Contrition, repentance, penitence, remorse.
Control, check, curb, repress, restrain, govern.
Convene, call together, bring together, convoke, assemble, congregate, muster.
Convention, assembly, meeting, convocation, company.

Conventional, usual, ordinary, fashionable.
Conversant, acquainted with, familiar, relating to, concerning.
Converse, *v.*, speak, talk, discourse, commune.
Convert, change, turn, transform.
Convey, carry, transport, bear, take, waft.
Convivial, joyous, festal, social, sociable.
Convulse, upheave, upturn, shake.
Cool, cold, frigid, dispassionate, unimpassioned, calm, undisturbed, composed.
Co-operate, work with, conspire, conduce, contribute.
Copious, ample, abundant, rich, affluent, exuberant, plentiful, plenteous, full.
Corpulent, portly, stout, lusty, plethoric.
Correct, *v.*, put right, mend, amend, rectify, better, reform, improve.
Correct, *a.*, accurate, exact, precise, proper, faultless, punctual, strict.
Corrupt, *v.*, contaminate, defile, taint, pollute, infect, adulterate, demoralize, deprave.
Corrupt, *a.*, depraved, debased, vitiated, demoralized, profligate.
Corruption, defilement, contamination, pollution, infection, adulteration, vice, depravity, corruptness.
Cost, price, charge, expense.
Costly, expensive, valuable, precious, sumptuous.
Council, assembly, company, congress, meeting, diet, convocation.
Counsel, advice, instruction, intelligence, consultation, deliberation.
Count, calculate, compute, reckon, number, sum, estimate, rate.
Counterfeit, spurious, forged, imitated, suppositious, false.
Counterpart, converse, reverse, correlative, correspondent, answerable.
Countless, innumerable, numberless, incalculable, unnumbered.
Courage, resolution, fortitude, fearlessness, prowess, bravery, chivalry, intrepidity, boldness, firmness.
Courteous, affable, urbane, conciliating, kind.
Covenant, agreement, contract, bargain, stipulation.
Cover, shelter, screen, hide, overspread, overshadow.
Covert, secret, clandestine, concealed, hidden, latent, cabalistic, mysterious.
Crafty, cunning, artful, sly, subtle, wily.
Crazy, crack-brained, imbecile, foolish, brainless.
Create, make, form, cause, produce, generate, engender.
Credence, belief, faith, confidence.
Credit, belief, trustworthiness, reputation, security, honor, praise.
Credulity, gullibility, simplicity.
Crime, offence, misdeed, misdemeanor, felony.
Cripple, weaken, impair, curtail, cramp.
Criterion, test, touchstone, proof.
Critical, nice, exact, fastidious, precarious, ticklish, crucial, important, hazardous.
Criticise, examine, scan, analyze, discuss, anatomize.
Cross, ill-tempered, fretful, ill-humored, crusty, peevish, fractious.
Crude, raw, undigested, unconsidered, half-studied, harsh, unshaped, unfinished, unrefined, ill prepared.
Curb, restrain, hold, check, moderate.
Curiosity, inquisitiveness, interest, rarity, celebrity, oddity, lion.
Curious, inquiring, inquisitive, searching, interrogative, prying, peeping, peering, rare, odd.
Curse, malediction, anathema, bane, blight.
Cursory, summary, rapid, superficial.
Custody, keeping, guardianship, conservation, care.
Custom, manner, habit, use, prescription.
Cut, sever, slice, sunder, avoid, elude.
Cynical, sarcastic, snarling, sneering, cross-grained.

DAINTY, choice, rare, refined, tasty, exquisite, luxurious, epicurean, fastidious.
Danger, peril, hazard, risk, jeopardy.
Dare, venture, face, brave, hazard, risk, defy.
Dark, black, dusky, sable, swarthy, opaque, obscure, abstruse, unintelligible, blind, ignorant, shadowy, dim, sombre, joyless, mournful, sorrowful.
Dash, hurl, cast, throw, drive, rush, send, fly, speed, course.
Dead, defunct, deceased, departed, gone, inanimate, lifeless, insensible, heavy, unconscious, dull, spiritless.
Death, departure, demise, decease, dissolution, mortality, expiration.
Debase, degrade, lower, depress, deprave, deteriorate, corrupt, alloy.
Debate, contend, dispute, argue, discuss, deliberate, question, ventilate.
Debility, weakness, feebleness, lassitude, languor.
Decay, decline, wane, dwindle, waste, ebb, decrease.
Decayed, rotten, corrupt, unsound, decomposed, faded, unprosperous, impoverished.
Deceit, cheat, imposition, trick, delusion, guile, beguilement, treachery, sham.
Decide, determine, settle, adjudicate, terminate, resolve.
Decipher, read, spell, interpret, solve.
Decision, determination, conclusion, resolution, firmness.
Declamation, oratory, elocution, harangue, effusion, debate.
Declaration, avowal, manifestation, statement, profession.
Decrease, diminish, lessen, wane, decline, retrench, curtail, reduce.
Dedicate, devote, consecrate, offer, set, apportion, assign, apply, separate.
Deed, act, action, commission, achievement, instrument, document, muniment.
Deem, judge, estimate, consider, think, suppose, conceive.
Deep, profound, subterranean, submerged, designing, abstruse, learned.
Deface, mar, spoil, injure, disfigure.
Default, lapse, forfeit, omission, absence, want, failure.
Defect, imperfection, flaw, fault, blemish.
Defence, excuse, plea, vindication, bulwark, rampart.
Defend, guard, protect, justify.
Defer, delay, postpone, put off, prorogue, adjourn.
Deficient, short, wanting, inadequate, scanty, incomplete.
Defile, *v.*, pollute, corrupt, sully.
Define, fix, settle, determine, limit.
Defray, meet, liquidate, pay, discharge, quit.
Degree, grade, extent, measure, mark, range, quantity, amount, limit.
Deliberate, *v.*, consider, meditate, consult, ponder, debate.
Deliberate, *a.*, purposed, intentional, designed, determined.
Delicacy, nicety, dainty, refinement, tact, softness, modesty.
Delight, enjoyment, pleasure, happiness, transport, ecstacy, gladness rapture, bliss.
Deliver, liberate, free, rescue, pronounce, hand to, give.
Demonstrate, prove, show, exhibit, illustrate.
Depart, leave, quit, go, decamp, start, sally, retire, withdraw, remove vanish.
Deprive, strip, bereave, despoil, rob, divest.
Depute, appoint, commission, charge, intrust, delegate, authorize, accredit.
Derision, scorn, contempt, contumely, disrespect.
Derivation, origin, source, beginning, cause, etymology, root, spring analysis.
Describe, draw, delineate, portray, explain, illustrate, define, picture.
Desecrate, profane, secularize, misuse, abuse, pollute.
Deserve, merit, earn, justify, win.
Design, *n.*, delineation, sketch, drawing, cunning, artfulness, contrivance.
Desirable, expedient, advisable, valuable, acceptable, proper, judicious, beneficial, profitable, good.
Desire, *n.*, longing, affection, craving.
Desist, cease, stop, discontinue, drop, abstain, forbear.
Desolate, bereaved, forlorn, forsaken, deserted, wild, waste, bare. bleak, lonely.
Desperate, wild, daring, audacious, determined, reckless.
Destination, purpose, intention, design, consignment, object, end, fate doom, use, scope, goal, aim.
Destiny, fate, decree, doom, end.
Destructive, detrimental, hurtful, noxious, injurious, deleterious, baleful, baneful, subversive.
Desultory, rambling, discursive, loose, unmethodical, superficial, unsettled, erratic, fitful.
Detail, particularize, enumerate, specify.
Deter, warn, stop, dissuade, dispirit, discourage, dishearten, terrify, scare.
Detriment, loss, harm, injury, deterioration.
Develop, enunciate, amplify, expand, enlarge.

Device, *n.*, artifice, expedient, contrivance.
Devoid, void, wanting, destitute, unendowed, unprovided.
Devolve, impose, place, charge, commission, befall, fall on.
Devoted, attached, fond, absorbed, dedicated, given, abandoned.
Dictate, prompt, suggest, enjoin, order, command.
Dictatorial, imperative, imperious, domineering, arbitrary, tyrannical, overbearing.
Die, expire, depart, perish, decline, languish, wane, sink, fade, decay.
Diet, food, victuals, nourishment, nutriment, sustenance, fare, cheer, regimen.
Difference, separation, disagreement, discord, dissent, estrangement, variety.
Difficult, hard, intricate, involved, perplexing, obscure, unmanageable.
Diffuse, discursive, prolix, diluted, copious.
Dignify, agrandize, elevate, invest, exalt, advance, promote, honor.
Dilate, stretch, widen, expand, swell, distend, enlarge, descant, expatiate.
Dilatory, tardy, procrastinating, behindhand, lagging, dawdling.
Diligence, care, assiduity, attention, heed, industry.
Diminish, lessen, reduce, contract, curtail, retrench.
Diplomatic, judicious, knowing, wise, prudent, sagacious.
Disability, unfitness, incapacity.
Discern, descry, observe, recognize, see, discriminate, separate, perceive.
Discernible, visible, conspicuous, manifest, palpable.
Discernment, discrimination, far-sightedness, clear-sightedness, penetration, observation, sagacity.
Discipline, order, strictness, training, coercion, punishment, organization.
Disclose, discover, reveal, confess, detect.
Disconcert, abash, confuse, confound, upset, baffle, derange, discompose, frustrate, discomfit.
Discover, make known, find, invent, contrive, expose, reveal.
Discreditable, shameful, disgraceful, scandalous, disreputable.
Discreet, cautious, prudent, wary, judicious.
Discrepancy, disagreement, difference, variance.
Discrimination, acuteness, discernment, judgment, caution.
Disdain, contempt, scorn, haughtiness, disregard.
Disease, complaint, malady, disorder, ailment, sickness.
Disgrace, *n.*, disrepute, reproach, dishonor, shame, odium.
Disgrace, *v.*, debase, degrade, defame, discredit.
Disgust, dislike, distaste, loathing, abomination, abhorrence.
Dishonest, unjust, fraudulent, unfair, deceitful, cheating, deceptive, wrongful.
Dishonor, *v.*, disgrace, shame, degrade, ravish, pollute.
Dismay, *v.*, terrify, frighten, scare, daunt, appall, dishearten.
Dismay, *n.*, terror, dread, fear, fright.
Dismiss, send off, discharge, discard, banish.
Disorderly, irregular, confused, lawless, unruly.
Dispel, scatter, drive away, disperse, dissipate.
Display, show, spread out, exhibit, expose.
Displease, offend, vex, anger, provoke, irritate.
Dispose, arrange, place, order, give, bestow.
Dispute, *v.*, argue, contest, contend, question, impugn.
Dispute, *n.*, argument, debate, controversy, quarrel, disagreement.
Disregard, *v.*, slight, neglect, despise, disparage.
Dissent, disagree, differ, vary.
Distinct, clear, plain, obvious, different, separate.
Distinguish, perceive, discern, mark out, divide, discriminate.
Distinguished, famous, glorious, far-famed, noted, illustrious, eminent, celebrated.
Distract, perplex, bewilder, madden.
Distribute, allot, share, dispense, apportion, deal.
Disturb, derange, discompose, agitate, rouse, interrupt, confuse, annoy, trouble, vex, worry.
Divide, part, separate, distribute, deal out, sever, sunder.
Divine, godlike, holy, heavenly, sacred, a parson, clergyman, minister.
Do, effect, make, perform, accomplish, finish, transact.
Docile, tractable, teachable, compliant, tame.
Doctrine, tenet, articles of belief, creed, dogma, teaching.
Doleful, dolorous, woe-begone, rueful, dismal, piteous.
Doom, *n.*, sentence, verdict, judgment, fate, lot, destiny.
Doubt, *n.*, uncertainty, suspense, hesitation, scruple, ambiguity.
Draw, pull, haul, drag, attract, inhale, sketch, describe.
Dread, *n.*, fear, horror, terror, alarm, dismay, awe.
Dreadful, fearful, frightful, shocking, awful, horrible, horrid, terrific.
Dress, *n.*, clothing, attire, apparel, garments, costume, garb, livery.
Drift, purpose, meaning, scope, aim, tendency, direction.
Droll, funny, laughable, comic, whimsical, queer, amusing.
Drown, inundate, swamp, submerge, overwhelm, engulf.
Dry, *a.*, arid, parched, lifeless, dull, tedious, uninteresting, meagre.
Due, owing to, attributable to, just, fair, proper, debt, right.
Dull, stupid, gloomy, sad, dismal, commonplace.
Durable, lasting, permanent, abiding, continuing.
Dwell, stay, stop, abide, sojourn, linger, tarry.
Dwindle, pine, waste, diminish, decrease, fall off.

EAGER, hot, ardent, impassioned, forward, impatient.
Earn, acquire, obtain, win, gain, achieve.
Earnest, ardent, serious, grave, solemn, warm, pledge.
Ease, *v.*, calm, alleviate, allay, mitigate, appease, assuage, pacify, unburden, rid.
Eccentric, irregular, anomalous, singular, odd, abnormal, wayward, particular, strange.
Economical, sparing, saving, provident, thrifty, frugal, careful, niggardly.
Edge, border, brink, rim, brim, margin, verge.
Efface, blot out, expunge, obliterate, wipe out, cancel, erase.
Effect, *n.*, consequence, result, issue, event, execution, operation.
Effect, *v.*, accomplish, fulfill, realize, achieve, execute, operate, complete.
Effective, efficient, operative, serviceable.
Efficacy, efficiency, energy, agency, instrumentality.
Efficient, effectual, effective, competent, capable, able, fitted.
Eliminate, drive out, expel, thrust out, eject, cast out, oust, dislodge, banish, proscribe.
Eloquence, oratory, rhetoric, declamation.
Elucidate, make plain, explain, clear up, illustrate.
Elude, evade, escape, avoid, shun.
Embarrass, perplex, entangle, distress, trouble.
Embellish, adorn, decorate, bedeck, beautify, deck, illustrate.
Embolden, inspirit, animate, encourage, cheer, urge, impel, stimulate.
Eminent, distinguished, signal, conspicuous, noted, prominent, elevated, renowned, famous, glorious, illustrious.
Emit, give out, throw out, exhale, discharge, vent.
Emotion, perturbation, agitation, trepidation, tremor, mental conflict.
Employ, occupy, busy, take up with, engross.
Employment, business, avocation, engagement, office, function, trade, profession, occupation, calling, vocation.
Encircle, enclose, embrace, encompass, surround, gird, begird, engird, environ, beset.
Enclose, *v.*, fence in, confine, circumscribe.
Encompass, *v.*, encircle, surround, gird, begird, environ, beset, invest.
Encounter, attack, conflict, combat, assault, onset, engagement, battle, action.
Encourage, countenance, sanction, support, foster, cherish, inspirit, embolden, animate, cheer, incite, urge, impel, stimulate.
End, *n.*, aim, object, purpose, result, conclusion, upshot, close, expiration, termination, extremity, sequel.
Endeavor, attempt, try, essay, strive, aim.
Endorse, superscribe, ratify, confirm.
Endurance, continuation, duration, fortitude, patience, resignation.
Endure, *v.*, last, continue, support, bear, sustain, suffer, brook, submit to, undergo.
Enemy, foe, antagonist, adversary, opponent.
Energetic, effectual, efficacious, powerful, energetic, binding, stringent, forcible, nervous.
Engage, employ, busy, occupy, attract, invite, allure, entertain, engross, take up, enlist.
Engross, absorb, take up, busy, occupy, engage, monopolize.
Engulf, swallow up, absorb, imbibe, drown, submerge, bury, entomb, overwhelm.

Enlarge, increase, extend, augment, broaden, swell.
Enlighten, illumine, illuminate, instruct, inform.
Enliven, cheer, vivify, stir up, animate, inspire, exhilarate.
Enormous, gigantic, colossal, huge, vast, immense, prodigious.
Enraged, infuriated, raging, wrathful.
Enrapture, enchant, fascinate, charm, captivate, bewitch.
Entangle, perplex, embarrass, inveigle, implicate, involve, compromise, ensnare, entrap.
Entertainment, amusement, divertisement, diversion, recreation, pastime, sport, feast, fête, banquet, treat.
Enthusiasm, zeal, ardor, fervor, warmth, fervency.
Entice, allure, attract, decoy, lure, tempt.
Entire, whole, complete, perfect, total.
Entrance, *n.*, entry, inlet, ingress, porch, portal.
Entrance, *v.*, charm, enchant, fascinate, bewitch, enrapture, captivate.
Entreat, beg, crave, solicit, beseech, implore, supplicate.
Enumerate, tell over, relate, narrate, recount.
Epitome, abridgment, compendium, abstract, summary.
Equitable, just, fair, even-handed, honest, impartial, upright, reasonable.
Erase, scratch out, blot out, expunge, efface, cancel.
Erect, set up, raise, elevate, construct, establish, institute, found.
Erring, misguided, misled.
Error, mistake, fallacy, blunder, hallucination, fault.
Essay, *n.*, attempt, trial, endeavor, effort, tract, treatise.
Essential, necessary, indispensable, requisite, vital.
Establish, *v.*, institute, found, organize, confirm, fix, settle.
Esteem, prize, value, appreciate, respect, regard, reverence, venerate, revere.
Estimate, value, measure, compute, calculate, appraise.
Eternal, everlasting, endless, infinite, perpetual, deathless, immortal, undying, never-dying, ever-living, imperishable.
Event, incident, occurrence, accident, adventure, issue, result, consequence.
Ever, always, eternally, everlastingly, evermore, aye, forever, perpetually, continually, incessantly.
Evidence, *n.*, testimony, deposition, proof, declaration.
Evidence, *v.*, manifest, prove, evince, demonstrate, exemplify.
Evident, clear, plain, manifest, apparent, obvious, visible, palpable.
Evince, show, argue, prove, evidence, demonstrate, manifest.
Evoke, call out, invite, summon, challenge.
Exact, *a.*, accurate, correct, definite, precise, literal, nice.
Exaggerated, overstated, heightened, amplified, enlarged.
Exalt, raise, elevate, erect, lift up, dignify, ennoble.
Examination, search, inquiry, research, scrutiny, investigation.
Example, pattern, sample, model, specimen, copy, instance.
Exasperate, irritate, inflame, incense, enkindle, envenom, nettle, provoke, chafe.
Except, unless, save, saving, but.
Excessive, exorbitant, extortionate, unreasonable, immoderate, inordinate, extravagant.
Exchange, *v.*, change, barter, truck, commute, interchange, reciprocate.
Exchange, *n.*, barter, dealing, trade, traffic.
Excite, incite, arouse, awaken, stir up, disquiet, disturb, agitate, provoke, irritate.
Exclude, shut out, debar, preclude, seclude.
Excuse, *v.*, palliate, mitigate, acquit, justify, absolve, dispense, exempt.
Excuse, *n.*, plea, justification, pretence, pretext, pretension.
Execrable, abominable, detestable, hateful, accursed, cursed, confounded.
Execute, accomplish, effectuate, fulfil, effect, realize, achieve, complete, finish.
Exemption, freedom, immunity, privilege.
Exhale, emit, give out, smoke, steam.
Exhaust, spend, drain, empty, debilitate.
Exile, banishment, deportation, expatriation, expulsion, proscription.
Exonerate, clear, acquit, discharge, absolve, relieve, justify.
Exorbitant, excessive, extortionate, unreasonable, immoderate.
Expand, spread, diffuse, dilate, extend, enlarge, amplify, unfold, develop.
Expedient, fit, necessary, essential, requisite.
Expedite, accelerate, quicken, hasten, facilitate, forward, advance.
Expel, drive out, eject, dispossess, dislodge, oust.
Expensive, costly, dear, valuable, sumptuous.
Expert, *a.*, clever, dexterous, adroit, skilful.
Expiration, end, completion, close, termination.
Explicit, express, plain, definitive, positive, determinate.
Exploit, achievement, feat, deed, accomplishment.
Expound, explain, interpret, unfold, elucidate, clear up.
Express, *a.*, explicit, plain, positive, definite, determinate, categorical.
Express, *v.*, declare, enunciate, pronounce, articulate, denote, utter, signify, testify, intimate.
Expressive, significant, energetic, emphatic.
Extend, enlarge, amplify, expand, increase, stretch out, spread out, make larger, augment.
Exterior, outward, outer, external.
Exterminate, eradicate, root out, annihilate, extinguish.
Extort, exact, wrest, wring, draw from.
Extraordinary, remarkable, signal, eminent, uncommon.
Extravagant, prodigal, lavish, profuse, excessive.
Extricate, free, disengage, disentangle, disembarrass, liberate.
Exuberant, plenteous, plentiful, luxuriant, abundant, profuse, rich.

FABRIC, edifice, structure, pile.
Fabricate, invent, frame, feign, forge, coin.
Facetious, jocose, jocular, pleasant.
Facile, easy, pliable, flexible.
Faculty, ability, gift, talent, endowment.
Failing, imperfection, weakness, frailty, foible, miscarriage, mishap.
Faint, languid, weak, low.
Faith, belief, assurance, confidence, trust, credence, credit, fidelity.
Faithless, unfaithful, false-hearted, treacherous.
Fallacious, deceptive, illusive, fraudulent, deceitful, delusive.
Falsehood, untruth, story, lie, fabrication, fib, falsity.
Falter, halt, stammer, stutter, hesitate.
Fame, reputation, glory, renown, celebrity, honor, credit.
Famed, famous, far-famed, renowned, celebrated, illustrious, surpassing, eminent, distinguished.
Familiar, free, frank, affable, conversant, intimate.
Familiarity, acquaintance, intimacy, courtesy, affability, fellowship.
Fanciful, imaginative, ideal, fantastical, whimsical, capricious.
Fancy, imagination, notion, conceit, vagary, frolic, inclination, liking, humor.
Farthest, most distant, extreme, remotest, utmost, uttermost.
Fascinate, charm, enchant, bewitch, enrapture, captivate, entrance.
Fast, firm, solid, constant, steadfast, staunch, stable, steady, unyielding, inflexible, unswerving, gay, wild, dissipated.
Fasten, *v.*, fix, tie, link, stick, hold, affix, attach, annex.
Fatal, deadly, mortal, lethal, inevitable.
Fatigue, weariness, lassitude, languor, enervation, exhaustion.
Fault, blemish, defect, imperfection, vice, failure, omission.
Favor, benefit, kindness, civility, grace.
Fear, fright, terror, dismay, alarm, dread, trepidation, consternation, apprehension.
Fearless, brave, bold, intrepid, courageous, undaunted, dauntless, daring, gallant, valorous, valiant.
Fearful, afraid, timid, nervous, timorous, terrific, dreadful, awful, frightful, horrible, distressing, shocking.
Feast, fête, banquet, treat, entertainment, festival.
Feeble, weak, infirm, nerveless, forceless, failing, frail, enfeebled, debilitated, enervated, impotent, paralyzed, palsied.
Feeling, emotion, sentiment, impression, sensation, consciousness, sensibility.
Feign, pretend, simulate, dissemble, invent, forge, devise.
Felicity, happiness, bliss, blessedness, beatitude, blissfulness.
Ferocious, fierce, savage, ravenous, voracious, cruel, inhuman, fell, barbarous.
Fertile, fruitful, prolific, teeming, pregnant, productive, rich, luxuriant.
Fervid, growing, ardent, impassioned, fervent, warm.
Festivity, hilarity, joviality, jovialness, gayety.
Fickle, unstable, inconstant, restless, fitful, variable, changeable.

Fiction, romance, invention, falsehood, fabrication.
Fidelity, faithfulness, honesty, integrity.
Fiendish, diabolic, demoniacal, devilish.
Fierce, furious, violent, ferocious, savage.
Fiery, hot, glowing, ardent, fervid, impassioned, passionate, impassionate, fervent, vehement.
Fight, battle, action, engagement, combat, conflict, contest, encounter, contention, struggle.
Fill, satisfy, content, store, replenish, glut, gorge, stuff.
Filthy, dirty, dingy, unclean, gross.
Final, ending, ultimate, last, latest, conclusive, decisive.
Fine, *a.*, refined, delicate, pure, nice, handsome, pretty, beautiful, elegant, showy.
Firm, strong, robust, sturdy, fast, steadfast, stable, solid.
Fit, *v.*, suit, adapt, adjust, equip, prepare, qualify.
Fit, *a.*, apt, suitable, meet, befitting, becoming, decent, decorous, expedient.
Fix, *v.*, fasten, tie, link, enlink, attach, stick, settle, establish, determine, define.
Flat, level, horizontal, even, downright, absolute, insipid, mawkish, dull, spiritless, tasteless, lifeless.
Flattery, adulation, servility, cajolery.
Flaw, blemish, spot, blur, speck, defect, crack.
Fleeting, temporary, transient, transitory, short-lived.
Fling, cast, throw, hurl, toss.
Flippancy, pertness, sauciness, lightness.
Flock, throng, crowd, multitude, swarm, shoal.
Flourish, thrive, prosper, wave, brandish.
Fluctuate, waver, hesitate, oscillate, vacillate, scruple, change.
Fluent, flowing, glib, voluble, unembarrassed, ready.
Folks, persons, people, individuals, fellows.
Follow, succeed, ensue, imitate, copy, pursue.
Follower, partisan, disciple, adherent, retainer, pursuer, successor.
Folly, silliness, foolishness, imbecility, weakness.
Fond, enamored, attached, affectionate.
Fondness, affection, attachment, kindness, love.
Foolhardy, venturesome, incautious, hasty, adventurous, rash.
Foolish, simple, silly, irrational, brainless, imbecile, crazy, absurd, preposterous, ridiculous, nonsensical.
Fop, dandy, beau, coxcomb, puppy, jackanapes.
Forbear, abstain, refrain, withhold.
Force, *n.*, strength, vigor, dint, might, energy, power, violence, army, host.
Forecast, forethought, foresight, premeditation, prognostication.
Forego, quit, relinquish, let go, waive.
Foregoing, antecedent, anterior, preceding, previous, prior former.
Forerunner, herald, harbinger, percursor, omen.
Foresight, forethought, forecast, premeditation.
Forge, coin, invent, frame, feign, fabricate, counterfeit.
Forgive, pardon, remit, absolve, acquit, excuse, excert.
Forlorn, forsaken, abandoned, deserted, desolate, lon , lonesome.
Form, *n.*, ceremony, solemnity, observance, rite, figure, shape, conformation, fashion, appearance, representation, semblance.
Form, *v.*, make, create, produce, constitute, arrange, fashion, mould, shape.
Formal, ceremonious, precise, exact, stiff, methodical, affected.
Former, antecedent, anterior, previous, prior, preceding, foregoing.
Forsaken, abandon, forlorn, deserted, desolate, lone, lonesome.
Forthwith, immediately, directly, instantly, instantaneously.
Fortitude, endurance, resolution, fearlessness, dauntlessness.
Fortunate, lucky, happy, auspicious, prosperous, successful.
Fortune, chance, fate, luck, doom, destiny, property, possession, riches.
Foster, cherish, nurse, tend, harbor, nurture.
Foul, impure, nasty, filthy, dirty, unclean, defiled.
Fractious, cross, captious, petulant, touchy, testy, peevish, fretful, splenetic.
Fragile, brittle, frail, delicate, feeble.
Fragments, pieces, scraps, chips, leavings, remains, remnants.
Frailty, weakness, failing, foible, imperfection, fault, blemish.
Frame, *v.*, construct, invent, coin, fabricate, forge, mould, feign, make, compose.
Franchise, right, exemption, immunity, privilege, freedom, suffrage.
Frank, artless, candid, sincere, free, easy, familiar, open, ingenuous, plain.
Frantic, distracted, mad, furious, raving, frenzied.
Fraternize, coöperate, consort, associate with.
Fraud, deceit, deception, duplicity, guile, cheat, imposition.
Free, *a.*, liberal, generous, bountiful, bounteous, munificent, frank, artless, candid, familiar, open, unconfined, unreserved, unrestricted, exempt, clear, loose, easy, careless.
Free, *v.*, release, set free, deliver, rescue, liberate, enfranchise, affranchise, emancipate, exempt.
Freedom, liberty, independence, unrestraint, familiarity, license, franchise, exemption, privilege.
Frequent, often, common, usual, general.
Fret, gall, chafe, agitate, irritate, vex.
Friendly, amicable, social, sociable.
Frightful, fearful, dreadful, dire, direful, terrific, awful, horrible, horrid.
Frivolous, trifling, trivial, petty.
Frugal, provident, economical, saving.
Fruitful, fertile, prolific, productive, abundant, plentiful, plenteous.
Fruitless, vain, useless, idle, abortive, bootless, unavailing, without avail.
Frustrate, defeat, foil, balk, disappoint.
Fulfil, accomplish, effect, complete.
Fully, completely, abundantly, perfectly.
Fulsome, coarse, gross, sickening, offensive, rank, obscene.
Furious, violent, boisterous, vehement, dashing, sweeping, rolling, impetuous, frantic, distracted, stormy, angry, raging, fierce.
Futile, trifling, trivial, frivolous, useless.

GAIN, *n.*, profit, emolument, advantage, benefit, winnings, earnings.
Gain, *v.*, get, acquire, obtain, attain, procure, earn, win, achieve, reap, realize, reach.
Gallant, brave, bold, courageous, gay, fine, showy, intrepid, fearless, heroic.
Galling, chafing, irritating, vexing.
Game, play, pastime, diversion, sport, amusement.
Gang, band, horde, company, troop, crew.
Gap, breach, chasm, hollow, cavity, cleft, crevice, rift, chink.
Garnish, embellish, adorn, beautify, deck, decorate.
Gather, pick, cull, assemble, muster, infer, collect.
Gaudy, showy, tawdry, gay, glittering, bespangled.
Gaunt, emaciated, scraggy, skinny, meagre, lank, attenuated, spare, lean, thin.
Gay, cheerful, merry, lively, jolly, sprightly, blithe.
Generate, form, make, beget, produce.
Generation, formation, race, breed, stock, kind, age, era.
Generous, beneficent, noble, honorable, bountiful, liberal, free.
Genial, cordial, hearty, festive, joyous.
Genius, intellect, invention, talent, taste, nature, character, adept.
Genteel, refined, polished, fashionable, polite, well-bred.
Gentle, placid, mild, bland, meek, tame, docile.
Genuine, real, true, unaffected, sincere.
Gesture, attitude, action, posture.
Get, obtain, earn, gain, attain, procure, achieve.
Ghastly, pallid, wan, hideous, grim, shocking.
Ghost, spectre, spright, sprite, apparition, shade, phantom.
Gibe, scoff, sneer, flout, jeer, mock, taunt, deride.
Giddy, unsteady, flighty, thoughtless.
Gift, donation, benefaction, grant, alms, gratuity, boon, present, faculty, talent.
Gigantic, colossal, huge, enormous, vast, prodigious, immense.
Give, grant, bestow, confer, yield, impart.
Glad, pleased, cheerful, joyful, gladsome, gratified, cheering.
Gleam, glimmer, glance, glitter, shine, flash.
Glee, gayety, merriment, mirth, jovialty, jovialness, catch.
Glide, slip slide, run, roll on.
Glimmer, *v.*, gleam, flicker, glitter.
Glimpse, glance, look, glint.
Glitter, gleam, shine, glisten, glister, radiate.
Gloom, cloud, darkness, dimness, blackness, dulness, sadness.

Glorious, famous, renowned, celebrated, illustrious, distinguished, conspicuous, noble, exalted, grand.
Glory, honor, fame, renown, splendor, grandeur.
Glowing, hot, intense, fervid, ardent, fervent, fiery.
Glut, gorge, stuff, cram, cloy, satiate, block up, fill to repletion, inundate.
Good, *a.*, virtuous, righteous, upright, just, true.
Gorgeous, superb, grand, magnificent, splendid.
Govern, rule, direct, manage, command.
Government, rule, administration, cabinet, constitution, state, control, sway.
Graceful, becoming, comely, elegant, beautiful.
Gracious, merciful, kindly, beneficent, courteous, civil.
Gradual, slow, progressive.
Grand, majestic, stately, dignified, lofty, elevated, exalted, splendid, gorgeous, superb, magnificent, sublime, pompous.
Grant, *v.*, bestow, impart, give, yield, cede, allow, confer, invest.
Grant, *n.*, pay, wages, salary, stipend, gift, boon, donation.
Graphic, forcible, telling, picturesque, vivid, pictorial.
Gratification, enjoyment, pleasure, delight, reward.
Grave, *a.*, serious, sedate, thoughtful, solemn, sober, important, weighty, pressing, heavy.
Gravity, weight, heaviness, importance, moment, seriousness.
Grief, affliction, sorrow, trial, woe, tribulation.
Grieve, mourn, lament, sorrow, pain, hurt, wound, bewail.
Gross, coarse, outrageous, unseemly, shameful, indelicate.
Ground, *v.*, found, rest, base, establish.
Groundless, unfounded, baseless, ungrounded, gratuitous.
Group, assembly, assemblage, cluster, collection, clump, order, class.
Grow, increase, vegetate, expand, advance.
Grudge, malice, rancor, spite, pique, hatred, aversion.
Gruff, rough, rugged, blunt, rude, harsh, surly, bearish.
Guard, *v.*, protect, defend, shield, keep, watch.
Guard, *n.*, shield, fence, security, defence, sentinel, sentry, watchman, conductor.
Guardian, protector, conservator, preserver, custodian, warder.
Guess, conjecture, divine, surmise, reckon, fancy, suppose.
Guide, *v.*, lead, conduct, direct, regulate, manage, superintend.
Guile, deceit, fraud, artifice, trickery.
Guilt, crime, sin, offence.
Gull, dupe, cheat, trick, cozen, deceive, beguile, delude.
Gush, stream, flow, rush, spout.

HABILIMENTS, clothes, dress, garb, apparel, vestments.
Habit, manner, custom, usage, way.
Habitation, dwelling, residence, abode, domicile.
Habitual, usual, customary, accustomed, wonted, regular, ordinary.
Hale, hearty, robust, sound, healthy, strong.
Hallow, consecrate, sanctify, venerate, dedicate, enshrine.
Handsome, pretty, elegant, graceful, ample, beautiful, fine.
Hapless, luckless, unlucky, unhappy, unfortunate.
Happiness, felicity, bliss, prosperity, contentment, well-being, welfare.
Harass, distress, perplex, weary, tire out, worry, vex, fatigue.
Hard, firm, solid, flinty, unfeeling, harsh, cruel, difficult, arduous.
Hardihood, audacity, imprudence, effrontery.
Hardy, manly, manful, masculine, vigorous, courageous, brave, heroic, intrepid, stout, strong, firm.
Harm, evil, ill, misfortune, mischief, mishap, injury, hurt.
Harmonious, symphonious, consonous, accordant.
Harsh, rough, severe, rigorous, gruff, rugged, blunt, grating, jarring, sour.
Hasty, quick, precipitate, rash, excitable, hot, fiery, passionate, angry, cursory, slight.
Hate, detest, abominate, abhor, loathe, dislike.
Hateful, odious, detestable, execrable, abominable, loathsome, repulsive.
Haughtiness, arrogance, vanity, pride.
Hazard, *v.*, peril, imperil, jeopardize, risk, dare, adventure, conjecture.
Headstrong, obstinate, dogged, stubborn, forward, venturesome.
Heal, cure, remedy, reconcile.
Healthy, hearty, hale, sound, strong, wholesome.
Heap, pile, amass, accumulate.
Hearty, hale, healthy, sound, strong, heart-felt, warm, cordial, sincere.
Heavenly, celestial, divine, seraphic, angelic.
Heavy, weighty, massive, dull, drowsy, insipid.
Height, top, crisis, acme, apex, climax, zenith.
Heighten, amplify, exaggerate, raise, enhance, increase.
Help, *v.*, aid, assist, coöperate, succor, relieve, serve.
Hesitate, falter, pause, demur, scruple.
Hide, *v.*, conceal, disguise, secrete, cover, screen.
Hide, *n.*, skin, rind, peel, bark.
Hideous, ghastly, grim, grisly, frightful, horrible, ugly.
High, tall, lofty, elevated, proud, conceited.
Highly, greatly, exceedingly, immeasurably, preëminently.
Hilarity, mirth, glee, jollity, merriment, joviality.
Hinder, thwart, retard, stop, prevent, impede, obstruct.
Hint, *v.*, suggest, allude to, refer to, glance at, intimate, insinuate.
Hit, strike, dash, beat, thump.
Hold, have, possess, keep, detain, retain.
Holy, sacred, pious, devout, religious, divine.
Homage, respect, deference, honor, veneration.
Home, dwelling, house, domicile, residence, abode.
Honest, upright, honorable, conscientious, virtuous.
Honesty, integrity, purity, probity, sincerity, veracity, virtue, justice.
Honor, *v.*, reverence, revere, venerate, respect, dignify, exalt.
Horrible, fearful, dreadful, dire, direful, frightful, terrible, terrific, horrid.
Hot, ardent, fervent, fiery, burning, glowing, intense, passionate.
Huge, vast, enormous, large, great, prodigious, immense, gigantic, colossal.
Humanity, kindness, benevolence, philanthropy, tenderness, sensibility.
Humble, *v.*, lower, debase, degrade, disgrace, humiliate.
Humble, *a.*, lowly, modest, submissive, unpretending, unassuming.
Humiliation, fall, abasement, degradation, degeneracy.
Hurry, *v.*, hasten, speed, expedite, precipitate.
Hurt, *n.*, harm, injury, damage, mischief.
Hurt, *v.*, annoy, grieve, vex, wound.
Hurtful, pernicious, baneful, deleterious, noxious, detrimental, prejudicial.

IDEA, imagination, conception, notion, thought, sentiment, impression.
Ideal, fanciful, imaginary, imaginative.
Identical, same, self-same, particular.
Idle, lazy, indolent, inactive, unemployed.
Ignorant, unlearned, illiterate, unlettered, uninformed, uneducated.
Ill, *n.*, evil, wickedness, misfortune, mischief, harm.
Ill, *a.*, sick, indisposed, unwell, diseased.
Illimitable, boundless, limitless, measureless, immeasurable, unlimited, infinite.
Illiterate, unlettered, unlearned, untaught, uninstructed.
Illness, sickness, indisposition, disease, disorder, malady, ailment.
Illusion, fallacy, deception, phantasm.
Illustrate, explain, elucidate, clear.
Illustrious, celebrated, glorious, noble, eminent, distinguished, famous, renowned.
Imbibe, absorb, swallow up, take in, engulf, consume.
Imbolden, inspirit, animate, encourage, incite.
Imitate, copy, ape, mimic, mock, counterfeit.
Immediately, instantly, forthwith, directly, instanter, presently, straightway.
Immense, vast, enormous, huge, prodigious, monstrous, immeasurable
Immunity, privilege, perogative, exemption.
Immure, confine, shut up, imprison.
Impair, injure, diminish, decrease.
Impart, communicate, reveal, divulge, disclose, discover, give, bestow afford.
Impeach, accuse, charge, arraign, censure.
Impede, hinder, retard, obstruct, prevent.
Impel, animate, actuate, induce, move, incite, inspirit, instigate, encourage, imbolden.
Imperative, commanding, dictatorial, authoritative, despotic, peremptory.

Imperil, peril, endanger, hazard, jeopardize.
Imperious, commanding, dictatorial, authoritative, imperative, lordly, overbearing, domineering.
Impertinent, intrusive, meddling, officious, rude, saucy, impudent, insolent.
Impervious, unpassable, impassable, inaccessible, impenetrable.
Impetuous, violent, boisterous, furious, vehement, rapid.
Impious, profane, irreligious, godless.
Implicate, involve, entangle, embarrass, compromise.
Imply, involve, comprise, infold, import, denote, signify.
Importance, signification, significance, avail, consequence, weight, gravity, moment.
Impose, put, place, set, fix, lay.
Imposing, impressive, striking, majestic, august, noble, grand.
Impotence, weakness, incapacity, infirmity, frailty, feebleness.
Impotent, weak, feeble, helpless, enfeebled, nerveless, infirm.
Impress, *v.*, engrave, stamp, print, fix, instil, inculcate.
Impression, feeling, sentiment, sensation, susceptibility, stamp, edition.
Impressive, stirring, forcible, exciting, affecting, moving.
Imprison, incarcerate, shut up, immure, confine.
Imprisonment, incarceration, captivity, durance, confinement.
Improve, amend, better, mend, reform, rectify, ameliorate, apply, use, employ.
Improvident, careless, incautious, imprudent, prodigal, wasteful, reckless, rash.
Impudence, assurance, impertinence, confidence, insolence, rudeness.
Impudent, saucy, brazen, bold, impertinent, forward, rude, insolent, immodest, shameless.
Impugn, gainsay, oppose, attack, assail.
Impulse, incentive, incitement, motive, instigation.
Impulsive, rash, hasty, forcible, violent.
Imputation, blame, censure, reproach, charge, accusation.
Inability, weakness, impotence, incapacity, incapability.
Inadvertency, error, oversight, blunder, inattention, carelessness, negligence.
Incapable, unable, inadequate, incompetent, insufficient, unfit.
Incapacity, disability, incapability, inability, incompetency.
Incentive, motive, inducement, impulse.
Incite, instigate, excite, provoke, stimulate, encourage, urge, impel.
Inclination, leaning, slope, disposition, tendency, bent, bias, affection, attachment, wish, liking, desire.
Incline, *v.*, slope, lean, slant, tend, bend, turn, bias, dispose.
Inclose, surround, shut in, fence in, cover, wrap.
Include, comprehend, comprise, contain, embrace, take in, hold.
Incommode, annoy, plague, molest, disturb, inconvenience, trouble.
Incompetent, incapable, unable, inadequate, insufficient.
Increase, *v.*, extend, enlarge, augment, dilate, expand, amplify, raise, enhance, aggravate, magnify, grow.
Increase, *n.*, augmentation, accession, addition, enlargement, extension.
Incumbent, obligatory, morally necessitated.
Indefinite, vague, uncertain, unsettled, loose, lax.
Indicate, point out, show, mark.
Indifference, apathy, carelessness, listlessness, insensibility.
Indigence, want, neediness, penury, poverty, destitution, privation.
Indignation, anger, wrath, ire, resentment.
Indignity, insult, affront, outrage, obloquy, opprobrium, reproach, ignominy.
Indiscriminate, promiscuous, chance, indistinct, confused.
Indispensable, essential, necessary, requisite, expedient.
Indisputable, undeniable, undoubted, incontestable, indubitable, unquestionable, sure, infallible.
Indulge, foster, cherish, fondle.
Ineffectual, vain, useless, unavailing, fruitless, abortive, ineffective, inoperative.
Inequality, disparity, disproportion, dissimilarity, unevenness, protuberance, prominence.
Inevitable, unavoidable, not to be avoided, certain.
Infamous, scandalous, shameful, ignominious, opprobrious, disgraceful.
Inference, deduction, corollary, conclusion, consequence.
Infernal, diabolical, fiendish, devilish, hellish.
Infest, annoy, plague, harass, disturb.
Infirm, weak, feeble, enfeebled.
Inflame, anger, irritate, enrage, chafe, incense, nettle, aggravate, imbitter, exasperate.
Influence, *v.*, bias, sway, prejudice, prepossess.
Influence, *n.*, credit, favor, reputation, character, weight, authority sway, ascendency.
Infraction, infringement, encroachment, invasion, intrusion, contravention, breach.
Infringe, invade, intrude, contravene, break, transgress, violate.
Ingenuous, artless, candid, generous, open, frank, plain, sincere.
Inhuman, cruel, brutal, savage, barbarous, ruthless, merciless, ferocious.
Iniquity, injustice, wrong, grievance.
Injure, damage, hurt, deteriorate, wrong, aggrieve, harm, spoil, marsully.
Injurious, hurtful, baneful, pernicious, deleterious, noxious, prejudicial, wrongful, damaging.
Injustice, wrong, iniquity, grievance.
Inlet, entrance, entry, ingress.
Innocent, guiltless, sinless, harmless, inoffensive, innoxious.
Inordinate, intemperate, irregular, disorderly, excessive, immoderate.
Inquiry, investigation, examination, research, scrutiny, disquisition question, query, interrogation.
Inquisitive, prying, peeping, curious, peering.
Insane, mad, deranged, delirious, demented.
Insanity, madness, mental aberration, lunacy, delirium.
Insinuate, hint, intimate, suggest, infuse, introduce, ingratiate.
Insipid, dull, flat, mawkish, tasteless, vapid, inanimate, lifeless.
Insnare, entrap, decoy, allure, net, enmesh, entoil, entangle, inveigle
Insolent, rude, saucy, pert, impertinent, abusive, scurrilous, opprobrious, insulting, offensive, outrageous.
Inspire, animate, exhilarate, enliven, cheer, breathe, inhale.
Instability, mutability, fickleness, mutableness, wavering.
Instigate, stir up, persuade, animate, incite, urge, stimulate, encourage.
Instil, implant, inculcate, infuse, insinuate.
Institute, establish, found, erect, begin, form, organize, prescribe.
Instruct, inform, teach, educate, enlighten, initiate.
Instrumental, conducive, assistant, helping, ministerial.
Insufficiency, inadequacy, incompetency, incapability, deficiency lack.
Insult, affront, outrage, indignity, blasphemy.
Insulting, insolent, rude, saucy, impertinent, impudent, abusive.
Integrity, uprightness, honesty, probity, entirety, entireness, completeness, rectitude, purity.
Intellect, understanding, sense, brains, mind, intelligence, ability, talent, genius.
Intellectual, mental, ideal, metaphysical.
Intelligible, clear, obvious, plain, distinct.
Intemperate, immoderate, excessive, drunken, nimious, inordinate.
Intense, ardent, earnest, glowing, fervid, burning, vehement, strained, forced, excessive, extreme.
Intent, design, purpose, intention, drift, view, aim, purport, meaning
Intercourse, commerce, connection, intimacy, acquaintance.
Interdict, forbid, prohibit, inhibit, proscribe, debar, restrain from.
Interfere, meddle, intermeddle, interpose.
Interminable, endless, interminate, infinite, unlimited, illimitable, boundless, limitless.
Interpose, intercede, arbitrate, mediate, interfere, meddle.
Interpret, explain, expound, elucidate, unfold, decipher.
Intimate, hint, suggest, insinuate, express, signify, impart, tell.
Intimidate, dishearten, alarm, frighten, affright, scare, appall, daunt cow, quail, browbeat.
Intolerable, insufferable, unbearable, insupportable, unendurable.
Intrepid, bold, brave, daring, fearless, dauntless, undaunted, courageous, valorous, valiant, heroic, gallant, chivalrous, doughty.
Intrigue, plot, conspiracy, combination, artifice, ruse, *amour*.
Intrinsic, real, true, genuine, sterling, native, natural.
Inure, habituate, use, train, accustom, familiarize.
Invalidate, quash, cancel, overthrow, vacate, nullify, annul.

Invective, abuse, reproach, railing, censure, sarcasm, satire.
Inveterate, confirmed, chronic, malignant.
Invidious, envious, hateful, odious, malignant.
Invincible, unconquerable, impregnable, insuperable, insurmountable.
Invisible, unseen, imperceptible, impalpable, unperceivable.
Involve, implicate, entangle, compromise, envelop.
Ire, rage, anger, wrath, indignation, passion.
Irksome, wearisome, burdensome, tiresome, tedious, troublesome, vexatious, annoying.
Irony, sarcasm, satire, ridicule, raillery.
Irrational, foolish, silly, imbecile, brutish, unreasonable, absurd, preposterous, ridiculous.
Irreligious, profane, godless, impious, sacrilegious, desecrating.
Irreproachable, blameless, spotless, irreprovable, unblemished.
Irresistible, resistless, opposeless, irrepressible.
Irresolute, wavering, undetermined, undecided, vacillating.
Irritable, excitable, irascible, susceptible, sensitive.
Irritate, aggravate, worry, provoke, imbitter, madden, exasperate, displease.
Issue, *n.*, end, conclusion, upshot, effect, consequence, result, offspring, progeny, children.

JARRING, conflicting, discordant, inconsonant, irreconcilable, inconsistent, incompatible.
Jeer, sneer, scoff, mock.
Jeopardize, imperil, hazard, endanger.
Jocose, jocular, jolly, facetious, witty, pleasant.
Join, accompany, go with, add, unite, append, adjoin, combine, confederate, league, band.
Journey, travel, tour, trip, excursion, voyage.
Joy, delight, gladness, charm, pleasure, ecstacy, rapture, transport.
Judgment, discernment, discrimination, sagacity, intelligence, sentence, decision, order, award.
Juicy, succulent, bibulous, spongy.
Junction, union, alliance, connection, confederacy, combination.
Juncture, contact, touch, conjuncture, crisis.
Just, right, proper, fare, equitable, impartial.
Justify, excuse, clear, exonerate, defend, absolve.
Juvenile, young, youthful, boyish, infantile, childish.

KEEN, sharp, acute, penetrating, cutting, biting, stinging, sarcastic, satirical.
Keep, retain, hold, detain, preserve, maintain, sustain, hinder.
Kill, murder, assassinate, slay, massacre, butcher.
Kind, *a.*, thoughtful, affable, gentle, meek, tender, good, gracious, compassionate, indulgent, forbearing.
Kindle, ignite, enkindle, awaken, arouse, stir up, excite.
Kingly, royal, imperial, regal, sovereign.
Knowledge, learning, scholarship, acquirements, attainments.

LABOR, work, task, toil, exertion.
Labored, elaborate, hard-wrought, studied.
Laborious, hard-working, industrious, diligent, assiduous, active, toilsome, wearisome.
Lack, want, need, require.
Laconic, short, brief, concise, curt.
Lament, grieve, mourn, regret, bewail, deplore, bemoan.
Language, speech, tongue, dialect, phraseology.
Languid, weak, faint, drooping, pining.
Lank, lean, thin, skinny, meagre, scraggy.
Lassitude, weariness, fatigue, languor.
Lasting, durable, abiding, permanent, perpetual.
Latent, hidden, secret, occult, inscrutable.
Laud, praise, command, applaud, extol, magnify, eulogize.
Lavish, profuse, extravagant, prodigal.
Lax, loose, vague, dissolute, licentious.
Lazy, idle, indolent, slothful, sluggish, inactive.
Lead, conduct, guide, direct, induce, persuade, influence.
Leader, chief, director, head, guide.
Lean, *a.*, thin, scraggy, lank, skinny.
Lean, *v.*, incline, tend, bend, slope.
Leave, *v.*, quit, relinquish, renounce, give up, retire.
Legend, fable, myth, memoir, annal, chronicle.
Legitimate, legal, lawful, genuine, fair.
Lengthen, extend, elongate, protract, prolong.
Lessen, abate, diminish, decrease, lower, subside.
Level, even, plain, smooth, flat.
Levity, giddiness, lightness, flightiness.
Liberal, generous, bountiful, bounteous, munificent, plentiful.
Liberty, leave, license, permission, freedom.
Licentious, loose, lax, dissolute, rakish, unbridled.
Lie, untruth, falsehood, falsity, fabrication, fiction, invention, story.
Life, animation, vivacity, buoyancy, spirits, history, career, existence.
Likelihood, probability, appearance.
Likeness, picture, image, effigy, *carte de visite*, resemblance, similarity, representation, similitude.
Limit, *n.*, extent, boundary, bound, border.
Limpid, clear, transparent.
Linger, tarry, loiter, wait, lag, saunter.
Link, tie, bind, join, chain.
Liquidate, clear off, extinguish, pay off, lessen, discharge.
List, roll, roster, catalogue, register, inventory.
Listless, indifferent, indolent, careless.
Literal, actual, real, positive, true.
Little, small, diminutive, dwarf.
Lively, active, brisk, quick, sprightly, prompt, buoyant, racy, vivacious.
Loathe, dislike, nauseate, abhor, detest, abominate.
Lofty, high, tall, elevated, exalted.
Loiter, wait, linger, tarry, saunter.
Look, *n.*, manner, appearance, aspect, feature, glance, peep.
Look, *v.*, see, witness, view, eye, inspect.
Loquacity, talkativeness, volubility, glibness, babbling.
Lot, destiny, fate, future, doom.
Loud, noisy, clamorous, vociferous, blustering, riotous, turbulent, tumultuous.
Love, endearment, affection, attachment, fondness.
Lovely, charming, amiable, delightful.
Lover, suitor, wooer, sweetheart.
Loyalty, allegiance, fealty.
Luck, chance, fortune, accident.
Luckless, hapless, unlucky, unprosperous, unfortunate.
Lucre, gain, profit, emolument, money.
Ludicrous, laughable, ridiculous, comic, droll, odd, silly.
Lurid, gloomy, murky, lowering.
Luscious, honeyed, sweet, mellifluous.
Lustre, splendor, brightness, brilliancy, effulgence, refulgence.
Lusty, stout, strong, able-bodied, stalwart, robust, muscular, brawny.
Luxuriant, overflowing, exuberant, superfluous, redundant, abundant.

MACHINATION, stratagem, cheat, imposture, fraud, trick.
Mad, wild, frantic, distracted, furious, rabid.
Madden, irritate, enrage, exasperate.
Madness, mental aberration, insanity, lunacy, mania, frenzy, rage, fury.
Magnanimous, august, dignified, noble, exalted, lofty.
Magnificence, splendor, grandeur, gorgeousness, pomp.
Magnify, enlarge, extol, applaud, laud.
Magnitude, greatness, bigness, size, bulk.
Main, chief, principal, leading, first.
Maintain, assert, vindicate, hold, support, sustain.
Majestic, dignified, noble, stately, pompous, splendid, grand.
Make, create, form, produce, mould, shape.
Malediction, curse, imprecation, denunciation, anathema.
Malefactor, criminal, culprit, felon, convict.
Malice, spite, rancor, ill-feeling, grudge, pique, animosity, ill-will.
Malicious, virulent, malignant, wicked.
Manage, contrive, concert, direct.
Management, direction, superintendence, care, economy.
Mangle, tear, lacerate, mutilate, cripple, maim.
Manifest, *v.*, reveal, prove, evince, exhibit, display, show.
Manifest, *a.*, clear, plain, evident, open, apparent, visible, obvious.
Manly, masculine, hardy, vigorous, courageous, brave, heroic, fearless.
Manners, morals, habits, behavior, carriage.

Many, numerous, several, sundry, divers, various, manifold
Mar, spoil, ruin, disfigure.
March, tramp, tread, walk, step, space.
Margin, edge, rim, border, brink, verge.
Mark, *n.*, sign, note, symptom, token, indication, trace, vestige, track, badge, brand.
Mark, *v.*, impress, print, stamp, engrave, note, notice, remark, show, point out, indicate.
Marriage, wedding, nuptials, matrimony, wedlock.
Martial, military, warlike, soldier-like.
Marvel, wonder, miracle, prodigy.
Marvellous, wondrous, wonderful, amazing, miraculous.
Masculine, manly, virile, hardy, vigorous, brave, courageous.
Massive, massy, bulky, heavy, weighty, ponderous.
Masterly, skilful, clever, expert, dexterous, adroit.
Masterly, dominion, rule, sway, ascendency, supremacy.
Matchless, unrivalled, unequalled, unparalleled, peerless, incomparable, inimitable, surpassing, unique.
Material, *a.*, corporeal, bodily, physical, temporal, momentous.
Matrimony, marriage, wedlock, wedding, nuptials, espousals.
Mature, ripe, ready, mellow, perfect, fit.
Maxim, adage, apophthegm, proverb, saying, by-word, saw.
Meagre, poor, lank, emaciated, barren, dry, uninteresting.
Mean, *a.*, stingy, niggardly, low, abject, vile, ignoble, degraded, contemptible, vulgar, despicable.
Mean, *v.*, design, purpose, intent, contemplate, signify, denote, indicate.
Meaning, signification, import, acceptation, sense, purport.
Medium, mediocrity, organ, channel, instrument, means.
Medley, mixture, variety, diversity, miscellany.
Meek, unassuming, mild, gentle.
Melancholy, low-spirited, dispirited, dreamy, sad.
Mellow, ripe, mature, soft.
Melodious, tuneful, musical, silver, dulcet, sweet.
Melt, liquefy, fuse, dissolve, moisten.
Memoir, narrative, chronicle, legend, life, history.
Memorable, signal, distinguished, marked.
Memorial, monument, memento, commemoration.
Memory, remembrance, recollection.
Menace, *n.*, threat, threatening, commination.
Mend, amend, correct, better, ameliorate, improve, rectify.
Mention, tell, name, communicate, impart, divulge, reveal, disclose, inform, acquaint.
Merchandise, goods, wares, commerce, traffic.
Merciful, compassionate, lenient, clement, tender, gracious, kind.
Merciless, hard-hearted, cruel, unmerciful, pitiless, remorseless, unrelenting.
Mercy, lenity, mildness, clemency, compassion, pity.
Merited, deserved, condign, suitable, adequate, proper.
Merriment, mirth, joviality, jollity, hilarity.
Merry, cheerful, mirthful, joyous, gay, lively, sprightly, hilarious, blithe, blithesome, jovial, sportive, jolly.
Metaphorical, figurative, allegorical, symbolical.
Method, way, manner, mode, process, order, rule, regularity, system.
Mien, air, look, manner, aspect, appearance.
Migratory, roving, strolling, wandering, vagrant.
Mimic, imitate, ape, mock.
Mindful, observant, attentive, heedful, thoughtful.
Mingle, mix, blend, compound, amalgamate.
Minute, circumstantial, particular.
Mirth, joy, merriment, gladness, festivity, joviality, hilarity, cheerfulness, vivacity, gayety, fun, jollity.
Misapprehension, misconception, misunderstanding, mistake, error.
Miscellaneous, promiscuous, indiscriminate, mixed.
Miscellany, medley, diversity, variety, mixture, hotchpotch.
Mischief, injury, harm, damage, hurt, evil, ill.
Misconception, misapprehension, misunderstanding, mistake.
Miscreant, caitiff, villain, ruffian.
Miserable, unhappy, wretched, distressed, afflicted.
Miserly, stingy, niggardly, avaricious, griping.
Misery, wretchedness, woe, destitution, penury, privation, beggary.
Misfortune, calamity, disaster, mishap, catastrophe.
Misguide, mislead, dazzle, beguile, deceive.
Miss, omit, lose, fail, miscarry.
Mistake, *n.*, error, blunder, delusion, misapprehension, misunderstanding.
Misuse, *n.*, abuse, perversion, maltreatment.
Mitigate, alleviate, relieve, abate, diminish.
Moderate, temperate, abstemious, sober, abstinent.
Moderation, temperance, sobriety, abstemiousness.
Modest, chaste, virtuous, bashful, reserved.
Moist, wet, damp, dank, humid.
Molest, annoy, incommode, discommode, incommodate, vex, tease, disturb.
Momentous, important, significant, weighty.
Monotonous, unvaried, dull, tiresome, undiversified.
Monstrous, shocking, dreadful, horrible, huge, immense.
Monument, memorial, record, remembrancer, cenotaph.
Mood, humor, disposition, vein, temper.
Morass, bog, quagmire, slough, marsh, fen, swamp.
Morbid, sick, ailing, sickly, diseased, corrupted.
Morose, gloomy, sullen, surly, fretful, crabbed, crusty.
Mortify, vex, chagrin, grieve, hurt, afflict, annoy.
Motion, proposition, proposal, movement, change, action.
Motionless, still, stationary, torpid, stagnant.
Motive, cause, reason, principle, inducement, incentive, impulse, spur, stimulus.
Mount, arise, rise, ascend, soar, tower, climb, scale, embellish.
Mournful, sad, sorrowful, lugubrious, grievous, doleful, heavy.
Move, actuate, impel, induce, prompt, instigate, persuade, stir, agitate, propel, push.
Moving, affecting, touching, pathetic, melting.
Multifarious, divers, many, manifold.
Multitude, crowd, throng, host, mob, swarm.
Munificent, bounteous, bountiful, generous, liberal.
Murder, *v.*, kill, assassinate, slay, massacre, despatch.
Murky, dark, dusky, dim, cloudy, misty, shadowy.
Muse, *v.*, meditate, contemplate, think, reflect, cogitate, ponder.
Music, harmony, melody, symphony.
Musical, tuneful, melodious, harmonious, dulcet, sweet.
Musty, stale, sour, fetid.
Mutable, inconstant, unsteadfast, unstable, fickle, alterable, restless, fitful, variable, changeable, unsteady, undecided.
Mute, dumb, silent, speechless.
Mutilate, maim, cripple, disable, disfigure.
Mutinous, insurgent, seditious, tumultuous, turbulent, riotous.
Mysterious, dark, obscure, hidden, secret, dim, mystic, enigmatical, unaccountable.
Mystify, confuse, perplex, puzzle.

NAKED, nude, bare, uncovered, unclothed, rough, rude, simple.
Name, *v.*, denominate, entitle, intitule, style, designate, term, call, christen, specify.
Name, *n.*, appellation, designation, denomination, title, cognomen, reputation, character, fame, credit, repute.
Narrate, tell, relate, detail, recount, describe, enumerate, rehearse, recite.
Nasty, filthy, foul, dirty, unclean, impure, indecent, gross, vile.
Nation, people, community, realm, state.
Native, real, genuine, indigenous, vernacular, mother.
Natural, original, regular, normal, bastard.
Near, nigh, neighboring, close, adjacent, contiguous, intimate.
Necessary, needful, expedient, essential, requisite, indispensable.
Necessitate, *v.*, compel, force, oblige.
Necessity, need, occasion, exigency, emergency, urgency, requisite.
Need, *n.*, necessity, distress, poverty, indigence, want, penury.
Need, *v.*, require, want, lack.
Neglect, *v.*, disregard, slight, omit, overlook.
Neglect, *n.*, omission, failure, default, negligence, remissness, carelessness, slight.
Neighborhood, environs, vicinity, nearness, adjacency, proximity.
Nerveless, feeble, impuissant, weak, forceless, enfeebled, debilitated enervated, impotent, paralyzed, palsied.
Nervous, timid, timorous, shaky.

Neutralize, counterbalance, counteract.
News, tidings, intelligence, information.
Nice, exact, accurate, good, particular, precise, fine, delicate.
Niggardly, miserly, griping, stingy, penurious, saving, greedy.
Nimble, active, brisk, lively, alert, quick, agile, prompt, sprightly.
Noble, exalted, elevated, dignified, illustrious, great, grand, stately, lofty.
Nocturnal, nightly, gloomy, dark.
Noise, cry, outcry, clamor, row, din, uproar, tumult.
Nonsensical, irrational, absurd, preposterous, silly, foolish.
Notable, plain, evident, remarkable, signal, memorable, striking, rare.
Note, *n.*, token, symbol, mark, sign, indication, remark, observation, comment, memorandum.
Noted, distinguished, remarkable, eminent, celebrated, renowned, well known, famous.
Notice, *n.*, advice, notification, intelligence, information, warning.
Notice, *v.*, mark, note, observe, attend to, regard, heed.
Noticeable, striking, observable, remarkable.
Notification, notice, declaration, publication, intelligence, information.
Notify, publish, acquaint, communicate, apprise, inform, declare.
Notion, conception, idea, belief, opinion, sentiment, impression, conviction.
Notorious, noted, well known, renowned, famous.
Novel, modern, new, fresh, recent, unused, strange, uncommon, rare.
Noxious, hurtful, deadly, poisonous, deleterious, baneful.
Nullify, annul, vacate, invalidate, quash, cancel, repeal.
Number, *v.*, calculate, compute, estimate, reckon, count, enumerate.
Number, *n.*, multitude, many, throng, crowd, swarm, host, figure, numeral.
Numerous, many, sundry, various, several.
Nurture, nurse, cherish, nourish, foster, supply.
Nutrition, food, diet, nutriment, nourishment.

OBDURATE, hard, callous, hardened, unbending, graceless, unfeeling, insensible, insusceptible.
Obedient, compliant, submissive, dutiful, respectful.
Obese, corpulent, fat, adipose, fleshy.
Object, *n.*, aim, end, purpose, design, mark, butt.
Object, *v.*, oppose, except to, contravene, impeach, deprecate.
Oblige, compel, bind, engage, coerce, constrain, force, impel, accommodate.
Obliterate, erase, blot out, expunge, efface.
Obloquy, odium, reproach, censure, abuse, scurrility, opprobrium, shame.
Obnoxious, hateful, offensive, liable, exposed, unpopular.
Obscure, *a.*, dim, misty, cloudy, shadowy, dusky, dark, gloomy, indistinct, unknown, humble, unintelligible.
Observance, form, etiquette, ceremony, solemnity, rite, celebration.
Observant, watchful, mindful, attentive, heedful.
Observe, keep, fulfil, heed, obey, perform, notice, remark, watch.
Obsolete, disused, antiquated, old-fashioned, ancient, old, neglected.
Obstacle, difficulty, impediment, stumbling-block, barrier, hindrance, obstruction.
Obstruct, hinder, prevent, impede, bar, clog, barricade, choke, interrupt.
Obtain, acquire, attain, secure, achieve, gain, get, procure, win, earn.
Obtuse, stolid, heavy-headed, dull, stupid, unintelligent.
Obviate, prevent, preclude, hinder, provide against.
Obvious, clear, plain, evident, manifest, open, apparent, visible, patent.
Occult, secret, hidden, unknown, invisible, dark, mysterious.
Occupation, occupancy, profession, holding, tenure, business, trade, avocation, calling, engagement, office, pursuit.
Odd, singular, eccentric, strange, extraordinary, whimsical, comical, droll, uneven.
Odious, hateful, loathsome, execrable, detestable, abominable, disgusting, repulsive.
Odor, smell, scent, perfume, fragrance.
Offence, affront, insult, outrage, indignity, misdeed, trespass, transgression, wrong, misdemeanor, injustice.
Offend, displease, vex, nettle, irritate, shock, transgress, err.
Offensive, insulting, rude, saucy, impertinent, distasteful, obnoxious, opprobrious.
Offer, present, bid, tender, proffer, extend, propose, volunteer.
Officious, obtrusive, busy, interfering, meddling.
Offspring, issue, progeny, descendants, children.
Old, aged, elderly, senile, ancient, antique, antiquated, obsolete.
Omission, oversight, failure, neglect, default.
Omit, leave out, miss, overlook.
Onerous, responsible, burdensome, heavy, laborious, oppressive, toilsome.
Only, singly, alone, solely, merely, barely, simply, exclusively.
Opaque, untransparent, dull, dark, cloudy.
Open, *a.*, candid, frank, unreserved, free, ingenuous, sincere, unaffected genuine, undisguised, unfolded.
Open, *v.*, unclose, unlock, unseal, exhibit, dissolve, spread, expand begin.
Operate, act, do, make, work, labor.
Operation, action, agency, instrumentality, force, effort, enterprise.
Operative, stringent, effective, serviceable, binding.
Opportunity, occasion, chance, fit opening.
Oppose, combat, bar, hinder, resist, withstand, contradict.
Opposite, adverse, diverse, contrary, hostile, antagonistic, repugnant incompatible, inconsistent, paradoxical, facing.
Opprobrious, abusive, scurrilous, insulting, offensive, outrageous shameful.
Opprobrium, disgrace, odium, infamy, ignominy, obloquy.
Option, choice, preference, election.
Opulent, wealthy, rich, affluent, moneyed.
Oral, verbal, spoken, parole.
Oration, address, speech, harangue, discourse.
Orderly, regular, systematic, methodic, methodical, quiet, peaceable.
Ordinance, decree, law, statute, edict, regulation.
Ordinary, common, vulgar, plain, customary, settled, wonted, conventional, habitual, usual.
Organization, structure, form, instrumentality, construction.
Origin, commencement, original, beginning, rise, source, spring cause.
Original, first, primary, pristine, primeval, peculiar, odd.
Originate, create, form, spring, ooze, issue, proceed, begin.
Ornament, *n.*, embellishment, adornment, decoration.
Over, above, upon, across, more than.
Overawe, daunt, intimidate, affright, cow.
Overbearing, bullying, blustering, imperious, lordly, domineering.
Overcharge, oppress, overload, surcharge, surfeit.
Overlook, inspect, survey, excuse, forgive, pardon, neglect, miss.
Overplus, excess, surplus, surplusage.
Overreach, cheat, outwit, circumvent, cozen, gull, dupe, defraud.
Oversight, inadvertence, inattention, neglect, mistake, error, omission, inspection, superintendence.
Overt, open, public, notorious, manifest, patent.
Overture, proposal, offer, invitation, resolution.
Own, *v.*, acknowledge, admit, confess, recognize, have, possess.
Owner, proprietor, possessor, master, holder.

PACIFIC, peaceful, peaceable, mild, gentle, calm, quiet, conciliatory.
Pacify, appease, calm, quiet, still.
Pain, *n.*, anguish, agony, distress, suffering, pang, grief.
Pain, *v.*, agonize, rack, torment, torture.
Painful, afflicting, grievous, torturing.
Pair, two, couple, brace.
Palatable, tasteful, savory, appetizing.
Palate, taste, relish.
Pale, *a.*, pallid, wan, whitish, sallow, faint.
Palliate, extenuate, varnish, cover, allay, soothe, soften.
Palpable, clear, distinct, plain, obvious, evident.
Paltry, contemptible, pitiful, mean, sorry, despicable, shabby, beggarly.
Panegyric, eulogy, encomium, eulogium, praise.
Pang, throe, twinge, agony, anguish, pain, distress.
Paramount, supreme, principal, chief.
Pardon, forgive, absolve, overlook, excuse, remit, acquit, discharge set free, clear, liberate.

Parsimonious, stingy, niggardly, miserly.
Partial, biassed, prejudiced, limited, incomplete.
Participate, share, partake, join in.
Particle, jot, tittle, grain, atom.
Partition, *v.*, parcel, divide, apportion, distribute.
Partner, colleague, coadjutor, associate, sharer, confederate, spouse.
Partnership, union, connection, firm, house, association, company, companionship, society.
Party, faction, confederacy, combination, detachment, clique, league.
Passion, anger, rage, fury, vehemence, impetuosity, love, affection.
Passionate, hot, hasty, irritable, angry, excitable, fiery, vehement, impetuous, glowing, burning, ardent.
Passive, unresisting, unopposing, submissive, enduring, patient.
Pathetic, moving, touching, affecting, melting, tender.
Patience, resignation, endurance, fortitude.
Peculator, defaulter, delinquent, offender, thief.
Peculiar, appropriate, particular, exclusive, remarkable, signal, special, singular, uncommon.
Peevish, ill-natured, touchy, testy, captious, fractious, cross, fretful, petulant, cynical, irascible.
Pellucid, translucent, lucid, limpid, transparent, clear.
Penetrate, pierce, perforate, bore, fathom, reach.
Penetration, insight, sharpness, acuteness, sagacity, discernment, discrimination.
Penitence, contrition, repentance, remorse.
People, commonalty, populace, mob, mobility, nation, tribe, race.
Perception, seeing, sense, taste, perceptibility, sensibility, susceptibility, sensation, apprehension, conviction.
Percolate, filtrate, strain, filter, ooze.
Peremptory, absolute, positive, arbitrary, despotic, decisive, imperative.
Perennial, imperishable, undying, immortal, deathless, enduring, perpetual.
Perfect, complete, whole, entire, finished, unbroken, thorough, mature, ripe.
Perfume, odor, scent, fragrance, aroma, smell, incense.
Perhaps, perchance, possibly, peradventure.
Perish, decay, die, expire, dissolve.
Permanent, durable, abiding, enduring, lasting, fixed, stable, steadfast, constant.
Permission, permit, leave, liberty, license.
Permit, *v.*, admit, allow, let, consent, suffer, tolerate, license, warrant.
Pernicious, destructive, ruinous, baneful, deleterious, hurtful.
Perpetual, constant, continual, continuous, endless, eternal, lasting, incessant, ceaseless, unceasing, uninterrupted.
Perplex, embarrass, harass, confuse, bewilder, entangle, involve, puzzle.
Pestilential, contagious, infectious, epidemical, mischievous, pernicious, nocent, noxious, baneful, destructive, pestiferous, fatal, deadly.
Petition, prayer, supplication, entreaty, request, suit, appeal.
Petty, trifling, trivial, frivolous, insignificant, small, little.
Petulant, captious, fractious, cross, peevish, fretful, splenetic, excitable, ill-humored.
Philanthropic, charitable, kind, benevolent, gracious, benignant.
Phlegmatic, frigid, cold, heavy, unfeeling, apathetic.
Phrase, term, style, sentence, proposition, period, phraseology, diction.
Piercing, thrilling, ringing, clangous.
Piety, religion, sanctity, holiness, devotion, grace, godliness.
Pile, *v.*, heap, accumulate, hoard, amass, collect.
Pine, *v.*, flag, droop, languish, sink, fade, wither, decay, decline.
Pious, holy, godly, saintly, devout, religious.
Piquant, pungent, acrid, smart, keen, biting, harsh, stinging, cutting, racy.
Pique, spite, grude, umbrage, resentment.
Pithy, terse, concise, forcible, strong.
Pitiful, mean, paltry, sordid, contemptible, despicable.
Pity, *n.*, compassion, sympathy, condolence, mercy.
Plea, apology, defence, vindication, entreaty.
Plead, defend, vindicate, exonerate, justify, exculpate, excuse.
Pleasant, pleasing, agreeable, gratifying, satisfactory, delicious, exquisite, delightful, pleasurable, jocular, jocose, witty, smiling laughing.
Please, gratify, satisfy, content, delight, fascinate, indulge.
Pleasure, comfort, enjoyment, gratification, joy, delight, rapture, charm, wish.
Plight, *v.*, pledge, hypothecate, vow.
Plot, *v.*, concoct, hatch, frame, contrive, conspire.
Pluck, courage, mettle, spirit, nerve.
Plump, fleshy, round, fat, full, chubby.
Polite, refined, genteel, civil, accomplished, well-bred.
Politeness, gentility, civility, urbanity, courteousness, courtesy, affability.
Politic, political, civil, judicious, prudential.
Pomp, parade, display, gorgeousness, splendor, grandeur, pageantry, show, state.
Pompous, majestic, stately, grand, august, dignified, lofty, inflated, bombastic.
Portray, draw, sketch, paint, depict, delineate, represent, describe.
Praise, *n.*, approval, eulogy, commendation, applause, exaltation, honor.
Praise, *v.*, commend, extol, eulogize, panegyrize, laud, applaud, glorify.
Praiseworthy, laudable, honorable, commendable, meritorious, worthy.
Prank, frolic, gambol, freak, trick, escapade.
Precious, valuable, costly, dear, estimable.
Precipice, cliff, crag.
Precipitate, *v.*, hurry, hasten, cast down, expedite.
Precipitate, *a.*, hasty, hurried, rash, premature.
Predicament, situation, condition, state, plight, dilemma.
Predict, *v.*, foretell, prognosticate, prophesy, foreshadow.
Predilection, preference, partiality, bias, prejudice.
Predominant, prevailing, prevalent, ascendant, overruling.
Pregnant, prolific, teeming, replete, enceinte.
Prejudice, prepossession, bias, partiality, detriment, harm, hurt, damage.
Preliminary, prefatory, introductory, anterior, previous, antecedent.
Preponderate, *v.*, predominate, prevail, overbalance, outweigh, outbalance.
Prepossessing, charming, engaging, taking, attractive, winning.
Preposterous, irrational, foolish, absurd, ridiculous.
Prerogative, privilege, immunity, right, exemption.
Presage, foresee, predict, portend, augur, forebode, prognosticate, betoken, threaten.
Prescribe, appoint, ordain, dictate, decree, enjoin, impose, order.
Presumptuous, presuming, over-confident, forward, arrogant, bold rash, foolhardy.
Pretence, cloak, mask, garb, pretext, excuse, plea.
Pretend, feign, affect, simulate, profess.
Pride, arrogance, haughtiness, vanity, self-esteem, lordliness, conceit, loftiness, vainglory.
Principally, chiefly, essentially, mainly.
Principle, ground, reason, motive, impulse, maxim, rule, rectitude, integrity.
Print, *v.*, mark, impress, stamp, imprint.
Privilege, immunity, advantage, favor, prerogative, exemption, right, claim.
Probity, rectitude, uprightness, honesty, integrity, sincerity, soundness.
Problematical, uncertain, doubtful, dubious, questionable, disputable, suspicious.
Prodigious, huge, enormous, vast, amazing, astonishing, astounding, surprising, remarkable, wonderful, portentous.
Profession, business, trade, occupation, vocation, office, employment, engagement, avowal.
Proffer, volunteer, offer, propose, tender.
Profligate, abandoned, dissolute, depraved, vicious, degenerate, corrupt, demoralized.
Profound, deep, fathomless, penetrating, solemn, abstruse, recondite.
Profuse, extravagant, prodigal, lavish, improvident, excessive, copious, plentiful.
Project, shoot, discharge, throw, hurl, jut, protrude, bulge.
Prolific, productive, generative, fertile, fruitful teeming.

Prolix, diffuse, long, prolonged, tedious, tiresome, wordy, verbose, prosaic.
Prominent, eminent, conspicuous, marked, jutting, important, leading.
Promiscuous, mixed, unarranged, mingled, indiscriminate.
Prop, *v.*, maintain, sustain, support, stay.
Propagate, spread, circulate, diffuse, disseminate, extend, breed, increase.
Propensity, inclination, disposition, bias, proneness, tendency, bent, predilection, proclivity.
Proper, legitimate, right, just, fair, equitable, honest, suitable, fit, adapted, meet, becoming, befitting, decent, pertinent, appropriate.
Prosper, flourish, succeed, grow rich, thrive, advance.
Prosperity, well-being, weal, welfare, happiness, good luck.
Prostrate, oppressed, trampled on, abject, paralyzed.
Proverb, adage, maxim, aphorism, saying, byword, saw.
Proximate, next, immediate, nearest, closest.
Proximity, nearness, vicinity, neighborhood.
Proxy, agent, representative, substitute, delegate, deputy.
Prudence, carefulness, judgment, discretion, wisdom.
Prurient, itching, craving, hankering, longing.
Puerile, youthful, juvenile, boyish, childish, infantile, trifling, weak, silly.
Punctilious, trifling, nice, particular, formal, precise.
Punctual, exact, precise, nice, particular, prompt, timely.
Pungent, acrid, acrimonious, piquant, smart, keen, stinging.
Putrefy, rot, decompose, corrupt, decay.
Puzzle, *v.*, perplex, confound, embarrass, bewilder, confuse, pose, mystify.

QUACK, impostor, pretender, charlatan, empiric, mountebank.
Quaint, artful, curious, far-fetched, fanciful, odd, singular.
Querulous, complaining, fretting, repining.
Query, question, inquiry, interrogatory.
Quibble, cavil, evade, equivocate, shuffle, prevaricate.
Quick, lively, ready, prompt, alert, nimble, agile, active, brisk, expeditious, adroit, fleet, rapid, swift, impetuous, sweeping, dashing, clever, sharp.
Quote, note, repeat, cite, adduce.

RABID, mad, furious, raging, frantic.
Race, course, match, pursuit, career, family, clan, house, ancestry, lineage, pedigree.
Rack, agonize, wring, torture, excruciate, distress, harass.
Racy, spicy, pungent, smart, spirited, lively, vivacious.
Radiance, splendor, brightness, brilliance, brilliancy, lustre, glare.
Radical, organic, inpate, fundamental, original, constitutional, inherent, complete, entire.
Rancid, fetid, rank, stinking, sour, tainted, reasty.
Rancor, malignity, hatred, hostility, antipathy, animosity, enmity, ill-will, spite.
Range, *v.*, arrange, class, place, rank, wander, stroll, roam, ramble, rove, expatiate.
Rapacious, ravenous, voracious, greedy, grasping.
Rapidity, quickness, swiftness, speed, velocity, celerity, fleetness, activity, expedition, despatch.
Rapture, ecstacy, transport, delight, bliss.
Rational, reasonable, sagacious, judicious, wise, intellectual, sensible, sane, sound.
Raze, demolish, destroy, overthrow, ruin, dismantle.
Realize, accomplish, achieve, effect, gain, get, acquire.
Reciprocal, mutual, alternate, interchangeable.
Recompense, *n.*, indemnity, compensation, remuneration, requital, satisfaction, reward.
Record, *n.*, chronicle, register, note, trace, vestige, minute, memorandum.
Rectitude, justice, uprightness, integrity, virtue, equity.
Redundant, superfluous, unnecessary, excessive, luxuriant.
Refer, appeal, allude, advert, relate, belong.
Reformation, improvement, reform, amendment.
Refractory, unruly, perverse, ungovernable, obstinate, stubborn.
Regret, *n.*, grief, sorrow, lamentation, repentance, remorse.
Regular, orderly, methodic, systematical, uniform, unvaried, customary, ordinary. stated, periodical.
Reimburse, refund, repay, satisfy, indemnify.
Reiterate, repeat, reproduce, renew.
Relevant, fit, proper, suitable, appropriate, pertinent, apt.
Reliance, trust, hope, dependence, confidence.
Relief, succor, aid, help, redress, alleviation.
Relinquish, give up, forsake, resign, surrender, quit, leave, forego.
Remedial, healing, curative, mitigating, sanitary.
Remedy, help, relief, redress, cure, specific, reparation.
Remorseless, pitiless, relentless, cruel, ruthless, merciless, barbarous
Remote, distant, far, secluded, indirect.
Renown, distinction, reputation, fame, glory, celebrity.
Reproduce, propagate, imitate, represent, copy.
Reprove, chide, rebuke, reprimand, scold.
Repudiate, disown, discord, disavow, renounce, disclaim.
Repugnant, antagonistic, averse, adverse, hostile, unwilling.
Repulsive, forbidding, odious, ugly, disagreeable, revolting.
Reputable, creditable, estimable, honorable, respectable.
Respite, reprieve, interval, stop, pause.
Revel, feast, carouse, luxuriate, banquet, wallow.
Revenge, vengeance, retaliation, requital, retribution.
Revenue, produce, income, fruits, proceeds, wealth.
Reverence, *n.*, honor, respect, awe, veneration, deference, worship homage.
Revise, review, reconsider.
Revive, refresh, renew, renovate, animate, resuscitate, vivify, cheer, comfort.
Rich, wealthy, affluent, opulent, copious, ample, abundant, exuberant plentiful, fertile, fruitful, superb, gorgeous.
Rival, *n.*, antagonist, opponent, competitor.
Road, way, highway, route, course, path, pathway, anchorage.
Roam, ramble, rove, wander, stray, stroll.
Robust, strong, lusty, vigorous, sinewy, stout, sturdy, stalwart, able bodied.
Rout, *v.*, discomfit, beat, defeat, overthrow, scatter.
Route, road, course, march, way, journey, path, direction.
Rude, rugged, rough, uncouth, unpolished, harsh, gruff, impertinent, saucy, flippant, impudent, insolent, churlish.
Ruinous, destructive, hurtful, deleterious, baneful, wasteful.
Rule, sway, method, system, law, maxim, precept, guide, formula, regulation, government, standard, test.
Rumor, hearsay, talk, fame, report, bruit.
Ruthless, cruel, savage, barbarous, inhuman, merciless, remorseless, relentless, unrelenting.

SACRED, holy, hallowed, divine, consecrated, dedicated, devoted.
Sanction, confirm, countenance, encourage, support, ratify, authorize.
Sapient, sagacious, discerning, knowing, sage, wise.
Saturate, steep, soak, imbue.
Saucy, impertinent, rude, impudent, insolent, flippant, forward.
Savory, tasty, piquant, tasteful, palatable.
Scandalize, shock, disgust, offend, calumniate, vilify, revile, malign, traduce, defame, slander.
Scanty, bare, pinched, insufficient, slender, meagre.
Scatter, strew, spread, fling around, disseminate, disperse, dissipate, dispel.
Secret, clandestine, concealed, hidden, sly, underhand, latent, private.
Secular, worldly, temporal, civil, lay, profane.
Seditious, factious, tumultuous, turbulent, insurgent, mutinous, rebellious, incendiary.
Seduce, allure, attract, decoy, entice, abduct, inveigle, deprave.
Sensation, perception, apprehension, sentiment, feeling, impression.
Sense, discernment, appreciation, view, opinion, feeling, perception, sensibility, susceptibility, thought, judgment, signification, import, significance, meaning, purport, wisdom.
Sensibility, feeling, perception, sensitiveness, susceptibility.
Sensible, *a.*, wise, intelligent, reasonable, sober, sound, conscious aware.
Sensual, carnal, fleshly, voluptuous, animal.
Set, put, place, lay, arrange.
Settle, arrange, adjust, regulate, organize, conclude, determine, fix ratify, confirm.
Sever, break, disconnect, dissever, separate detach.

Share, portion, lot, division, quantity, quota, contingent.
Shock, *v.*, offend, disgust, appall, dismay, scare, stun, terrify.
Shudder, shake, tremble, quake, quiver.
Signalize, distinguish, exalt, dignify, immortalize.
Significant, expressive, indicative, important, momentous, weighty.
Signify, express, declare, intimate, imply, denote, mean.
Simple, silly, imbecile, foolish, elementary, unmixed, mere, plain, frank, open, shallow.
Sin, wrong, wickedness, iniquity, crime, ungodliness, evil.
Sincere, unvarnished, genuine, honest, unaffected, upright, true, plain, frank, candid, cordial.
Sinister, unfair, disingenuous, dishonest, bad, evil, left, unlucky.
Skulk, sneak, hide, cover, slink, shroud, shelter, veil.
Slight, *n.*, neglect, contempt, scorn, disdain.
Slippery, smooth, glossy, unsafe, deceptive, evasive.
Sly, cunning, astute, crafty, artful, subtle, wily, underhand.
Small, little, diminutive, minute, slight, trivial, slender.
Smart, quick, keen, brisk, sharp, caustic, severe, clever, witty, showy, spruce.
Smartness, acuteness, keenness, liveliness, dexterity, cleverness.
Sneer, *n.*, scoff, taunt, gibe, mock.
Snub, rebuke, reprimand, humiliate, nip, clip, dock.
Snug, close, compact, concealed, comfortable.
Solemn, grave, impressive, serious, formal, sacred, religious, devotional.
Solicitude, carefulness, concern, trouble, anxiety, care.
Soothe, soften, allay, appease, relieve, assuage, compose, calm, quiet, still, hush, lull, pacify, mitigate.
Sordid, earthly, selfish, mean, covetous, niggardly, greedy, close, dirty, foul, gross, vile, base.
Sorrow, affliction, distress, grief, trouble, sadness, mourning.
Speak, converse, say, tell, talk, discourse, utter, express.
Special, exceptionable, peculiar, specific, particular, distinctive.
Specify, particularize, state, designate, mention.
Spite, rancor, spleen, malice, malevolence, ill-will, grudge, pique, vindictiveness.
Splendid, magnificent, grand, brilliant, showy, superb, sumptuous, pompous, glorious, illustrious, signal.
Spread, extend, disperse, expand, diffuse, distribute, circulate, propagate, disseminate, unfurl.
Stable, *a.*, firm, established, solid, substantial, constant, staunch, steadfast, steady, fast, standing, permanent, perpetual.
Staff, mark, impress, impression, print, genus, kind, description, make, mould, type.
Station, standing, position, post, office, situation, state, rank, location.
Sterling, genuine, pure, unalloyed, unadulterated, sound, substantial.
Stimulate, spur, goad, animate, incite, encourage, impel, prompt, arouse, rouse.
Stingy, close, mean, niggardly, sparing.
Stipend, remuneration, allowance, pay, wages, salary, hire.
Stipulate, bargain, contract, agree on, engage, covenant.
Strengthen, fortify, reënforce, invigorate, consolidate, establish, substantiate.
Strenuous, vigorous, zealous, vehement, bold, ardent, strong, resolute.
Strong, forcible, cogent, powerful, fortified, potent, sturdy, stalwart, hale, robust, brawny, sinewy, athletic, hardy, firm.
Studious, diligent, thoughtful, careful, attentive, mindful.
Sturdy, robust, strong, stalwart, brawny, muscular.
Suavity, mildness, gentleness, urbanity, sweetness, pleasantness.
Subterfuge, evasion, shift, quirk, subtlety, artifice, dodge.
Subtile, fine, thin, rare, delicate, nice, acute, refined.
Subtle, cunning, crafty, astute, sly, wily, artful, shrewd.
Succumb, yield, submit, comply, resign, surrender, give in.
Suffrage, vote, voice.
Suggest, hint, allude, refer, intimate, insinuate, propose.
Sully, stain, tarnish, soil, spoil, blemish, mar, bedim, disgrace, dishonor.
Superficial, shallow, flimsy, slight, imperfect, external, outer.
Supine, indolent, sluggish, lazy, listless, dull, apathetic, torpid, inactive, careless.
Supple, lithe, flexible, pliant, bending, yielding, compliant.
Support, *v.*, sustain, prop, uphold, upbear, maintain, help, befriend, assist, countenance, patronize, favor, second, further, forward, promote, nurture, nourish, foster, cherish, endure, suffer.
Sure, infallible, certain, indisputable, unmistakable, doubtless, firm, safe, secure, confident, positive, assured.
Surmise, *v.*, presume, conjecture, guess, suppose, suspect.
Surmount, overcome, subdue, vanquish, conquer, surpass, exceed
Surreptitious, underhand, furtive, stealthy, clandestine.
Susceptible, sensible, sensitive, excitable, tender.
Swear, declare, affirm, depose, testify, curse, blaspheme.
Symbol, representation, sign, token, emblem, figure, type.
Sympathy, commiseration, condolence, pity, compassion, agreement, fellow-feeling, union, concert.
Synonymous, like, equivalent, interchangeable, identical, tantamount.
Synopsis, epitome, syllabus.
System, method, arrangement, regularity, order, rule, plan, scheme.

TALE, anecdote, story, fable, legend, memoir, novel, narrative, incident, romance.
Talent, ability, faculty, genius, cleverness, capability, gift, endowment.
Talk, conversation, chat, gossip, dialogue, discourse, report, rumor.
Tantamount, equivalent, synonymous, equal to.
Tardy, slow, dilatory, tedious, sluggish.
Tarnish, *v.*, stain, blemish, sully, soil, dim, darken, obscure, taint.
Tarry, await, stay, remain, continue, linger, lag, loiter, abide, lodge, dwell.
Tart, sour, acid, sharp, keen, acrid, bitter, caustic, acrimonious.
Taste, judgment, discernment, perception, sensibility, relish, gusto, zest, nicety, elegance, refinement.
Tautology, verbosity, repetition, reiteration.
Tear, rend, break, lacerate, sever, sunder.
Tease, *v.*, vex, plague, torment, irritate, disturb, provoke.
Tedious, slow, dilatory, tardy, wearisome, irksome, dreary, tiresome, prosy, sluggish.
Tell, number, enumerate, count, state, mention, communicate, apprise, impart, reveal, inform, ascertain, signify, acquaint, notify, intimate, report.
Temporary.—See TEMPORAL.
Temporize, fence, manœuvre, procrastinate.
Tempt, allure, try, test, prove, draw, attract, decoy, entice, seduce.
Tenacity, retentiveness, fixity, stubbornness.
Tendency, inclination, leaning, propensity, proclivity, proneness, predisposition, scope, direction, bent, drift, aim, bias.
Tenderness, delicacy, softness, beneficence, benignity, humanity, sensibility, benevolence, kindness, pity, clemency.
Testify, depose, declare, swear, attest, witness, prove, certify, confirm.
Testimony, witness, confirmation, attestation, proof, evidence, corroboration.
Theme, subject, topic, text, essay.
Theory, speculation, scheme, plea, hypothesis, conjecture.
Thought, idea, conception, imagination, fancy, conceit, notion, supposition, care, provision, consideration, opinion, view, sentiment, reflection, deliberation.
Thraldom, slavery, enslavement, servitude, bondage, vassalage, serfism, captivity.
Throb, palpitate, heave, beat.
Throng, concourse, host, multitude, crowd, swarm, horde, shoal, myriad.
Tie, *v.*, bind, restrain, restrict, oblige, secure, unite, join.
Tie, *n.*, band, ligament, ligature.
Time, duration, season, period, era, age, date, span, spell.
Tipsy, drunk, intoxicated, inebriated, fuddled.
Tolerate, allow, admit, receive, suffer, permit, let, endure, abide.
Tongue, speech, language, idiom, dialect, talk, discourse.
Top, summit, apex, head, crown, surface.
Torpid, benumbed, numb, dull, stupid, sluggish, inert.
Torrid, burning, hot, parching, scorching, sultry.
Tortuous, twisted, winding, crooked, indirect.
Torture, torment, anguish, agony.
Touching, tender, affecting, moving, pathetic.
Tractable, docile, manageable, amenable.
Trade, traffic, commerce, dealing, occupation, employment, office.

Traditional, oral, uncertain, transmitted.
Traffic, trade, exchange, commerce, intercourse.
Trammel, *n.*, fetter, shackle, clog, bond, chain, impediment, hinderance.
Tranquil, still, unruffled, peaceful, quiet, hushed.
Transaction, negotiation, occurrence, proceeding, affair.
Transgress, pass, exceed, violate, infringe, contravene, offend, trespass.
Trash, nonsense, twaddle, trifles, dross.
Travel, trip, ramble, peregrination, excursion, journey, tour, voyage.
Traverse, cross, pass, thwart, obstruct.
Treacherous, traitorous, disloyal, treasonable, faithless, false-hearted, perfidious, sly, false.
Trenchant, cutting, sharp, severe, sarcastic.
Trite, stale, old, ordinary, commonplace, hackneyed.
Triumph, achievement, ovation, victory, conquest, jubilation.
Trivial, trifling, petty, small, frivolous, unimportant, insignificant.
Truculent, fierce, savage, barbarous, cruel, ruthless.
True, genuine, actual, sincere, unaffected, true-hearted, honest, upright, veritable, real, veracious, authentic, exact, accurate, correct.
Tumult, ferment, outbreak, brawl, fray, turbulence, uproar, commotion, hubbub, disturbance, riot.
Tumultuous, turbulent, riotous, disorderly, disturbed, confused, unruly.
Tune, tone, air, melody, strain.
Turbid, foul, thick, muddy, impure, unsettled.
Turpitude, depravity, vileness, baseness, wickedness, sin.
Tutor, teacher, preceptor, instructor, guardian, governor.
Twit, taint, mock, jeer, gibe, sneer, scoff.
Type, emblem, symbol, figure, sign, kind, sort, letter.
Tyro, novice, beginner, learner.

UGLY, unsightly, plain, homely, ill-favored, hideous.
Ultimate, farthest, last, latest, final, eventual.
Umbrage, offence, dissatisfaction, displeasure, resentment.
Umpire, referee, arbitrator, judge, arbiter.
Unanimity, accord, agreement, unity, concord.
Unadvised, thoughtless, indiscreet, imprudent.
Unanimous, agreeing, like-minded.
Unblemished, pure, spotless, unspotted, unsullied.
Unbridled, wanton, licentious, dissolute, loose, lax.
Uncertain, doubtful, dubious, questionable, fitful, equivocal, ambiguous, indistinct, variable, fluctuating.
Uncivil, rude, discourteous, disrespectful, disobliging.
Unclean, dirty, foul, filthy, sullied.
Uncommon, rare, strange, scarce, singular, choice, unique, unusual.
Unconcerned, careless, indifferent, apathetic.
Uncouth, strange, odd, clumsy, ungainly.
Uncover, reveal, strip, expose, lay bare, divest.
Under, below, underneath, beneath, subordinate, lower, inferior.
Undergo, bear, suffer, endure, sustain, experience.
Understanding, knowledge, intellect, intelligence, faculty, comprehension, mind, reason, brains.
Undertake, engage in, embark in, agree, promise.
Undo, annul, frustrate, untie, unfasten, destroy.
Uneasy, restless, disturbed, unquiet, stiff, awkward.
Unfair, wrongful, dishonest, unjust.
Unfit, *a.*, improper, unsuitable, inconsistent, untimely, incompetent.
Unfortunate, calamitous, ill-fated, unlucky, wretched, unhappy, miserable.
Unfounded, false, groundless, baseless.
Uniform, regular, symmetrical, equal, even, alike, unvaried.
Uninterrupted, continuous, perpetual, unceasing, incessant, endless.
Union, junction, combination, alliance, confederacy, league, coalition, agreement, concert.
Unique, unequalled, uncommon, rare, choice, matchless.
Unison, harmony, concord, agreement, union.
Unity, oneness, accord, uniformity, agreement.
Universal, general, all, entire, total, catholic.
Unlimited, absolute, undefined, boundless, infinite.
Unreasonable, foolish, silly, absurd, preposterous, ridiculous.
Unrivalled, unequalled, unique, unexampled, incomparable, matchless.
Unroll, unfold, open, discover.
Unruly, ungovernable, unmanageable, refractory.
Unusual, rare, unwonted, singular, uncommon, remarkable, strange extraordinary.
Upbraid, blame, reproach, taunt, reprove, rebuke, chide, censure.
Uphold, maintain, defend, sustain, support, vindicate.
Upright, vertical, perpendicular, erect, just, equitable, fair, pure, honorable.
Uprightness, honesty, integrity, fairness, goodness, probity, virtue honor.
Uproot, eradicate, exterminate, weed out.
Urge, incite, impel, push, drive, instigate, stimulate, press, induce, solicit.
Urgent, pressing, important, imperative, immediate, serious, wanted.
Usage, custom, fashion, practice, prescription.
Use, *n.*, usage, practice, habit, custom, avail, advantage, utility, benefit, application.
Use, *v.*, employ, exercise, occupy, practise, accustom, inure.
Useful, advantageous, serviceable, available, helpful, beneficial, good.
Useless, unserviceable, fruitless, idle, profitless.
Usual, ordinary, common, accustomed, habitual, wonted, customary, general.
Usurp, arrogate, seize, appropriate, assume.
Utility, benefit, advantage, profit, service, avail, usefulness.
Utmost, farthest, remotest, uttermost, greatest.
Utter, *a.*, extreme, excessive, sheer, mere, pure.
Utter, *v.*, speak, articulate, pronounce, express, issue.
Utterly, totally, completely, wholly, quite, altogether, entirely.

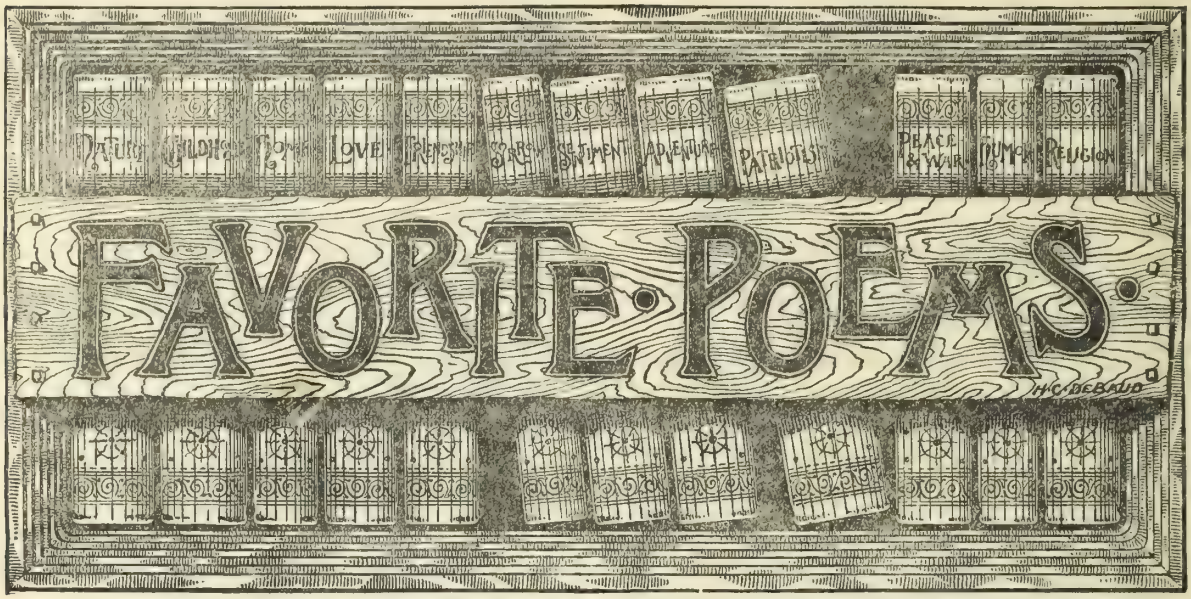
VACANT, empty, unfilled, unoccupied, thoughtless, unthinking.
Vagrant, *n.*, wanderer, beggar, tramp, vagabond, rogue.
Vague, unsettled, undetermined, uncertain, pointless, indefinite.
Vain, useless, fruitless, empty, worthless, inflated, proud, unreal, unavailing.
Valiant, brave, bold, valorous, courageous, gallant.
Valid, weighty, strong, powerful, sound, binding, efficient.
Valor, courage, gallantry, boldness, bravery, heroism.
Value, *v.*, appraise, assess, reckon, appreciate, estimate, prize, esteem, treasure.
Vanish, disappear, fade, melt, dissolve.
Vanity, emptiness, conceit, self-conceit, affectedness.
Vapid, dull, flat, insipid, stale, tame.
Vapor, fume, smoke, mist, fog, steam.
Variable, changeable, unsteady, inconstant, shifting, wavering, fickle, restless, fitful.
Variety, difference, diversity, change, diversification, mixture, medley, miscellany,
Vast, spacious, boundless, mighty, enormous, immense, colossal, gigantic, huge, prodigious.
Vaunt, boast, brag, puff, hawk, advertise, flourish, parade.
Vend, sell, retail, dispose of, hawk.
Venerable, grave, sage, wise, old, reverend.
Venial, pardonable, excusable, justifiable.
Venom, poison, virus, spite, malice, malignity.
Vent, opening, touch-hole, outlet, utterance.
Venture, *n.*, speculation, chance, peril, stake.
Venture, *v.*, dare, adventure, risk, hazard, jeopardize.
Veracity, truth, truthfulness, credibility, accuracy.
Verbal, oral, spoken, literal, parole, unwritten.
Verdict, judgment, finding, decision, answer.
Versatile, unsteady, changeable, unfixed, wavering, vacillating, oscillating, fluctuating, inconstant, fickle, restless, manifold.
Versed, skilled, practised, conversant, clever, proficient.
Vice, *n.*, vileness, corruption, depravity, pollution, immorality, wickedness, guilt, iniquity, crime, fault, defect, blemish.
Vigilant, circumspect, watchful, wakeful, observant, cautious, careful.
Vigorous, healthy, strong, powerful, energetic, stalwart, robust, hardy, firm, spirited, determined.
Vile, ignoble, base, low, worthless, abject, sordid, mean, dishonorable, sinful, wicked, vicious.
Vilify, debase, degrade, slander, decry, defame, scandalize, upbraid, brand, stigmatize, denounce.

Vindictive, spiteful, resentful, revengeful, unforgiving.
Virtuous, just, upright, moral, chaste, pure.
Visible, apparent, obvious, clear, plain, evident, manifest, distinct, palpable, patent.
Vivid, lively, clear, lucid, bright, sunny, glowing, graphic.
Vocation, profession, calling, trade, business, employment, office, mission.
Vogue, usage, way, custom, fashion, use, practice.
Void, null, invalid, unfilled, empty, hollow, useless, nugatory.

WAFT, transport, bear, convey.
Wage, make, carry on, engage in, undertake.
Wages, salary, hire, allowance, stipend, pay, remuneration, earnings.
Waggish, frolicsome, funny, jocular, sportive, merry, wanton.
Wait, await, abide, bide, stay, remain, tarry.
Waive, forego, relinquish, let go.
Wanton, licentious, libertine, unrestrained, unbridled, uncurbed, dissolute, loose, lax.
Ward, *v.*, avert, parry, fend, repel, turn aside, guard, defend.
Warlike, bellicose, martial, military, soldier like.
Warm, affectionate, attached, devoted, ardent, fervent, fervid, glowing.
Warmth, ardor, fervency, fervor, cordiality, vehemence, heat, fervidness, glow.
Wary, careful, cautious, circumspect, guarded, watchful, heedful, prudent, vigilant.
Wash, clean, rinse, wet, moisten, stain, tint.
Waste, *v.*, squander, dissipate, lavish, destroy, decay, dwindle, wither.
Way, method, plan, system, means, manner, mode, form, fashion, course, process, road, route, track, path, habit, practice.
Wayward, forward, obstinate, stubborn, unruly, perverse, disobedient.
Weak, feeble, infirm, enfeebled, debilitated, powerless, helpless, emaciated, prostrate, thin, watery, diluted, flimsy, slight, poor, silly, defenceless.
Weal, prosperity, welfare, advantage, well-being, happiness.
Wealth, riches, opulence, affluence, plenty, mammon.
Welfare, good fortune, well-being, prosperity, happiness, success.
Wheedle, coax, cajole, flatter, entice, decoy, humor, court.
White, snowy, pure, spotless, unspotted, unblemished, stainless, clean.
Whole, sound, healthy, well, total, all, entire, perfect, complete, integral, aggregate, undivided.
Wholesome, nutritious, healthy, salubrious, healing, salutary.
Wholly, entirely, totally, altogether, quite, perfectly, completely, utterly.
Wicked, bad, ill, unjust, irreligious, ungodly, godless, profane, impious, unhallowed, black, dark, foul, atrocious, villanous, enormous, monstrous, outrageous, profligate, abandoned.
Wide, broad, ample, large, expanded, diffuse, extensive.
Wild, savage, uncivilized, loose, irregular, disorderly, untamed, undomesticated, unruly.
Wilful, perverse, stubborn, self-willed, headstrong, obstinate.
Wilfully, designedly, purposely, intentionally.
Willingly, voluntarily, spontaneously, gratuitously.
Win, get, obtain, gain, procure, effect, realize, accomplish, achieve.
Wind, *v.*, coil, twine, wreathe, turn, bend, curve, twist, wriggle.
Wing, *v.*, fly, mount, ascend, soar, tower.
Wisdom, sense, knowledge, learning, prudence, judgment, intelligence, sagacity.
Wise, intelligent, learned, skilled, judicious, rational, discreet, prudent.
Wish, desire, long for, yearn, hanker, covet.
Wit, mind, intellect, understanding, genius, imagination, humor, satire, irony, mirth.
Woe, distress, sorrow, affliction, disaster, trouble.
Wonder, amazement, surprise, astonishment, admiration, miracle, marvel, prodigy, curiosity, rarity.
Wonderful, marvellous, wondrous, amazing, astonishing, striking, surprising, admirable.
Wondrous, wonderful, amazing, marvellous, stupendous, miraculous.
Word, term, expression, accent, promise, engagement, account, tidings, message, order, command, signal.
Worldly, terrestrial, mundane, temporal, secular, carnal, earthly.
Worry, plague, tease, torment, vex, annoy, irritate, fret.
Worth, price, value, rate, desert, merit, virtue, excellence.
Worthless, useless, valueless, frivolous, corrupt, libertine, dissolute, licentious, profligate.
Worthy, excellent, deserving, eligible, preferable, meritorious, estimable, commendable, laudable, praiseworthy.
Wrap, muffle, envelop, fold, encase.
Wreathe, *v.*, turn, twist, interweave, enfold.
Wreck, débris, ruins, havoc, rubbish.
Wretched, deplorable, miserable, unhappy, distressed, afflicted, unfortunate, afflicting, disastrous, calamitous, drear, dismal.
Wring, *v.*, twist, wrench, wrest, distort, squeeze.
Wrong, *v.*, abuse, injure, maltreat, oppress, aggrieve.
Wrong, *a.*, bad, evil, incorrect, erroneous, unsuitable, improper, unjust.
Wry, twisted, distorted, awry, crooked.

YEARN, hanker after, long for, desire, crave.
Yield, bear, give, afford, impart, communicate, confer, bestow, give up abdicate, resign, cede, surrender, relinquish, relax, quit, forego, let go, waive, comply, conform, accede, assent, acquiesce, succumb sink, submit.
Yoke, *v.*, couple, link, connect.
Youth, boy, lad, minority, adolescence, juvenility.
Youthful, young, juvenile, boyish, girlish, puerile.

ZEAL, energy, fervor, ardor, earnestness, enthusiasm, eagerness.
Zest, relish gusto, flavor.



COLERIDGE claims that Poetry is the blossom and fragrance of all human knowledge, human thoughts, human passions, emotion, language. "Poetry," says Leigh Hunt, "is the breath of beauty flowing around the spiritual world as the winds that wake up the flowers do about the material." "The world is full of poetry; the air is living with its spirit; and the waves dance to the music of its melodies. It is the light that never was on land or sea—the music of the soul." Swinburne declares that there are few delights in any life so high and rare as the subtle and strong delight of sovereign Art and Poetry.

"All men," says Emerson, "are poets at heart." No small portion of the exquisite pleasure we derive from the works of the poets arises from recognizing there in clear expression what we had obscurely felt in the most secret shrines of our being, and had thought peculiar to ourselves. What all dumbly feel, the poet feels so powerfully as to compel an utterance in the "golden cadence of poesy." "Most wretched men are cradled into poetry by wrong; they learn in suffering what they teach in song."

Poets are persons of more affluent and susceptible natures than other men, and symbolizing their experience in the choicest words, they reveal man to himself. Their mission is to give relief and pleasure to the soul by a fit expression of what stirs, burns, and crowds within; to reveal to duller eyes and colder hearts the beauty of nature—the wonder and bloom of the world. The poet is eminently an emancipator of men. One of his functions is to thrill imprisoned souls with the joyous notes of liberty, to open their cages of care, and to set them free. By his power of reproducing all things in contemplative and emotional imagination, he takes us out of mere self, and makes us live the whole life of humanity.

Poetry, in addition, is intrusted with a general apostleship of virtue and philanthropy, charged to portray the commanding charms of justice, faith, love, and magnanimity. The poet by his very temperament and gifts, is a believer, a lover, an enjoyer. He is too highly endowed with the blessed prerogatives of insight and fruition to be a victim of the petty distrusts, envies, hatreds, moroseness which afflict the souls of so many, imbittering their cup of experience from its foam to its dregs. Consequently his singing tends to cheer and sweeten all existence, flinging light and music abroad, beautifully reflecting everywhere in the mirror of his thoughts and sentiments whatever things are really fair, good, blissful, everlasting. "Poetry," says

Shelley, "turns all things to loveliness; it exalts the beauty of that which is most beautiful, and it adds beauty to that which is most deformed; it marries exultation and horror, grief and pleasure, eternity and change; it subdues to union, under its light yoke, all irreconcilable things."

Another, and a central feature in the mission of Poetry is consolation. Sad and tender verses may often make us weep; but the tears we then shed are not smitten forth by cruel shocks, nor wrung out in scalding bitterness. The last and crowning use of Poetry is to impart inspiration to an often burdened existence, and to serve as the bright and blissful complement to a sometimes dark and defective world. Entering the enchanted realm and the divine fellowship of the poets we leave behind us repulsive difficulties, aching disappointment, and despair.

MY MIND TO ME A KINGDOM IS.

My mind to me a kingdom is,
Such perfect joy therein I find
As far exceeds all earthly bliss
That God or nature hath assigned;
Though much I want that most would have,
Yet still my mind forbids to crave.

Content I live, this is my stay:
I seek no more than may suffice:
I press to bear no haughty sway:
Look! what I lack, my mind supplies.
Lo! thus I triumph like a king,
Content with what my mind doth bring.

I see how plenty surfeits oft,
And hasty climbers soonest fall;
I see that such as sit aloft
Mishap doth threaten most of all:
These get with toil and keep with fear;
Such cares my mind could never bear.

Some have too much, yet still they crave;
I little have, yet seek no more;
They are but poor, though much they have,
And I am rich with little store.
They poor, I rich; they beg, I give;
They lack, I lend; they pine, I live.

I laugh not at another's loss,
I grudge not at another's gain:
No worldly wave my mind can toss,
I brook that is another's bane:
I fear no foe, nor fawn on friend;
I loathe not life, nor dread mine end.

I wish but what I have at will,
I wander not to seek for more,
I like the plain, I climb no hill,
In greatest storms I sit on shore,
And laugh at them that toil in vain,
To get what must be lost again.

My wealth is health and perfect ease,
My conscience clear my chief defense;
I never seek by bribes to please,
Nor by desert to give offense;
Thus do I live, thus will I die,
Would all did so as well as I.

WILLIAM BYRD.

THE SEVEN AGES.

ALL the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players:
They have their exits and their entrances;
And one man in his time plays many parts,
His acts being seven ages. At first the infant,
Mewling and puking in the nurse's arms;
And then the whining schoolboy, with his satchel,
And shining morning face, creeping like snail
Unwillingly to school. And then the lover,
Sighing like furnace, with a woful ballad
Made to his mistress' eyebrow. Then a soldier,
Full of strange oaths, and bearded like the pard,
Jealous in honor, sudden and quick in quarrel,
Seeking the bubble reputation
Even in the cannon's mouth. And then the justice
In fair round belly, with good capon lined,
With eyes severe, and beard of formal cut,
Full of wise saws and modern instances;
And so he plays his part. The sixth age shifts
Into the lean and slippered pantaloon,
With spectacles on nose, and pouch on side,
His youthful hose well saved, a world too wide
For his shrunk shank; and his big manly voice,
Turning again toward childish treble, pipes
And whistles in his sound. Last scene of all
That ends this strange eventful history,
Is second childishness, and mere oblivion;
Sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans everything.

SHAKSPEARE: *As You Like It.*

BEGONE DULL CARE!

BEGONE dull care!
I prithee begone from me;
Begone dull care!
Thou and I can never agree.
Long while thou hast been tarrying here,
And fain thou wouldst me kill;
But i'faith, dull care,
Thou never shalt have thy will.

Too much care
Will make a young man gray;
Too much care
Will turn an old man to clay.
My wife shall dance and I will sing,
So merrily pass the day;
For I hold it is the wisest thing,
To drive dull care away.

Hence, dull care,
I'll none of thy company;
Hence, dull care,
Thou art no pair for me.
We'll hunt the wild boar through the wold,
So merrily pass the day;
And then at night, o'er a cheerful bowl,
We'll drive dull care away.

ANONYMOUS. (Before 1649.)

BLOW, BLOW, THOU WINTER WIND.

I.

BLOW, blow, thou winter wind,
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude;
Thy tooth is not so keen,
Because thou art not seen,
Although thy breath be rude.
Heigh-ho! sing, heigh-ho! unto the green holly:
Most friendship is feigning, most loving mere folly:
Then, heigh-ho! the holly!
This life is most jolly!

II.

Freeze, freeze, thou bitter sky,
That dost not bite so nigh
As benefits forgot:
Though thou the waters warp,
Thy sting is not so sharp
As friend remembered not.
Heigh-ho! sing, heigh-ho! unto the green holly:
Most friendship is feigning, most loving mere folly:
Then, heigh-ho! the holly!
This life is most jolly!

SHAKSPEARE.

THE DEATH OF THE FLOWERS.

THE melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year,
Of wailing winds, and naked woods, and meadows brown and sear.
Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the autumn leaves lie dead;
They rustle to the eddying gust, and to the rabbit's tread.
The robin and the wren are flown, and from the shrubs the jay,
And from the wood-top calls the crow through all the gloomy day.

Where are the flowers, the fair young flowers, that lately sprang and stood
In brighter light and softer airs, a beauteous sisterhood?
Alas! they all are in their graves; the gentle race of flowers
Are lying in their lowly beds with the fair and good of ours.
The rain is falling where they lie; but the cold November rain
Calls not from out the gloomy earth the lovely ones again.

The wind-flower and the violet, they perished long ago,
And the brier-rose and the orchis died amid the summer glow;
But on the hill the golden-rod, and the aster in the wood,
And the yellow sunflower by the brook in autumn beauty stood,
Till fell the frost from the clear cold heaven, as falls the plague on men,
And the brightness of their smile was gone from upland, glade, and glen.

And now, when comes the calm mild day, as still such days will come,
To call the squirrel and the bee from out their winter home;
When the sound of dropping nuts is heard, though all the trees are still,
And twinkle in the smoky light the waters of the rill;
The south-wind searches for the flowers whose fragrance late he bore,
And sighs to find them in the wood and by the stream no more.

And then I think of one who in her youthful beauty died,
The fair meek blossom that grew up and faded by my side;
In the cold moist earth we laid her, when the forests cast the leaf,
And we wept that one so lovely should have a life so brief;
Yet not unmeet it was that one, like that young friend of ours,
So gentle and so beautiful, should perish with the flowers.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

GIVE ME THE OLD.

I.

OLD wine to drink!
Ay, give me the slippery juice
That drippeth from the grape thrown loose
Within the tun;
Plucked from beneath the cliff
Of sunny-sided Teneriffe,
And ripened 'neath the blink
Of India's sun!
Peat whiskey hot,
Tempered with well-boiled water!
These make the long night shorter,
Forgetting not
Good stout old English porter.

II.

Old wood to burn!—
Ay, bring the hillside beech
From where the owlets meet and screech,
And ravens croak;
The crackling pine, and cedar sweet;
Bring too a clump fragrant of peat,
Dug 'neath the fern;
The knotted oak,
A fagot too, perhap,
Whose bright flame, dancing, winking,
Shall light us at our drinking;
While the oozing sap
Shall make sweet music to our thinking.

III.

Old books to read!
Ay, bring those nodes of wit,
The brazen-clasped, the vellum-writ,
Time-honored tomes!
The same my sire scanned before,
The same my grandsire thumbed o'er,
The same his sire from college bore,
The well-earned meed
Of Oxford's domes:
Old *Homer* blind,
Old *Horace*, rake *Anacreon*, by
Old *Tulley*, *Plautus*, *Terence* lie;
Mort *Arthur's* olden minstrelsie,
Quaint *Burton*, quainter *Spenser*, ay!
And *Gervase Markham's* venerie—
Nor leave behind
The Holy Book by which we live and die.

IV.

Old friends to talk!
Ay, bring those chosen few,
The wise, the courtly, and the true,
So rarely found;
Him for my wine, him for my stud,
Him for my easel, distich, bud
In mountain walk!
Bring *Walter* good:
With soulful *Fred;* and learned *Will*,
And thee, my *alter ego*, (dearest still
For every mood).

R. H. MESSINGER.

A PSALM OF LIFE.

WHAT THE HEART OF THE YOUNG MAN SAID TO THE PSALMIST.

TELL me not in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream!
For the soul is dead that slumbers,
And things are not what they seem.

Life is real! Life is earnest!
And the grave is not its goal;
Dust thou art, to dust returnest,
Was not spoken of the soul.

Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
Is our destined end or way;
But to act, that each to-morrow
Find us farther than to-day.

Art is long, and Time is fleeting,
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still, like muffled drums, are beating
Funeral marches to the grave.

In the world's broad field of battle
In the bivouac of Life,
Be not like dumb, driven cattle!
Be a hero in the strife!

Trust no Future, howe'er pleasant!
Let the dead Past bury its dead!
Act,—act in the living Present!
Heart within, and God o'erhead!

Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time;—

Footprints, that perhaps another,
Sailing o'er life's solemn main,
A forlorn and shipwrecked brother,
Seeing, shall take heart again.

Let us then, be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate,
Still achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labor and to wait.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

MAIDENHOOD.

MAIDEN! with the meek, brown eyes,
In whose orbs a shadow lies
Like the dusk in evening skies!

Thou whose locks outshine the sun,
Golden tresses, wreathed in one,
As the braided streamlets run!

Standing, with reluctant feet,
Where the brook and river meet,
Womanhood and childhood fleet!

Gazing, with a timid glance,
On the brooklet's swift advance,
On the river's broad expanse!

Deep and still, that gliding stream
Beautiful to thee must seem,
As the river of a dream.

Then why pause with indecision,
When bright angels in thy vision
Beckon thee to fields Elysian?

Seest thou shadows sailing by,
As the dove, with startled eye,
Sees the falcon's shadow fly?

Hearest thou voices on the shore,
That our ears perceive no more,
Deafened by the cataract's roar?

O, thou child of many prayers!
Life hath quicksands—Life hath snares!
Care and age come unawares!

Like the swell of some sweet tune,
Morning rises into noon,
May glides onward into June.

Childhood is the bough, where slumbered
Birds and blossoms many-numbered;—
Age, that bough with snows encumbered.

Gather, then, each flower that grows,
When the young heart overflows,
To embalm that tent of snows.

Bear a lily in thy hand;
Gates of brass cannot withstand
One touch of that magic wand.

Bear through sorrow, wrong, and ruth,
In thy heart the dew of youth,
On thy lips the smile of truth.

O, that dew, like balm, shall steal
Into wounds that cannot heal,
Even as sleep our eyes doth seal;

And that smile, like sunshine, dart
Into many a sunless heart,
For a smile of God thou art.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

AGAIN.

O, SWEET and fair! O, rich and rare!
That day so long ago;
The autumn sunshine everywhere,
The heather all aglow,
The ferns were clad in cloth of gold,
The waves sang on the shore.
Such suns will shine, such waves will sing
Forever evermore.

O, fit and few! O, tried and true!
The friends who met that day,
Each one the other's spirit knew,
And so in earnest play
The hours flew past, until at last
The twilight kissed the shore.
We said, "Such days shall come again
Forever evermore."

One day again, no cloud of pain
A shadow o'er us cast;
And yet we strove in vain, in vain,
To conjure up the past;
Like, but unlike,—the sun that shone,
The waves that beat the shore,
The words we said, the songs we sung,
Like,—unlike,—evermore.

For ghosts unseen crept in between,
And, when our songs flowed free,
Sang discords in an undertone,
And marred our harmony.
"The past is ours, not yours," they said:
"The waves that beat the shore,
Though like the same, are not the same,
O, never, never more!"

ANONYMOUS.

NEVER AGAIN.

THERE are gains for all our losses—
There are balms for all our pain;
But when youth, the dream, departs,
It takes something from our hearts,
And it never comes again.

We are stronger and are better,
Under manhood's sterner reign ;
Still we feel that something sweet
Followed youth, with flying feet,
And will never come again.

Something beautiful has vanished,
And we sigh for it in vain ;
We behold it everywhere,
On the earth, and in the air,
But it never comes again.

RICHARD HENRY STODDARD.

THE OLD CLOCK ON THE STAIRS.

SOMEWHAT back from the village street
Stands the old fashion'd country-seat.
Across its antique portico
Tall poplar trees their shadows throw :
And from its station in the hall
An ancient timepiece says to all—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

Halfway up the stairs it stands,
And points and beckons with its hands
From its case of massive oak,
Like a monk, who, under his cloak,
Crosses himself, and sighs, alas !
With sorrowful voice to all who pass—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

By day its voice is low and light ;
But in the silent dead of night,
Distinct as a passing footstep's fall,
It echoes along the vacant hall,
Along the ceiling, along the floor,
And seems to say, at each chamber-door—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

Through days of sorrow and of mirth,
Through days of death and days of birth,
Through every swift vicissitude
Of changeful time, unchanged it has stood,
And as if, like God, it all things saw,
It calmly repeats those words of awe—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

In that mansion used to be
Free-hearted Hospitality ;
His great fires up the chimney roar'd ;
The stranger feasted at his board ;
But, like the skeleton at the feast,
That warning timepiece never ceased—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

There groups of merry children play'd
There youths and maidens dreaming stray'd ;
O precious hours ! O golden prime,
And affluence of love and time !
Even as a miser counts his gold,
Those hours the ancient timepiece told—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

From that chamber, clothed in white,
The bride came forth on her wedding night ;
There, in that silent room below,
The dead lay in his shroud of snow ;
And in the hush that follow'd the prayer,
Was heard the old clock on the stair—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

All are scatter'd now and fled,
Some are married, some are dead ;
And when I ask with throbs of pain,
"Ah ! when shall they all meet again,
As in the days long since gone by ? "
The ancient timepiece makes reply—
"Forever—never
Never—forever ! "

Never here, forever there,
Where all parting, pain, and care
And death, and time shall disappear—
Forever there, but never here !
The horologe of Eternity
Sayeth this incessantly—
"Forever—never !
Never—forever ! "

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

I REMEMBER, I REMEMBER.

I REMEMBER, I remember,
The house where I was born,
The little window where the sun
Came peeping in at morn :
He never came a wink too soon,
Nor brought too long a day ;
But now, I often wish the night
Had borne my breath away.

I remember, I remember,
The roses, red and white;
The violets and the lily-cups,
Those flowers made of light!
The lilacs where the robin built,
And where my brother set
The laburnum on his birthday—
The tree is living yet!

I remember, I remember,
Where I was used to swing;
And thought the air must rush as fresh
To swallows on the wing:
My spirit flew in feathers then,
That is so heavy now,
And summer pools could hardly cool
The fever on my brow!

I remember, I remember,
The fir-trees dark and high;
I used to think their slender tops
Were close against the sky:
It was a childish ignorance,
But now 'tis little joy
To know I'm farther off from heaven
Than when I was a boy.

THOMAS HOOD.

ONE BY ONE.

ONE by one the sands are flowing,
One by one the moments fall;
Some are coming, some are going;
Do not strive to grasp them all.

One by one thy duties wait thee,
Let thy whole strength go to each;
Let no future dreams elate thee,
Learn thou first what these can teach.

One by one (bright gifts from Heaven)
Joys are sent thee here below;
Take them readily when given,
Ready too to let them go.

One by one thy griefs shall meet thee,
Do not fear an armèd band;
One will fade as others greet thee;
Shadows passing through the land.

Do not look at life's long sorrow;
See how small each moment's pain;
God will help thee for to-morrow,
So each day begin again.

Every hour that fleets so slowly
Has its task to do or bear;
Luminous the crown, and holy,
When each gem is set with care.

Do not linger with regretting,
Or for passing hours despond;
Nor, the daily toil forgetting,
Look too eagerly beyond.

Hours are golden links, God's token
Reaching heaven; but one by one
Take them, lest the chain be broken
Ere the pilgrimage be done.

ADELAIDE ANNE PROCTER.

FOR A' THAT AND A' THAT.

IS THERE, for honest poverty
That hangs his head, and a' that?
The coward slave, we pass him by;
We dare be poor for a' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Our toils obscure, and a' that:
The rank is but the guinea's stamp,
The man's the gowd for a' that!

What though on hamely fare we dine,
Wear hoddin gray,* and a' that?
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,
A man's a man for a' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Their tinsel show, and a' that:
The honest man, though e'er sae poor,
Is king o' men for a' that!

Ye see yon birkie,† ca'd a lord,
Wha struts, and stares, and a' that:
Though hundreds worship at his word,
He's but a coof‡ for a' that.
For a' that, and a' that,
His ribbon, star, and a' that:
The man of independent mind,
He looks and laughs at a' that!

A prince can mak a belted knight,
A marquis, duke, and a' that;
But an honest man's aboon his might:
Guid faith, he mauna fa'§ that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Their dignities, and a' that,
The pith o' sense, and pride o' worth,
Are higher rank‖ than a' that.

Then let us pray that come it may—
As come it will for a' that—
That sense and worth, o'er a' the earth,
May bear the gree,¶ and a' that:

* Coarse woolen cloth.
† A conceited fellow.
‡ A fool.
§ Attempt.
‖ So in MS., but usually printed *ranks*.
¶ Supremacy.

For a' that, and a' that,
It's comin' yet for a' that,
That man to man, the warld o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that!

ROBERT BURNS.

THE VOICELESS.

WE count the broken lyres that rest
Where the sweet wailing singers slumber,
But o'er their silent sister's breast
The wild flowers who will stoop to number?
A few can touch the magic string,
And noisy fame is proud to win them;
Alas for those that never sing,
But die with all their music in them!

Nay, grieve not for the dead alone,
Whose song has told their hearts' sad story:
Weep for the voiceless, who have known
The cross without the crown of glory!
Not where Leucadian breezes sweep
O'er Sappho's memory-haunted billow,
But where the glistening night-dews weep
On nameless sorrow's church-yard pillow.

O hearts that break, and give no sign,
Save whitening lip and fading tresses,
Till Death pours out his cordial wine,
Slow-dropped from misery's crushing presses!
If singing breath or echoing chord
To every hidden pang were given,
What endless melodies were poured,
As sad as earth, as sweet as heaven!

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

UNSUNG.

AS SWEET as the breath that goes
From the lips of the white rose,
As weird as the elfin lights
That glimmer of frosty nights,
As wild as the winds that tear
The curled red leaf in the air,
Is the song I have never sung.

In slumber, a hundred times
I've said the enchanted rhymes,
But ere I open my eyes
This ghost of a poem flies;
Of the interfluent strains
Not even a note remains:
I know by my pulses' beat
It was something wild and sweet,
And my heart is strangely stirred
By an unremembered word!
I strive, but I strive in vain,
To recall the lost refrain.
On some miraculous day
Perhaps it will come and stay;
In some unimagined Spring
I may find my voice and sing
The song I have never sung.

THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

AFTER.

A LITTLE time for laughter,
A little time to sing,
A little time to kiss and cling,
And no more kissing after.

A little while for scheming
Love's unperfected schemes;
A little time for golden dreams,
Then no more any dreaming.

A little while 'twas given
To me to have thy love;
Now, like a ghost, alone I move
About a ruined heaven.

A little time for speaking,
Things sweet to say and hear;
A time to seek, and find thee near,
Then no more any seeking.

A little time for saying
Words the heart breaks to say,
A short, sharp time wherein to pray,
Then no more need for praying;

But long, long years to weep in,
And comprehend the whole
Great grief that desolates the soul,
And eternity to sleep in.

PHILIP BOURKE MARSTON.

GOOD-BY.

GOOD-BY, proud world! I'm going home;
Thou art not my friend, and I'm not thine.
Long through thy weary crowds I roam;
A river-ark on the ocean brine,
Long I've been tossed like the driven foam;
But now, proud world! I'm going home.

Good-by to flattery's fawning face;
To grandeur with his wise grimace;
To upstart wealth's averted eye;
To supple office, low and high;

To crowded halls, to court and street;
To frozen hearts and hasting feet;
To those who go and those who come—
Good-by, proud world! I'm going home.

I am going to my own hearth-stone,
Bosomed in yon green hills alone—
A secret nook in a pleasant land,
Whose groves the frolic fairies planned;
Where arches green, the livelong day,
Echo the blackbird's roundelay,
And vulgar feet have never trod—
A spot that is sacred to thought and God.

Oh, when I am safe in my sylvan home,
I tread on the pride of Greece and Rome;
And when I am stretched beneath the pines,
Where the evening star so holy shines,
I laugh at the lore and pride of man,
At the Sophist schools, and the learned clan;
For what are they all, in their high conceit,
When man in the bush with God may meet?

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

BREAK, BREAK, BREAK.

BREAK, break, break,
On thy cold gray stones, O Sea!
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me.

O well for the fisherman's boy,
That he shouts with his sister at play!
O well for the sailor lad,
That he sings in his boat on the bay!

And the stately ships go on
To their haven under the hill;
But O for the touch of a vanished hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still!

Break, break, break,
At the foot of thy crags, O Sea!
But the tender grace of a day that is dead
Will never come back to me.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

APPLE BLOSSOMS.

I SIT beneath the apple-tree,
I see nor sky nor sun;
I only know the apple-buds
Are opening one by one.

You asked me once a little thing—
A lecture or a song
To hear with you; and yet I thought
To find my whole life long
Too short to bear the happiness
That bounded through the day,
That made the look of apple blooms,
And you and me and May!

For long between us there had hung
The mist of love's young doubt;
Sweet, shy, uncertain, all the world
Of trust and May burst out.

I wore the flowers in my hair,
Their color on my dress;
Dear love! whenever apples bloom
In heaven do they bless

Your heart with memories so small,
So strong, so cruel glad?
If ever apples bloom in heaven,
I wonder are you sad?

Heart! yield up thy fruitless quest,
Beneath the apple-tree;
Youth comes but once, love only once,
And May but once to thee!

ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS.

STANZAS.

My life is like the summer rose
That opens to the morning sky,
But, ere the shades of evening close,
Is scattered on the ground—to die!
Yet on the rose's humbled bed
The sweetest dews of night are shed,
As if she wept the waste to see,—
But none shall weep a tear for me!

My life is like the autumn leaf
That trembles in the moon's pale ray;
Its hold is frail—its date is brief,
Restless—and soon to pass away!
Yet, ere that leaf shall fall and fade,
The parent tree will mourn its shade,
The winds bewail the leafless tree—
But none shall breathe a sigh for me!

My life is like the prints which feet
Have left on Tempa's desert strand;
Soon as the rising tide shall beat,
All trace will vanish from the sand;
Yet, as if grieving to efface
All vestige of the human race
On that lone shore loud moans the sea—
But none, alas! shall mourn for me!

RICHARD HENRY WILDE.

BUGLE-SONG.

THE splendor falls on castle walls
And snowy summits old in story;
The long light shakes across the lakes,
And the wild cataract leaps in glory.
Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying;
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

O, hark! O, hear! how thin and clear,
And thinner, clearer, farther going!
O, sweet and far from cliff and scar
The horns of Elfland faintly blowing!
Blow, let us hear the purple glens replying;
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

O love, they die in yon rich sky,
They faint on hill, or field, or river;
Our echoes roll from soul to soul,
And grow forever and forever.
Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying,
And answer, echoes, answer, dying, dying, dying.

ALFRED TENNYSON: *The Princess.*

A WET SHEET AND A FLOWING SEA.

A WET sheet and a flowing sea,
A wind that follows fast,
And fills the white and rustling sail,
And bends the gallant mast;
And bends the gallant mast, my boys,
While, like the eagle free,
Away the good ship flies, and leaves
Old England on the lee.

Oh for a soft and gentle wind!
I heard a fair one cry;
But give to me the snoring breeze,
And white waves heaving high;
And white waves heaving high, my boys,
The good ship tight and free—
The world of waters is our home,
And merry men are we.

There's tempest in your horned moon,
And lightning in yon cloud;
And hark, the music, mariners,
The wind is piping loud;
The wind is piping loud, my boys,
The lightning flashing free—
While the hollow oak our palace is,
Our heritage the sea.

ALLAN CUNNINGHAM.

THE OLD OAKEN BUCKET.

How dear to this heart are the scenes of my childhood,
When fond recollection presents them to view!—
The orchard, the meadow, the deep-tangled wildwood,
And every loved spot which my infancy knew!
The wide-spreading pond, and the mill that stood by it;
The bridge, and the rock where the cataract fell;
The cot of my father, the dairy-house nigh it;
And e'en the rude bucket that hung in the well—
The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket which hung in the well.

That moss-covered vessel I hailed as a treasure;
For often at noon, when returned from the field,
I found it the source of an exquisite pleasure—
The purest and sweetest that nature can yield.
How ardent I seized it, with hands that were glowing,
And quick to the white-pebbled bottom it fell!
Then soon, with the emblem of truth overflowing,
And dripping with coolness, it rose from the well—
The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket arose from the well.

How sweet from the green, mossy brim to receive it,
As, poised on the curb, it inclined to my lips!
Not a full, blushing goblet could tempt me to leave it,
The brightest that beauty or revelry sips,
And now, far removed from the loved habitation,
The tear of regret will intrusively swell,
As fancy reverts to my father's plantation,
And sighs for the bucket that hangs in the well—
The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket that hangs in the well!

SAMUEL WOODWORTH.

BABY BELL.

HAVE you not heard the poets tell
How came the dainty Baby Bell
Into this world of ours?
The gates of heaven were left ajar:
With folded hands and dreamy eyes,
Wandering out of Paradise,
She saw this planet like a star,
Hung in the glistening depths of even,—
Its bridges, running to and fro,
O'er which the white-wing'd angels go,
Bearing the holy dead to heaven.
She touch'd a bridge of flowers,—those feet,
So light they did not bend the bells
Of the celestial asphodels,
They fell like dew upon the flowers:
Then all the air grew strangely sweet!
And thus came dainty Baby Bell
Into this world of ours.

She came, and brought delicious May.
The swallows built beneath the eaves;
Like sunlight, in and out the leaves
The robins went the livelong day;
The lily swung its noiseless bell;
And o'er the porch the trembling vine
Seem'd bursting with its veins of wine.
How sweetly, softly, twilight fell!
Oh, earth was full of singing-birds
And opening spring-tide flowers,
When the dainty Baby Bell
Came to this world of ours!

Oh, Baby, dainty Baby Bell,
How fair she grew from day to day!
What woman-nature fill'd her eyes,
What poetry within them lay!
Those deep and tender twilight eyes,
So full of meaning, pure and bright
As if she yet stood in the light
Of those oped gates of Paradise.
And so we loved her more and more:
Ah, never in our hearts before
Was love so lovely born:
We felt we had a link between
This real world and that unseen—
The land beyond the morn;
And for the love of those dear eyes,
For love of her whom God led forth,
(The mother's being ceased on earth
When Baby came from Paradise),—
For love of Him who smote our lives,
And woke the chords of joy and pain,
We said, *Dear Christ!*—our hearts bent down,
Like violets after rain.

And now the orchards, which were white
And red with blossoms when she came,
Were rich in autumn's mellow prime;
The cluster'd apples burnt like flame,
The soft-cheek'd peaches blush'd and fell,
The ivory chestnut burst its shell,
The grapes hung purpling in the grange;
And time wrought just as rich a change
In little Baby Bell.
Her lissome form more perfect grew,
And in her features we could trace,
In soften'd curves, her mother's face.
Her angel-nature ripen'd too:
We thought her lovely when she came,
But she was holy, saintly now:—
Around her pale angelic brow
We saw a slender ring of flame!

God's hand had taken away the seal
That held the portals of her speech;
And oft she said a few strange words
Whose meaning lay beyond our reach.
She never was a child to us,
We never held her being's key;
We could not teach her holy things:
She was Christ's self in purity.

It came upon us by degrees,
We saw its shadow ere it fell,—
The knowledge that our God had sent
His messenger for Baby Bell.
We shudder'd with unlanguaged pain,
And all our hopes were changed to fears,
And all our thoughts ran into tears
Like sunshine into rain.
We cried aloud in our belief,
"Oh, smite us gently, gently, God!
Teach us to bend and kiss the rod,
And perfect grow through grief."
Ah, how we loved her, God can tell;
Her heart was folded deep in ours.
Our hearts are broken, Baby Bell!

At last he came, the messenger,
The messenger from unseen lands:
And what did dainty Baby Bell?
She only cross'd her little hands,
She only look'd more meek and fair!
We parted back her silken hair,
We wove the roses round her brow,—
White buds, the summer's drifted snow,—
Wrapt her from head to foot in flowers!
And thus went dainty Baby Bell
Out of this world of ours!

THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

BABY.

WHERE did you come from, baby dear?
Out of the everywhere into here.

Where did you get those eyes so blue?
Out of the sky as I came through.

What makes the light in them sparkle and spin?
Some of the starry spikes left in.

Where did you get that little tear?
I found it waiting when I got here.

What makes your forehead so smooth and high?
A soft hand stroked it as I went by.

What makes your cheek like a warm white rose?
I saw something better than anyone knows.

Whence that three-cornered smile of bliss?
Three angels gave me at once a kiss.

Where did you get this pearly ear?
God spoke, and it came out to hear.

Where did you get those arms and hands?
Love made itself into bonds and bands.

Feet, whence did *you* come, you darling things?
From the same box as the cherub's wings.

How did they all just come to be you?
God thought about me, and so I grew.

But how did you come to *us*, you dear?
God thought about *you*, and so I am here.

GEORGE MACDONALD.

THE ANGEL'S WHISPER.

In Ireland they have a superstition that when a child smiles in its sleep, it is talking with angels.

A BABY was sleeping,
Its mother was weeping,
For her husband was far on the wild raging sea;
And the tempest was swelling
Round the fisherman's dwelling;
And she cried, "Dermot, darling, oh come back to me!"

Her beads while she numbered,
The baby still slumbered,
And smiled in her face as she bended her knee:
"Oh, blessed be that warning,
My child, thy sleep adorning,
For I know that the angels are whispering with thee.

"And while they are keeping
Bright watch o'er thy sleeping,
Oh, pray to them softly, my baby, with me!
And say thou wouldst rather
They'd watch o'er thy father!
For I know that the angels are whispering to thee."

The dawn of the morning
Saw Dermot returning,
And the wife wept with joy her babe's father to see;
And closely caressing
Her child with a blessing,
Said, "I knew that the angels were whispering with thee."

SAMUEL LOVER.

WILLIE WINKIE.

WEE Willie Winkie rins through the town,
Up-stairs and doon-stairs, in his nicht-gown,
Tirlin' at the window, cryin' at the lock,
"Are the weans in their bed?—for it's now ten o'clock."

Hey, Willie Winkie! are ye comin' ben?
The cat's singin' gay thrums to the sleepin' hen,
The doug's speldered on the floor, and disna gie a cheep;
But here's a waukrife laddie, that winna fa' asleep.

Ony thing but sleep, ye rogue! glow'rin' like the moon,
Rattlin' in an airn jug wi' an airn spoon,
Rumblin' tumblin' roun' about, crowin' like a cock,
Skirlin' like a kenna-what—wauknin sleepin' folk.

Hey, Willie Winkie! the wean 's in a creel!
Waumblin' aff a body's knee like a vera eel,
Ruggin' at the cat's lug, and ravellin' a' her thrums—
Hey, Willie Winkie!—See, there he comes!

Wearie is the mither that has a storie wean,
A wee stumpie stoussie, that canna rin his lane,
That has a battle aye wi' sleep, before he 'll close an ee;
But a kiss frae aff his rosy lips gies strength anew to me.

WILLIAM MILLER.

TIRED MOTHERS.

A LITTLE elbow leans upon your knee,
Your tired knee that has so much to bear;
A child's dear eyes are looking lovingly
From underneath a thatch of tangled hair.
Perhaps you do not heed the velvet touch
Of warm, moist fingers, folding yours so tight;
You do not prize this blessing overmuch,—
You almost are too tired to pray to-night.

But it is blessedness! A year ago
I did not see it as I do to-day—
We are so dull and thankless; and too slow
To catch the sunshine till it slips away.
And now it seems surpassing strange to me
That, while I wore the badge of motherhood,
I did not kiss more oft and tenderly
The little child that brought me only good.

And if some night when you sit down to rest,
You miss this elbow from your tired knee,—
This restless curling head from off your breast,—
This lisping tongue that chatters constantly;
If from your own the dimpled hands had slipped,
And ne'er would nestle in your palm again;
If the white feet into their grave had tripped,
I could not blame you for your heartache then.

I wonder so that mothers ever fret
At little children clinging to their gown;
Or that the footprints, when the days are wet,
Are ever black enough to make them frown.
If I could find a little muddy boot,
Or cap, or jacket, on my chamber-floor,—
If I could kiss a rosy, restless foot,
And hear it patter in my house once more,—

If I could mend a broken cart to-day,
To-morrow make a kite to reach the sky,
There is no woman in God's world could say
She was more blissfully content than I.
But ah! the dainty pillow next my own
Is never rumpled by a shining head;
My singing birdling from its nest has flown,
The little boy I used to kiss is dead.

MAY RILEY SMITH.

IF.

IF, sitting with this little, worn-out shoe
And scarlet stocking lying on my knee,
I knew the little feet had pattered through
The pearl-set gates that lie 'twixt Heaven and me,
I could be reconciled and happy, too,
And look with glad eyes toward the jasper sea.

If in the morning, when the song of birds
Reminds me of a music far more sweet,
I listen for his pretty, broken words,
And for the music of his dimpled feet,
I could be almost happy, though I heard
No answer, and but saw his vacant seat.

I could be glad if, when the day is done,
And all its cares and heartaches laid away,
I could look westward to the hidden sun,
And, with a heart full of sweet yearnings, say—
"To-night I'm nearer to my little one
By just the travel of a single day."

If I could know those little feet were shod
In sandals wrought of light in better lands,
And that the footprints of a tender God
Ran side by side with him, in golden sands,
I could bow cheerfully and kiss the rod,
Since Benny was in wiser, safer hands.

If he were dead, I would not sit to-day
And stain with tears the wee sock on my knee;
I would not kiss the tiny shoe and say—
"Bring back again my little boy to me!"
I would be patient, knowing 'twas God's way,
And wait to meet him o'er death's silent sea.

But oh! to know the feet, once pure and white,
The haunts of vice had boldly ventured in!
The hands that should have battled for the right
Had been wrung crimson in the clasp of sin!
And should he knock at Heaven's gate to-night,
To fear my boy could hardly enter in!

MAY RILEY SMITH.

BABY'S SHOES.

OH those little, those little blue shoes!
Those shoes that no little feet use.
Oh the price were high
That those shoes would buy,
Those little blue unused shoes!

For they hold the small shape of feet
That no more their mother's eyes meet,
That, by God's good will,
Years since, grew still,
And ceased from their totter so sweet.

And oh, since that baby slept,
So hushed, how the mother has kept,
With a tearful pleasure,
That little dear treasure,
And o'er them thought and wept!

For they mind her for evermore
Of a patter along the floor;
And blue eyes she sees
Look up from her knees
With the look that in life they wore.

As they lie before her there,
There babbles from chair to chair
A little sweet face
That's a gleam in the place,
With its little gold curls of hair.

Then oh, wonder not that her heart
From all else would rather part
Than those tiny blue shoes
That no little feet use,
And whose sight makes such fond tears start!

WILLIAM C. BENNETT.

RESIGNATION.

THERE is no flock, however watched and tended,
But one dead lamb is there!
There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has one vacant chair!

The air is full of farewells to the dying,
And mournings for the dead;
The heart of Rachael, for her children crying,
Will not be comforted!

Let us be patient! These severe afflictions
Not from the ground arise,
But oftentimes celestial benedictions
Assume this dark disguise.

We see but dimly through the mists and vapors;
Amid these earthly damps
What seem to us but sad, funereal tapers
May be heaven's distant lamps.

There is no Death! What seems so is transition;
This life of mortal breath
Is but a suburb of the life elysian,
Whose portal we call Death.

She is not dead,—the child of our affection,
But gone unto that school
Where she no longer needs our poor protection,
And Christ himself doth rule.

In that great cloister's stillness and seclusion,
By guardian angels led,
Safe from temptation, safe from sin's pollution,
She lives, whom we call dead.

Day after day we think what she is doing
In those bright realms of air;
Year after year, her tender steps pursuing,
Behold her grown more fair.

Thus do we walk with her, and keep unbroken
The bond which nature gives,
Thinking that our remembrance, though unspoken,
May reach her where she lives.

Not as a child shall we again behold her:
For when with raptures wild
In our embraces we again enfold her,
She will not be a child;

But a fair maiden, in her Father's mansion,
Clothed with celestial grace;
And beautiful with all the soul's expansion
Shall we behold her face.

And though at times impetuous with emotion
And anguish long suppressed,
The swelling heart heaves moaning like the ocean,
That cannot be at rest,—

We will be patient, and assuage the feeling
We may not wholly stay:
By silence sanctifying, not concealing,
The grief that must have way.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

PHILIP, MY KING.

'Who bears upon his baby brow the round
And top of sovereignty."

LOOK at me with thy large brown eyes,
Philip, my king!
Round whom the enshadowing purple lies
Of babyhood's royal dignities:

Lay on my neck thy tiny hand,
With love's invisible scepter laden;
I am thine Esther to command
Till thou shalt find a queen-handmaiden,
Philip, my king!

Oh, the day when thou goest a-wooing,
Philip, my king!
When those beautiful lips 'gin suing,
And, some gentle heart's bars undoing,
Thou dost enter, love-crown'd, and there
Sittest, love-glorified!—Rule kindly,
Tenderly, over thy kingdom fair;
For we that love, ah! we love so blindly,
Philip, my king!

Up from thy sweet mouth up to thy brow,
Philip, my king!
The spirit that there lies sleeping now
May rise like a giant, and make men bow
As to one heaven-chosen amongst his peers.
My Saul, than thy brethren taller and fairer
Let me behold thee in future years!
Yet thy head needeth a circlet rarer,
Philip, my king—

A wreath, not of gold, but palm. One day,
Philip, my king!
Thou, too, must tread, as we trod, a way
Thorny, and cruel, and cold, and gray;
Rebels within thee and foes without
Will snatch at thy crown. But march on, glorious,
Martyr, yet monarch! till angels shout,
As thou sitt'st at the feet of God victorious,
"Philip, the king!"

DINAH MULOCK CRAIK.

THE CHILD MUSICIAN.

HE had played for his lordship's levée,
He had played for her ladyship's whim,
Till the poor little head was heavy,
And the poor little brain would swim.

And the face grew peaked and eerie,
And the large eyes strange and bright,
And they said—too late—"He is weary!
He shall rest for at least to-night!"

But at dawn when the birds were waking,
As they watched in the silent room,
With a sound of a strained cord breaking,
A something snapped in the gloom.

'Twas a string of his violoncello,
And they heard him stir in bed—
"Make room for a tired little fellow,
Kind God!" was the last that he said.

AUSTIN DOBSON.

IF WE KNEW.

If we knew the woe and heart-ache
Waiting for us down the road,
If our lips could taste the wormwood,
If our backs could feel the load;
Would we waste to-day in wishing
For a time that ne'er can be;
Would we wait in such impatience
For our ships to come from sea?

If we knew the baby fingers
Pressed against the window-pane,
Would be cold and stiff to-morrow—
Never trouble us again;
Would the bright eyes of our darling
Catch the frown upon our brow?
Would the prints of rosy fingers
Vex us as they do now?

Ah, those little ice-cold fingers,
How they point our memories back
To the hasty words and actions
Strewn along our backward track!
How those little hands remind us,
As in snowy grace they lie,
Not to scatter thorns—but roses—
For our reaping by and by!

Strange we never prize the music
Till the sweet-voiced bird has flown;
Strange that we should slight the violets
Till the lovely flowers are gone.
Strange that summer skies and sunshine
Never seem one-half so fair
As when winter's snowy pinions
Shake their white down in the air!

Lips from which the seal of silence
None but God can roll away,
Never blossomed in such beauty
As adorns the mouth to-day:
And sweet words that freight our memory
With their beautiful perfume,
Come to us in sweeter accents
Through the portals of the tomb.

Let us gather up the sunbeams
Lying all along our path:
Let us keep the wheat and roses,
Casting out the thorns and chaff;
Let us find our sweetest comfort
In the blessings of *to-day*;
With a patient hand removing
All the briers from our way.

MAY RILEY SMITH.

OUR OWN.

If I had known in the morning
How wearily all the day
The words unkind
Would trouble my mind
I said when you went away,
I had been more careful, darling,
Nor given you needless pain;
But wevex "our own"
With look and tone,
We might never take back again.

For though in the quiet evening
You may give me the kiss of peace,
Yet it might be
That never for me
The pain of the heart should cease.
How many go forth in the morning
That never come home at night!
And hearts have broken
For harsh words spoken
That sorrow can ne'er set right.

We have careful thoughts for the stranger,
And smiles for the sometime guest;
But oft for "our own"
The bitter tone,
Though we love "our own" the best.
Ah! lips with the curve impatient;
Ah! brow with that look of scorn;
'Twere a cruel fate,
Were the night too late
To undo the work of morn.

MARGARET E. SANGSTER.

HE THAT LOVES A ROSY CHEEK.

He that loves a rosy cheek,
Or a coral lip admires,
Or from starlike eyes doth seek
Fuel to maintain his fires;
As old Time makes these decay,
So his flames must waste away.

But a smooth and steadfast mind,
Gentle thoughts, and calm desires,
Hearts with equal love combined,
Kindle never-dying fires;—
Where these are not, I despise
Lovely cheeks or lips or eyes.

THOMAS CAREW.

SHE WAS A PHANTOM OF DELIGHT.

SHE was a phantom of delight
When first she gleamed upon my sight;
A lovely apparition, sent
To be a moment's ornament;
Her eyes as stars of twilight fair;
Like Twilight's, too, her dusky hair;
But all things else about her drawn
From May-time and the cheerful dawn;
A dancing shape, an image gay,
To haunt, to startle, and waylay.

I saw her upon nearer view,
A spirit, yet a woman too!
Her household motions light and free,
And steps of virgin liberty;
A countenance in which did meet
Sweet records, promises as sweet;
A creature not too bright or good
For human nature's daily food;
For transient sorrows, simple wiles,
Praise, blame, love, kisses, tears, and smiles.

And now I see with eye serene
The very pulse of the machine;
A being breathing thoughtful breath,
A traveler between life and death;
The reason firm, the temperate will,
Endurance, foresight, strength, and skill;
A perfect woman, nobly planned,
To warn, to comfort, and command;
And yet a spirit still, and bright
With something of angelic light.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.

SHE IS NOT FAIR.

SHE is not fair to outward view,
As many maidens be:
Her loveliness I never knew
Until she smiled on me;
O then, I saw her eye was bright—
A well of love, a spring of light!

But now her looks are coy and cold:
To mine they ne'er reply;
And yet I cease not to behold
The love-light in her eye.
Her very frowns are better far
Than smiles of other maidens are.

HARTLEY COLERIDGE.

THE LANDLADY'S DAUGHTER.

THREE student-comrades crossed over the Rhine;
Together they stopped at a landlady's sign.

"Landlady, have you good ale and wine?
And where is that pretty young daughter of thine?"

"My ale and wine are fresh and clear;
My daughter lies on her funeral bier."

And when they passed to the chamber back,
There she lay, in her coffin black!

The first from her face the shroud-veil took,
And gazed upon her—a mournful look.

"Ah! wert thou but living, thou lovely maid,
I would love thee from this time," he said.

The second covered the altered face,
And turned him, weeping, from the place:

"That thou should'st lie on the funeral bier,
Whom I loved this many a year!"

But the last still snatched away the veil,
And kissed her on the mouth so pale:

"I loved thee ever—still I love thee,
Thee will I love through eternity!"

JOHANN LUDWIG UHLAND. (German.)
Translation of C. G. LELAND and J. W. PALMER.

BEWARE!

I KNOW a maiden fair to see:
Take care!
She can both false and friendly be:
Beware! Beware!
Trust her not;
She is fooling thee!

She has two eyes, so soft and brown:
Take care!
She gives a side-glance and looks down:
Beware! Beware!
Trust her not;
She is fooling thee!

And she has hair of a golden hue:
Take care!
And what she says it is not true:
Beware! Beware!
Trust her not;
She is fooling thee!

She has a bosom as white as snow :
Take care !
She knows how much it is best to show :
Beware ! Beware !
Trust her not ;
She is fooling thee !

She gives thee a garland woven fair :
Take care !
It is a fool's-cap for thee to wear :
Beware ! Beware !
Trust her not ;
She is fooling thee !

ANONYMOUS. (German.)
Translation of HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

THE MAIDEN'S CHOICE.

GENTEEL in personage,
Conduct and equipage ;
Noble by heritage,
Generous and free ;
Brave, not romantic ;
Learned, not pedantic :
Frolic, not frantic :
This must he be.

Honor maintaining,
Meanness disdaining,
Still entertaining,
Engaging and new ;
Neat, but not finical ;
Sage, but not cynical :
Never tyrannical,
But ever true.

HENRY FIELDING.

SONG.

THE world goes up, and the world goes down,
And the sunshine follows the rain ;
And yesterday's sneer and yesterday's frown
Can never come over again,
Sweet wife,
No, never come over again.

For woman is warm though man be cold,
And the night will hallow the day :
Till the heart which at even was weary and old
Can rise in the morning gay,
Sweet wife,
To its work in the morning gay.

CHARLES KINGSLEY.

JOHN ANDERSON MY JO.

JOHN ANDERSON my jo, John,
When we were first acquent,
Your locks were like the raven,
Your bonnie brow was brent ;
But now your brow is beld, John,
Your locks are like the snaw ;
But blessings on your frosty pow,
John Anderson my jo.

John Anderson my jo, John,
We clamb the hill thegither ;
And mony a canty day, John,
We've had wi' ane anither :
Now we maun totter down, John,
But hand-in-hand we'll go,
And sleep thegither at the foot,
John Anderson my jo.

ROBERT BURNS.

CHANGES.

WHOM first we love, you know, we seldom wed.
Time rules us all. And life, indeed, is not
The thing we planned it out ere hope was dead.
And then, we women cannot choose our lot.

Much must be borne which it is hard to bear ;
Much given away which it were sweet to keep.
God help us all ! who need, indeed, His care.
And yet, I know the Shepherd loves His sheep.

My little boy begins to babble now
Upon my knee his earliest infant prayer.
He has his father's eager eyes, I know ;
And, they say, too, his mother's sunny hair.

But when he sleeps and smiles upon my knee,
And I can feel his light breath come and go,
I think of one (Heaven help and pity me !)
Who loved me, and whom I loved, long ago ;

Who might have been . . . ah, what I dare not think !
We all are changed. God judges for us best.
God help us do our duty, and not shrink,
And trust in Heaven humbly for the rest.

But blame us women not, if some appear
Too cold at times ; and some too gay and light.
Some griefs gnaw deep. Some woes are hard to bear.
Who knows the past ? and who can judge us right ?

Ah, were we judged by what we might have been,
And not by what we are—too apt to fall !
My little child—he sleeps and smiles between
These thoughts and me. In heaven we shall know all !

ROBERT BULWER LYTTON.

SHE WALKS IN BEAUTY.

SHE walks in beauty like the night
Of cloudless climes and starry skies;
And all that's best of dark and bright
Meets in her aspect and her eyes;
Thus mellowed to that tender light
Which heaven to gaudy day denies.

One shade the more, one ray the less
Had half impaired the nameless grace
Which waves in every raven tress,
Or softly lightens o'er her face—
Where thoughts serenely sweet express
How pure, how dear their dwelling place.

And on that cheek, and o'er that brow,
So soft, so calm, yet eloquent,
The smiles that win, the tints that glow,
But tell of days in goodness spent,
A mind at peace with all below,
A heart whose love is innocent.

LORD BYRON.

THE LADY'S YES.

"YES!" I answered you last night:
"No!" this morning, sir, I say.
Colors seen by candle-light
Will not look the same by day.

When the tabors played their best,
Lamps above, and laughs below,
Love me sounded like a jest,
Fit for *Yes*, or fit for *No!*

Call me false; or call me free;
Vow, whatever light may shine,
No man on thy face shall see
Any grief for change on mine.

Yet the sin is on us both:
Time to dance is not to woo;
Wooer light makes fickle troth,
Scorn of *me* recoils on *you*.

Learn to win a lady's faith
Nobly as the thing is high,
Bravely as for life and death,
With a loyal gravity.

Lead her from the festive boards;
Point her to the starry skies;
Guard her by your faithful words,
Pure from courtship's flatteries.

By your truth she shall be true,
Ever true, as wives of yore;
And her *Yes*, once said to you,
Shall be Yes for evermore.

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING.

BEDOUIN SONG.

FROM the desert I come to thee,
On a stallion shod with fire;
And the winds are left behind
In the speed of my desire.
Under thy window I stand,
And the midnight hears my cry:
I love thee, I love but thee,
With a love that shall not die
Till the sun grows cold,
And the stars are old,
And the leaves of the Judgment
Book unfold!

Look from thy window, and see
My passion and my pain;
I lie on the sands below,
And I faint in thy disdain.
Let the night winds touch thy brow
With the heat of my burning sigh,
And melt thee to hear the vow
Of a love that shall not die
Till the sun grows cold,
And the stars are old,
And the leaves of the Judgment
Book unfold!

My steps are nightly driven,
By the fever in my breast,
To hear from thy lattice breathed
The word that shall give me rest.
Open the door of thy heart,
And open thy chamber door,
And my kisses shall teach thy lips
The love that shall fade no more
Till the sun grows cold,
And the stars are old,
And the leaves of the Judgment
Book unfold!

BAYARD TAYLOR.

JENNY KISSED ME.

JENNY kissed me when we met,
Jumping from the chair she sat in.
Time, you thief! who love to get
Sweets into your list, put that in.
Say I'm weary, say I'm sad;
Say that health and wealth have missed me;
Say I'm growing old, but add—
Jenny kissed me!

LEIGH HUNT.

LOVE'S PHILOSOPHY.

THE fountains mingle with the river,
And the rivers with the ocean;
The winds of heaven mix forever
With a sweet emotion;
Nothing in the world is single;
All things by a law divine
In one another's being mingle:
Why not I with thine?

See the mountains kiss high heaven,
And the waves clasp one another;
No sister flower would be forgiven
If it disdained its brother.
And the sunlight clasps the earth,
And the moonbeams kiss the sea:
What are all these kissings worth,
If thou kiss not me?

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY.

TOO LATE.

COULD ye come back to me, Douglas, Douglas,
In the old likeness that I knew,
I would be so faithful, so loving, Douglas:
Douglas, Douglas, tender and true!

Never a scornful word should grieve ye:
I'd smile on ye sweet as the angels do—
Sweet as your smile on me shone ever,
Douglas, Douglas, tender and true!

O! to call back the days that are not!
My eyes were blinded, your words were few.
Do you know the truth now, up in Heaven,
Douglas, Douglas, tender and true?

I never was worthy of you, Douglas,
Not half worthy the like of you!
Now all men beside seem to me like shadows;
I love YOU, Douglas, tender and true.

Stretch out your hand to me, Douglas, Douglas;
Drop forgiveness from Heaven like dew,
As I lay my heart on your dead heart, Douglas:
Douglas, Douglas, tender and true.

DINAH MARIA MULOCH.

WE HAVE BEEN FRIENDS TOGETHER.

WE have been friends together,
In sunshine and in shade,
Since first beneath the chestnut trees
In infancy we played;
But coldness dwells within thy heart,
A cloud is on thy brow.
We have been friends together:
Shall a light word part us now?

We have been gay together:
We have laughed at little jests;
For the fount of hope was gushing,
Warm and joyous, in our breasts;
But laughter now hath fled thy lip,
And sullen glooms thy brow.
We have been gay together:
Shall a light word part us now?

We have been sad together;
We have wept, with bitter tears,
O'er the grass-grown graves where slumbered
The hopes of early years;
The voices which are silent there
Would bid thee clear thy brow.
We have been sad together:
O! what shall part us now?

CAROLINE ELIZABETH NORTON.

THE BROOK-SIDE.

I WANDERED by the brook-side,
I wandered by the mill;
I could not hear the brook flow,
The noisy wheel was still;
There was no burr of grasshopper,
No chirp of any bird;
But the beating of my own heart
Was all the sound I heard.

I sat beneath the elm-tree;
I watched the long, long shade,
And, as it grew still longer,
I did not feel afraid;
For I listened for a footfall,
I listened for a word;
But the beating of my own heart
Was all the sound I heard.

He came not—no, he came not;
The night came on alone:
The little stars sat, one by one,
Each on his golden throne;
The evening wind passed by my cheek,
The leaves above were stirred;
But the beating of my own heart
Was all the sound I heard.

Fast silent tears were flowing,
When something stood behind;
A hand was on my shoulder,
I knew its touch was kind:
It drew me nearer—nearer,
We did not speak one word;
For the beating of our own hearts
Was all the sound we heard.

RICHARD MONCKTON MILNES.

AE FOND KISS.

AE fond kiss, and then we sever!
Ae fareweel, and then forever!
Deep in heart-wrung tears I'll pledge thee,
Warring sighs and groans I'll wage thee.
Who shall say that Fortune grieves him,
While the star of hope she leaves him?
Me—nae cheerful twinkle lights me;
Dark despair around benights me.

I'll ne'er blame my partial fancy,
Naething could resist my Nancy;
But to see her was to love her,
Love but her and love forever.
Had we never loved sae kindly,
Had we never loved sae blindly,
Never met—or never parted,
We had ne'er been broken-hearted.

Fare thee weel, thou first and fairest!
Fare thee weel, thou best and dearest!
Thine be ilka joy and treasure,
Peace, Enjoyment, Love, and Pleasure!
Ae fond kiss, and then we sever!
Ae fareweel, alas! forever!
Deep in heart-wrung tears I'll pledge thee,
Warring sighs and groans I'll wage thee.

ROBERT BURNS.

"FORGET THEE?"

"Forget thee?" If to dream by night,
And muse on thee by day,
If all the worship deep and wild
A poet's heart can pay,
If prayers in absence breathed for thee
To Heaven's protecting power,
If winged thoughts that flit to thee,—
A thousand in an hour,
If busy Fancy blending thee
With all my future lot,—
If this thou call'st "forgetting,"
Thou, indeed, shalt be forgot!

"Forget thee?" Bid the forest-birds
Forget their sweetest tune;
"Forget thee?" Bid the sea forget
To swell beneath the moon;
Bid the thirsty flowers forget to drink
The eve's refreshing dew;
Thyself forget thine own "dear land,"
And its "mountains wild and blue."
Forget each old familiar face,
Each long remembered spot,—
When these things are forgot by thee,
Then thou shalt be forgot!

Keep, if thou wilt, thy maiden peace,
Still calm and fancy free,
For God forbid thy gladsome heart
Should grow less glad for me;
Yet while that heart is still unwon,
Oh! bid not mine to rove,
But let it nurse its humble faith,
And uncomplaining love;—
If these preserved for patient years,
At last avail me not,
Forget me then;—but ne'er believe
That thou canst be forgot!

JOHN MOULTRIE.

GOOD-NIGHT.

GOOD-NIGHT to thee, lady!—though many
Have joined in the dance to-night,
Thy form was the fairest of any,
Where all was seducing and bright;
Thy smile was the softest and dearest,
Thy form the most sylph-like of all,
And thy voice the most gladsome and clearest
That e'er held a partner in thrall.

Good-night to thee, lady!—'tis over—
The waltz—the quadrille, and the song—
The whispered farewell of the lover,
The heartless adieu of the throng;
The heart that was throbbing with pleasure,
The eyelid that longed for repose—
The beaux that were dreaming of treasure,
The girls that were dreaming of beaux.

'Tis over—the lights are all dying,
The coaches all driving away;
And many a fair one is sighing,
And many a false one is gay;
And beauty counts over her numbers
Of conquests, as homeward she drives—
And some are gone home to their slumbers,
And some are gone home to their wives.

And I, while my cab in the shower
Is waiting, the last at the door,
And looking all round for the flower
That fell from your wreath on the floor.
I'll keep it—if but to remind me,
Though withered and faded its hue—
Wherever next season may find me—
Of England—of Almack's—and you!

There are tones that will haunt us, though lonely
Our path be o'er mountain or sea;
There are looks that will part from us only
When memory ceases to be;

There are hopes which our burden can lighten,
Though toilsome and steep be the way ;
And dreams that, like moonlight, can brighten,
With a light that is clearer than day.

There are names that we cherish, though nameless
For aye on the lip they may be ;
There are hearts that, though fettered, are tameless,
And thoughts unexpressed, but still free !
And some are too grave for a rover,
And some for a husband too light.
—The ball and my dream are all over—
Good-night to thee, lady ! good-night !

WINTHROP MACKWORTH PRAED.

MY VALENTINE.

HER eyes, that dance with roguish glee,
Can sparkle like the stars at night ;
When she bestows a smile on me
It thrills me with a strange delight ;
She knows I worship at her shrine,
This little lady-love of mine !

Her face is creamy white and fair,
While roses blush on either cheek ;
There's music in the world whene'er
This little beauty deigns to speak ;
For oh ! I deem her half divine,
This little lady-love of mine !

She has a slender little waist,
And lips like cherries, rosy red ;
The time I kissed her—just to taste,
Their flavor almost turned my head :
She's just as sweet as new made wine,
This little lady-love of mine !

Though other beauties I have met
Full worthy of a poet's song,
I never chanced to meet one yet
To whom so many charms belong ;
She cultivates the Muses nine,
This little lady-love of mine !

Her merry laugh and winning way,
The tender strains of song she sings,
The love-light in her eyes all day,
Have made me dream of wedding-rings ;
And she shall be my valentine,
This little lady-love of mine !

I prize her more than life or gold,
And love her more than I can tell ;
While wooing her I have enrolled
Myself as watchful sentinel ;
And she shall be my valentine,
This little lady-love of mine !

ALBERT ELLERY BERG.

EVELYN HOPE.

BEAUTIFUL Evelyn Hope is dead—
Sit and watch by her side an hour.
That is her book-shelf, this her bed ;
She plucked that piece of geranium flower,
Beginning to die, too, in the glass.
Little has yet been changed, I think—
The shutters are shut, no light may pass,
Save two long rays through the hinge's chink.

Sixteen years old when she died !
Perhaps she had scarcely heard my name—
It was not her time to love ; beside,
Her life had many a hope and aim,
Duties enough and little cares,
And now was quiet, now astir—
Till God's hand beckoned unawares,
And the sweet white brow is all of her.

Is it too late, then, Evelyn Hope ?
What, your soul was pure and true,
The good stars met in your horoscope,
Made you of spirit, fire and dew—
And just because I was thrice as old,
And our paths in the world diverged so wide,
Each was naught to each, must I be told ?
We were fellow-mortals, naught beside ?

No, indeed, for God above
Is great to grant, as mighty to make,
And creates the love to reward the love,—
I claim you still, for my own love's sake !
Delayed it may be for more lives yet,
Through worlds I shall traverse not a few—
Much is to learn and much to forget
Ere the time be come for taking you.

But the time will come—at last it will,
When, Evelyn Hope, what meant, I shall say,
In the lower earth, in the years long still,
That body and soul so pure and gay :—
Why your hair was amber, I shall divine,
And your mouth of your own geranium's red—
And what you would do with me, in fine,
In the new life come in the old one's stead.

I have lived, I shall say, so much since then,
Given up myself so many times,
Gained me the gains of various men,
Ransacked the ages, spoiled the climes ;—
Yet one thing, one, in my soul's full scope,
Either I missed or itself missed me—
And I want to find you, Evelyn Hope !
What is the issue ? let us see !

I loved you, Evelyn, all the while ;
My heart seemed full as it could hold—
There was place and to spare for the frank young smile,
And the red young mouth, and the hair's young gold.
So, hush,—I will give you this leaf to keep,—
See, I shut it inside the sweet, cold hand.
There, that is our secret ! go to sleep ;
You will wake, and remember, and understand.

ROBERT BROWNING.

SOMEBODY'S DARLING.

INTO a ward of the whitewashed walls,
Where the dead and dying lay,
Wounded by bayonets, shells, and balls,
Somebody's Darling was borne one day—
Somebody's Darling, so young and so brave,
Wearing yet on his pale, sweet face,
Soon to be hid by the dust of the grave,
The lingering light of his boyhood's grace.

Matted and damp are the curls of gold,
Kissing the snow of that fair young brow ;
Pale are the lips of delicate mould—
Somebody's darling is dying now.
Back from his beautiful blue-veined brow
Brush all the wandering waves of gold,
Cross his hands on his bosom now,
Somebody's Darling is still and cold.

Kiss him once for somebody's sake,
Murmur a prayer soft and low ;
One bright curl from its fair mates take,
They were somebody's pride, you know :
Somebody's hand had rested there,—
Was it a mother's soft and white ?
And have the lips of a sister fair
Been baptized in those waves of light ?

God knows best ; he has somebody's love ;
Somebody's heart enshrined him there ;
Somebody wafted his name above
Night and morn on the wings of prayer.
Somebody wept when he marched away,
Looking so handsome, brave, and grand ;
Somebody's kiss on his forehead lay,
Somebody clung to his parting hand.

Somebody's waiting and watching for him—
Yearning to hold him again to the heart ;
And there he lies with his blue eyes dim,
And the smiling childlike lips apart.
Tenderly bury the fair young dead,
Pausing to drop on his grave a tear ;
Carve on the wooden slab at his head,—
"Somebody's Darling slumbers here."

MARIE R. LACOSTE.

IN SCHOOL-DAYS.

STILL sits the school-house by the road,
A ragged beggar sunning ;
Around it still the sumachs grow,
And blackberry-vines are running.

Within, the master's desk is seen,
Deep scarred by raps official ;
The warping floor, the battered seats,
The jack-knife's carved initial ;

The charcoal frescoes on its wall ;
Its door's worn sill, betraying
The feet that, creeping slow to school,
Went storming out to playing !

Long years ago a winter sun
Shone over it at setting ;
Lit up its western window-panes,
And low eves' icy fretting.

It touched the tangled golden curls,
And brown eyes full of grieving,
Of one who still her steps delayed
When all the school were leaving.

For near her stood the little boy
Her childish favor singled ;
His cap pulled low upon a face
Where pride and shame were mingled.

Pushing with restless feet the snow
To right and left, he lingered ;—
As restlessly her tiny hands
The blue-checked apron fingered.

He saw her lift her eyes ; he felt
The soft hand's light caressing,
And heard the tremble of her voice,
As if a fault confessing.

"I'm sorry that I spelt the word :
I hate to go above you,
Because,"—the brown eyes lower fell,—
"Because, you see, I love you !"

Still memory to a gray-haired man
That sweet child-face is showing.
Dear girl ! the grasses on her grave
Have forty years been growing !

He lives to learn, in life's hard school,
How few who pass above him
Lament their triumph and his loss,
Like her,—because they love him.

JOHN G. WHITTIER.

FARE THEE WELL.

FARE thee well! and if forever,
Still forever, fare *thee well!*
Even though unforgiving, never
'Gainst thee shall my heart rebel.
Would that breast were bared before thee
Where thy head so oft has lain,
While that placid sleep came o'er thee
Which thou ne'er canst know again:
Would that breast, by thee glanced over,
Every inmost thought could show!
Then thou wouldst at last discover
'Twas not well to spurn it so.
Though the world for this commend thee,—
Though it smile upon the blow,
Even its praises must offend thee,
Founded on another's woe.
Though my many faults defaced me,
Could no other arm be found
Than the one which once embraced me,
To inflict a cureless wound?
Yet, oh yet, thyself deceive not;
Love may sink by slow decay,
But by sudden wrench, believe not
Hearts can thus be torn away:
Still thine own its life retaineth;
Still must mine, though bleeding, beat;
And the undying thought which paineth,
Is—that we no more may meet.
These are words of deeper sorrow
Than the wail above the dead;
Both shall live, but every morrow
Wake us from a widowed bed.
And when thou wouldst solace gather,
When our child's first accents flow,
Wilt thou teach her to say "Father!"
Though his care she must forego?
When her little hands shall press thee,
When her lip to thine is pressed,
Think of him whose prayer shall bless thee,
Think of him thy love had blessed!
Should her lineaments resemble
Those thou never more mayst see,
Then thy heart will softly tremble
With a pulse yet true to me.
All my faults perchance thou knowest,
All my madness none can know;
All my hopes, where'er thou goest,
Whither,—yet with *thee* they go.
Every feeling hath been shaken;
Pride, which not a world could bow,
Bows to thee,—by thee forsaken,
Even my soul forsakes me now;
But 'tis done,—all words are idle,—
Words from me are vainer still;
But the thoughts we cannot bridle
Force their way without the will.
Fare thee well! thus disunited,
Torn from every nearer tie,
Seared in heart, and love, and blighted,—
More than this I scarce can die.

LORD BYRON.

LADY CLARA VERE DE VERE.

LADY Clara Vere de Vere,
Of me you shall not win renown:
You thought to break a country heart
For pastime, ere you went to town.
At me you smiled, but unbeguiled
I saw the snare, and I retired:
The daughter of a hundred Earls,
You are not one to be desired.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
I know you proud to bear your name.
Your pride is yet no mate for mine,
Too proud to care from whence I came.
Nor would I break for your sweet sake
A heart that dotes on truer charms.
A simple maiden in her flower
Is worth a hundred coats-of-arms.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
Some meeker pupil you must find,
For were you queen of all that is,
I could not stoop to such a mind.
You sought to prove how I could love,
And my disdain is my reply.
The lion on your old stone gates
Is not more cold to you than I.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
You put strange memories in my head.
Not thrice your branching limes have blown
Since I beheld young Laurence dead.
Oh your sweet eyes, your low replies:
A great enchantress you may be;
But there was that across his throat
Which you had hardly cared to see.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
When thus he met his mother's view,
She had the passions of her kind,
She spake some certain truths of you.
Indeed I heard one bitter word
That scarce is fit for you to hear;
Her manners had not that repose
Which stamps the caste of Vere de Vere.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
  There stands a specter in your hall:
The guilt of blood is at your door:
  You changed a wholesome heart to gall.
You held your course without remorse,
  To make him trust his modest worth,
And, last, you fixed a vacant stare,
  And slew him with your noble birth.

Trust me, Clara Vere de Vere,
  From yon blue heavens above us bent,
The gardener Adam and his wife
  Smile at the claims of long descent.
Howe'er it be, it seems to me,
  'Tis only noble to be good.
Kind hearts are more than coronets,
  And simple faith than Norman blood.

I know you, Clara Vere de Vere;
  You pine among your halls and towers:
The languid light of your proud eyes
  Is wearied of the rolling hours.
In glowing health, with boundless wealth,
  But sickening of a vague disease,
You know so ill to deal with time,
  You needs must play such pranks as these.

Clara, Clara Vere de Vere,
  If Time be heavy on your hands,
Are there no beggars at your gate,
  Nor any poor about your lands?
Oh! teach the orphan-boy to read,
  Or teach the orphan-girl to sew,
Pray heaven for a human heart,
  And let the foolish yeoman go.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

AUF WIEDERSEHEN.

SUMMER.

THE little gate was reach'd at last,
  Half hid in lilacs down the lane;
She push'd it wide, and, as she past,
A wistful look she backward cast
  And said, *"Auf Wiedersehen!"*

With hand on latch, a vision white
  Lingered reluctant, and again,
Half doubting if she did aright,
Soft as the dews that fell that night,
  She said, *"Auf Wiedersehen!"*

The lamp's clear gleam flits up the stair;
  I linger in delicious pain;
Ah, in that chamber, whose rich air
To breathe in thought I scarcely dare,
  Thinks she, *"Auf Wiedersehen!"*

'Tis thirteen years: once more I press
  The turf that silences the lane;
I hear the rustle of her dress,
I smell the lilacs, and—ah yes,
  I hear, *"Auf Wiedersehen!"*

Sweet piece of bashful maiden art!
  The English words had seem'd too fain!
But these—they drew us heart to heart,
Yet held us tenderly apart;
  She said, *"Auf Wiedersehen!"*

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

THE LOVE-KNOT.

TYING her bonnet under her chin,
She tied her raven ringlets in;
But not alone in its silken snare
Did she catch her lovely floating hair,
For, tying her bonnet under her chin,
She tied a young man's heart within.

They were strolling together up the hill,
Where the wind comes blowing merry and chill;
And it blew the curls a frolicsome race
All over the happy peach-color'd face,
Till, scolding and laughing, she tied them in,
Under her beautiful dimpled chin.

And it blew a color, bright as the bloom
Of the pinkest fuchsia's tossing plume,
All over the cheeks of the prettiest girl
That ever imprison'd a romping curl,
Or, in tying her bonnet under her chin,
Tied a young man's heart within.

Steeper and steeper grew the hill—
Madder, merrier, chillier still
The western wind blew down and play'd
The wildest tricks with the little maid,
As, tying her bonnet under her chin,
She tied a young man's heart within.

O western wind, do you think it was fair
To play such tricks with her floating hair?
To gladly, gleefully do your best
To blow her against the young man's breast?
Where he as gladly folded her in;
He kiss'd her mouth and dimpled chin.

Oh, Ellery Vane, you little thought,
An hour ago, when you besought
This country lass to walk with you,
After the sun had dried the dew,
What perilous danger you'd be in,
As she tied her bonnet under her chin.

NORA PERRY

A MATCH.

If love were what the rose is,
And I were like the leaf,
Our lives would grow together,
In sad or singing weather,
Blown fields or flowerful closes,
Green pleasure of gray grief;
If love were what the rose is,
And I were like the leaf.

If I was what the words are,
And love were like the tune,
With double sound and single,
Delight our lips would mingle,
With kisses glad as birds are
That get sweet rain at noon;
If I were what the words are,
And love were like the tune.

If you were life, my darling,
And I, your love, were death,
We'd shine and snow together,
Ere March made sweet the weather
With daffodil and starling
And hours of fruitful breath;
If you were life, my darling,
And I, your love, were death.

If you were thrall to sorrow,
And I were page to joy,
We'd play for lives and seasons,
With loving looks and treasons,
And tears of night and morrow,
And laughs of maid and boy;
If you were thrall to sorrow,
And I were page to joy.

If you were April's lady,
And I were lord in May,
We'd throw with leaves for hours,
And draw for days with flowers,
Till day like night were shady,
And night were bright like day;
If you were April's lady,
And I were lord in May.

If you were queen of pleasure,
And I were king of pain,
We'd hunt down love together,
Pluck out his flying-feather,
And teach his feet a measure,
And find his mouth a rein;
If you were queen of pleasure,
And I were king of pain.

ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE.

PLIGHTED.

Mine to the core of the heart, my beauty!
Mine, all mine, and for love, not duty:
Love given willingly, full and free,
Love for love's sake—as mine to thee.
Duty's a slave that keeps the keys,
But love, the master, goes in and out
Of his goodly chambers with song and shout,
Just as he please—just as he please.

Mine, from the dear head's crown, brown-golden,
To the silken foot that 's scarce beholden;
Give a few friends hand or smile,
Like a generous lady, now and awhile,
But the sanctuary heart, that none dare win,
Keep holiest of holiest evermore;
The crowd in the aisles may watch the door,
The high-priest only enters in.

Mine, my own, without doubts or terrors,
With all thy goodnesses, all thy errors,
Unto me and to me alone revealed,
"A spring shut up, a fountain sealed."
Many may praise thee—praise mine as thine,
Many may love thee—I 'll love them too:
But thy heart of hearts, pure, faithful, and true,
Must be mine, mine wholly, and only mine.

Mine!—God, I thank thee that thou hast given
Something all mine on this side of heaven;
Something as much myself to be
As this my soul which I lift to thee:
Flesh of my flesh, bone of my bone,
Life of my life, whom thou dost make
Two to the world for the world's work's sake—
But each unto each, as in thy sight, *one*.

DINAH MULOCK CRAIK.

A HEALTH.

I fill this cup to one made up
Of loveliness alone,
A woman, of her gentle sex
The seeming paragon;
To whom the better elements
And kindly stars have given
A form so fair, that, like the air,
'Tis less of earth than heaven.

Her very tone is music's own,
Like those of morning birds,
And something more than melody
Dwells ever in her words;
The coinage of her heart are they,
And from her lips each flows
As one may see the burdened bee
Forth issue from the rose.

Affections are as thoughts to her,
The measures of her hours;
Her feelings have the fragrancy,
The freshness of young flowers;
And lovely passions, changing oft,
So fill her, she appears
The image of themselves by turns,—
The idol of past years!

Of her bright face one glance will trace
A picture on the brain,
And of her voice in echoing hearts
A sound must long remain;
But memory, such as mine of her,
So very much endears,
When death is nigh, my latest sigh
Will not be life's, but hers.

I fill this cup to one made up
Of loveliness alone,
A woman, of her gentle sex
The seeming paragon,—
Her health! and would on earth there stood
Some more of such a frame,
That life might be all poetry,
And weariness a name.

EDWARD COATES PINCKNEY

EXILE OF ERIN.

THERE came to the beach a poor Exile of Erin,
The dew on his thin robe was heavy and chill;
For his country he sighed when at twilight repairing
To wander alone by the wind-beaten hill.
But the day-star attracted his eye's sad devotion,
For it rose o'er his own native isle of the ocean,
Where once, in the fire of his youthful emotion,
He sang the bold anthen of Erin go bragh!

"Sad is my fate!" said the heart-broken stranger;
"The wild deer and wolf to a covert can flee;
But I have no refuge from famine and danger,
A home and a country remain not to me.
Never again in the green sunny bowers
Where my forefathers lived shall I spend the sweet hours,
Or cover my heart with the wild woven flowers,
And strike to the numbers of Erin go bragh!

"Erin my country! though sad and forsaken,
In dreams I revisit thy sea-beaten shore;
But alas! in a fair foreign land I awaken,
And sigh for the friends who can meet me no more.
O cruel Fate! wilt thou never replace me
In a mansion of peace, where no perils can chase me?
Never again shall my brothers embrace me?
They died to defend me, or live to deplore!

"Where is my cabin-door, fast by the wild-wood?
Sisters and sire, did ye weep for its fall?
Where is the mother that looked on my childhood?
And where is the bosom friend, dearer than all?
Oh, my sad heart! long abandoned by pleasure,
Why did it dote on a fast-fading treasure?
Tears like the rain-drop may fall without measure,
But rapture and beauty they cannot recall.

"Yet, all its sad recollection suppressing,
One dying wish my lone bosom can draw:
Erin! an exile bequeaths thee his blessing!
Land of my forefathers—Erin go bragh!
Buried and cold, when my heart stills her motion,
Green be thy fields, sweetest isle of the ocean!
And thy harp-striking bards sing aloud with devotion,
Erin mavourneen—Erin go bragh!"

THOMAS CAMPBELL.

BATTLE-HYMN OF THE REPUBLIC.

MINE eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord:
He is trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are stored!
He hath loosed the fateful lightnings of his terrible swift sword:
His truth is marching on.

I have seen him in the watch-fires of a hundred circling camps;
They have builded him an altar in the evening dews and damps;
I can read his righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps:
His day is marching on.

I have read a fiery gospel, writ in burnished rows of steel,
"As ye deal with my contemners, so with you my grace shall deal;
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with his heel,
Since God is marching on."

He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before his judgment-seat;
O, be swift, my soul, to answer him! be jubilant, my feet!
Our God is marching on.

In the beauty of the lilies Christ was born across the sea,
With a glory in his bosom that transfigures you and me;
As he died to make men holy, let us die to make men free,
While God is marching on.

JULIA WARD HOWE

ELEGY WRITTEN IN A COUNTRY CHURCH-YARD.

THE curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds:

Save that from yonder ivy-mantled tower,
The moping owl does to the moon complain
Of such as, wandering near her secret bower,
Molest her ancient solitary reign.

Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,
The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn,
Or busy housewife ply her evening care;
No children run to lisp their sire's return,
Or climb his knees the envied kiss to share.

Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield,
Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke;
How jocund did they drive their team afield!
How bowed the woods beneath their sturdy stroke!

Let not ambition mock their useful toil,
Their homely joys, and destiny obscure:
Nor grandeur hear with a disdainful smile
The short and simple annals of the poor.

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour:
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

Nor you, ye proud, impute to these the fault,
If memory o'er their tomb no trophies raise,
Where through the long-drawn aisle and fretted vault
The pealing anthem swells the note of praise.

Can storied urn, or animated bust,
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?
Can honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?

Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire;
Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed,
Or waked to ecstasy the living lyre;

But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page
Rich with the spoils of time did ne'er unroll;
Chill penury repressed their noble rage,
And froze the genial current of the soul.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

Some village Hampden, that, with dauntless breast,
The little tyrant of his fields withstood,
Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest,
Some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood.

The applause of listening senates to command,
The threats of pain and ruin to despise,
To scatter plenty o'er a smiling land,
And read their history in a nation's eyes,

Their lot forbade; nor circumscribed alone
Their growing virtues, but their crimes confined;
Forbade to wade through slaughter to a throne,
And shut the gates of mercy on mankind.

The struggling pangs of conscious truth to hide,
To quench the blushes of ingenuous shame,
Or heap the shrine of luxury and pride
With incense kindled at the Muse's flame.

Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife,
Their sober wishes never learned to stray;
Along the cool sequestered vale of life
They kept the noiseless tenor of their way.

Yet even these bones from insult to protect,
Some frail memorial still erected nigh,
With uncouth rhymes and shapeless sculpture decked,
Implores the passing tribute of a sigh.

Their name, their years, spelt by the unlettered Muse
The place of fame and elegy supply:
And many a holy text around she strews,
That teach the rustic moralist to die.

For who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing anxious being e'er resigned,
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, lingering look behind?

On some fond breast the parting soul relies,
Some pious drops the closing eye requires;
E'en from the tomb the voice of nature cries,
E'en in our ashes live their wonted fires.

For thee, who, mindful of the unhonored dead,
Dost in these lines their artless tale relate;
If chance, by lonely contemplation led,
Some kindred spirit shall inquire thy fate,—

Haply some hoary-headed swain may say:
"Oft have we seen him at the peep of dawn
Brushing with hasty steps the dews away,
To meet the sun upon the upland lawn.

"There at the foot of yonder nodding beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
And pour upon the brook that babbles by.

"Hard by yon wood, now smiling as in scorn,
Muttering his wayward fancies he would rove;
Now drooping, woful-wan, like one forlorn,
Or crazed with care, or crossed in hopeless love.

"One morn I missed him on the customed hill,
Along the heath, and near his favorite tree;
Another came; nor yet beside the rill,
Nor up the lawn, nor at the wood was he.

"The next, with dirges due in sad array,
Slow through the church-way path we saw him borne;—
Approach and read (for thou canst read) the lay
Graved on the stone beneath yon aged thorn."

THE EPITAPH.

Here rests his head upon the lap of earth,
A youth, to fortune and to fame unknown;
Fair Science frowned not on his humble birth,
And Melancholy marked him for her own.

Large was his bounty, and his soul sincere,
Heaven did a recompense as largely send;
He gave to misery (all he had) a tear,
He gained from Heaven ('twas all he wished) a friend.

No farther seek his merits to disclose,
Or draw his frailties from their dread abode;
(There they alike in trembling hope repose),
The bosom of his Father and his God.

THOMAS GRAY.

THANATOPSIS.

To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musing with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness ere he is aware. When thoughts
Of the last bitter hour come like a blight
Over thy spirit, and sad images
Of the stern agony, and shroud, and pall,
And breathless darkness, and the narrow house,
Make thee to shudder and grow sick at heart—
Go forth under the open sky, and list
To Nature's teachings, while from all around—
Earth and her waters, and the depths of air—
Comes a still voice,—Yet a few days, and thee
The all-beholding sun shall see no more
In all his course; nor yet in the cold ground,
Where thy pale form was laid, with many tears,
Nor in the embrace of ocean, shall exist
Thy image. Earth, that nourished thee, shall claim
Thy growth, to be resolved to earth again;
And, lost each human trace, surrendering up
Thine individual being, shalt thou go
To mix forever with the elements—
To be a brother to the insensible rock,
And to the sluggish clod, which the rude swain
Turns with his share, and treads upon. The oak
Shall send his roots abroad; and pierce thy mold.
Yet not to thine eternal resting-place
Shalt thou retire alone; nor couldst thou wish
Couch more magnificent. Thou shalt lie down
With patriarchs of the infant world—with kings,
The powerful of the earth, the wise, the good,
Fair forms, and hoary seers of ages past,
All in one mighty sepulchre. The hills,
Rock-ribbed, and ancient as the sun; the vales
Stretching in pensive quietness between;
The venerable woods; rivers that move
In majesty, and the complaining brooks,
That make the meadows green; and, poured round all,
Old ocean's gray and melancholy waste—
Are but the solemn decorations all
Of the great tomb of man! The golden sun,
The planets, all the infinite host of heaven,
Are shining on the sad abodes of death,
Through the still lapse of ages. All that tread
The globe are but a handful to the tribes
That slumber in its bosom. Take the wings
Of morning, traverse Barca's desert sands,
Or lose thyself in the continuous woods
Where rolls the Oregon, and hears no sound
Save his own dashings—yet the dead are there!
And millions in those solitudes, since first
The flight of years began, have laid them down
In their last sleep—the dead reign there alone!
So shalt thou rest; and what if thou withdraw
In silence from the living, and no friend
Take note of thy departure? All that breathe
Will share thy destiny. The gay will laugh
When thou art gone, the solemn brood of care

Plod on, and each one as before will chase
His favorite phantom; yet all these shall leave
Their mirth and their employments, and shall come
And make their bed with thee. As the long train
Of ages glides away, the sons of men—
The youth in life's green spring, and he who goes
In the full strength of years, matron and maid,
And the sweet babe and the gray-headed man—
Shall, one by one, be gathered to thy side
By those who in their turn shall follow them.
So live, that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan that moves
To that mysterious realm where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not like the quarry-slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon; but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

I AM dying, Egypt, dying,
Ebbs the crimson life-tide fast,
And the dark Plutonian shadows
Gather on the evening blast;
Let thine arms, O Queen, infold me;
Hush thy sobs and bow thine ear;
Listen to the great heart-secrets,
Thou, and thou alone, must hear.

Though my scarred and veteran legions
Bear their eagles high no more,
And my wrecked and scattered galleys
Strew dark Actium's fatal shore;
Though no glittering guards surround me,
Prompt to do their master's will,
I must perish like a Roman,
Die the great Triumvir still.

Let not Cæsar's servile minions
Mock the lion thus laid low;
'Twas no foeman's arm that felled him—
'Twas his own that struck the blow,—
His who, pillowed on thy bosom,
Turned aside from glory's ray—
His who, drunk with thy caresses,
Madly threw a world away.

Should the base plebeian rabble
Dare assail my name at Rome,
Where my noble spouse, Octavia,
Weeps within her widowed home,
Seek her; say the gods bear witness—
Altars, augurs, circling wings—
That her blood, with mine commingled,
Yet shall mount the throne of kings.

As for thee, star-eyed Egyptian!
Glorious sorceress of the Nile,
Light the path to Stygian horrors
With the splendors of thy smile.
Give the Cæsar crowns and arches,
Let his brow the laurel twine;
I can scorn the Senate's triumphs,
Triumphing in love like thine.

I am dying, Egypt, dying;
Hark! the insulting foeman's cry.
They are coming! quick, my falchion!
Let me front them ere I die.
Ah! no more amid the battle
Shall my heart exulting swell—
Isis and Osiris guard thee!
Cleopatra, Rome, farewell!

WILLIAM HAINES LYTLE.

LOCKSLEY HALL.

COMRADES, leave me here a little, while as yet 't is early morn—
Leave me here, and when you want me, sound upon the bugle horn.

'Tis the place, and all around it, as of old, the curlews call,
Dreary gleams about the moorland, flying over Locksley Hall;

Locksley Hall, that in the distance overlooks the sandy tracks,
And the hollow ocean-ridges roaring into cataracts.

Many a night from yonder ivied casement, ere I went to rest,
Did I look on great Orion sloping slowly to the west.

Many a night I saw the Pleiads, rising through the mellow shade,
Glitter like a swarm of fire-flies tangled in a silver braid.

Here about the beach I wandered, nourishing a youth sublime
With the fairy tales of science, and the long result of time;

When the centuries behind me like a fruitful land reposed;
When I clung to all the present for the promise that it closed;

When I dip into the future far as human eye could see—
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be.

In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest;

In the spring a livelier iris changes on the burnished dove;
In the spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love.

Then her cheek was pale and thinner than should be for one so young,
And her eyes on all my motions with a mute observance hung.

And I said, "My cousin Amy, speak, and speak the truth to me;
Trust me, cousin, all the current of my being sets to thee."

On her pallid cheek and forehead came a color and a light,
As I have seen the rosy red flushing in the northern night.

And she turned—her bosom shaken with a sudden storm of sighs—
All the spirit deeply dawning in the dark of hazel eyes—

Saying, "I have hid my feelings, fearing they should do me wrong;"
Saying, "Dost thou love me, cousin?" weeping, "I have loved thee long."

Love took up the glass of time, and turned it in his glowing hands;
Every moment, lightly shaken, ran itself in golden sands.

Love took up the harp of life, and smote on all the chords with might;
Smote the chord of self, that, trembling, passed in music out of sight.

Many a morning on the moorland did we hear the copses ring,
And her whisper thronged my pulses with the fullness of the spring.

Many an evening by the waters did we watch the stately ships,
And our spirits rushed together at the touching of the lips.

Oh my cousin, shallow-hearted! Oh my Amy, mine no more!
Oh the dreary, dreary moorland! Oh the barren, barren shore!

Falser than all fancy fathoms, falser than all songs have sung—
Puppet to a father's threat, and servile to a shrewish tongue!

Is it well to wish thee happy?—having known me; to decline
On a range of lower feelings and a narrower heart than mine!

Yet it shall be: thou shalt lower to his level day by day,
What is fine within thee growing coarse to sympathize with clay.

As the husband is, the wife is; thou art mated with a clown,
And the grossness of his nature will have weight to drag thee down.

He will hold thee, when his passion shall have spent its novel force,
Something better than his dog, a little dearer than his horse.

What is this? his eyes are heavy—think not they are glazed with wine.
Go to him; it is thy duty—kiss him; take his hand in thine.

It may be my lord is weary, that his brain is overwrought—
Sooth him with thy finer fancies, touch him with thy lighter thought.

He will answer to the purpose, easy things to understand—
Better thou wert dead before me, though I slew thee with my hands.

Better thou and I were lying, hidden from the heart's disgrace,
Rolled in one another's arms, and silent in a last embrace.

Cursed be the social wants that sin against the strength of youth!
Cursed be the social lies that warp us from the living truth!

Cursed be the sickly forms that err from honest nature's rule!
Cursed be the gold that gilds the straitened forehead of the fool!

Well—'tis well that I should bluster!—Hadst thou less unworthy proved,
Would to God—for I had loved thee more than ever wife was loved.

Am I mad, that I should cherish that which bears but bitter fruit?
I will pluck it from my bosom, though my heart be at the root.

Never! though my mortal summers to such length of years should come
As the many-wintered crow that leads the clanging rookery home.

Where is comfort? in division of the records of the mind?
Can I part her from herself, and love her, as I knew her, kind?

I remember one that perished; sweetly did she speak and move;
Such a one do I remember, whom to look at was to love.

Can I think of her as dead, and love her for the love she bore?
No—she never loved me truly; love is love for evermore.

Comfort? comfort scorned of devils! this is truth the poet sings,
That a sorrow's crown of sorrow is remembering happier things.

Drug my memories, lest thou learn it, lest thy heart be put to proof,
In the dead, unhappy night, and when the rain is on the roof.

Like a dog, he hunts in dreams; and thou art staring at the wall,
Where the dying night-lamp flickers, and the shadows rise and fall.

Then a hand shall pass before thee, pointing to his drunken sleep,
To thy widowed marriage-pillows, to the tears that thou wilt weep.

Thou shalt hear the "Never, never," whispered by the phantom years,
And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears;

And an eye shall vex thee, looking ancient kindness on thy pain.
Turn thee, turn thee on thy pillow; get thee to thy rest again.

Nay, but nature brings thee solace; for a tender voice will cry;
'Tis a purer life than thine; a lip to drain thy trouble dry.

Baby lips will laugh me down; my latest rival brings thee rest—
Baby fingers, waxen touches, press me from the mother's breast.

Oh, the child, too, clothes the father with a dearness not his due;
Half is thine, and half is his—it will be worthy of the two.

Oh, I see thee, old and formal, fitted to thy petty part,
With a little hoard of maxims preaching down a daughter's heart:

"They were dangerous guides the feelings—she herself was not exempt—
Truly, she herself had suffered."—Perish in thy self-contempt!

Overlive it—lower yet—be happy! wherefore should I care?
I myself must mix with action, lest I wither by despair.

What is that which I should turn to, lighting upon days like these?
Every door is barred with gold, and opens but to golden keys.

Every gate is thronged with suitors; all the markets overflow.
I have but an angry fancy: what is that which I should do?

I had been content to perish, falling on the foeman's ground,
When the ranks are rolled in vapor, and the winds are laid with sound.

But the jingling of the guinea helps the hurt that honor feels,
And the nations do but murmur, snarling at each other's heels.

Can I but relieve in sadness? I will turn that earlier page.
Hide me from my deep emotion, O thou wondrous mother-age!

Make me feel the wild pulsation that I felt before the strife,
When I heard my days before me, and the tumult of my life;

Yearning for the large excitement that the coming years would yield—
Eager-hearted as a boy when first he leaves his father's field,

And at night along the dusky highway near and nearer dawn,
Sees in heaven the light of London flaring like a dreary dawn;

And his spirit leaps within him to be gone before him then,
Underneath the light he looks at, in among the throngs of men—

Men, my brothers, men the workers, ever reaping something new:
That which they have done but earnest of the things that they shall do;

For I dipt into the future far as human eye could see—
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be—

Saw the heavens filled with commerce, argosies of magic sails,
Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales—

Heard the heavens filled with shouting, and there rained a ghastly dew
From the nation's airy navies grappling in the central blue;

Far along the world-wide whisper of the south-wind rushing warm,
With the standards of the people plunging through the thunder-storm;

Till the war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle-flags were furled
In the parliament of man, the federation of the world.

There the common sense of most shall hold a fretful realm in awe,
And the kindly earth shall slumber, lapt in universal law.

So I triumphed, ere my passion sweeping through me, left me dry,
Left me with the palsied heart, and left me with the jaundiced eye—

Eye, to which all other festers, all things here are out of joint.
Science moves, but slowly, slowly, creeping on from point to point;

Slowly comes a hungry people, as a lion, creeping nigher,
Glares at one that nods and winks behind a slowly-dying fire.

Yet I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns.

What is that to him that reaps not harvest of his youthful joys,
Though the deep heart of existence beat forever like a boy's?

Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers; and I linger on the shore,
And the individual withers, and the world is more and more.

Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers, and he bears a laden breast,
Full of sad experience moving toward the stillness of his rest.

Hark! my merry comrades call me, sounding on the bugle horn—
They to whom my foolish passion were a target for their scorn;

Shall it not be scorn to me to harp on such a mouldered string?
I am shamed through all my nature to have loved so slight a thing.

Weakness to be wrought with weakness! woman's pleasure, woman's pain—
Nature made them blinder motions bounded in a shallower brain;

Woman is the lesser man, and all thy passions, matched with mine,
Are as moonlight unto sunlight, and as water unto wine—

Here at least, where nature sickens, nothing. Ah, for some retreat
Deep in yonder shining orient, where my life began to beat!

Where in wild Mahratta-battle fell my father, evil-starred;
I was left a trampled orphan, and a selfish uncle's ward.

Or to burst all links of habit—there to wander far away,
On from island unto island at the gateways of the day—

Larger constellations burning, mellow moons and happy skies,
Breadths of tropic shade and palms in cluster, knots of Paradise.

Never comes the trader, never floats an European flag—
Slides the bird o'er lustrous woodland, droops the trailer from the crag—

Droops the heavy-blossomed bower, hangs the heavy-fruited tree—
Summer isles of Eden lying in dark-purple spheres of sea.

There, methinks, would be enjoyment more than in this march of mind—
In the steamship, in the railway, in the thoughts that shake mankind.

There the passions, cramped no longer, shall have scope and breathing-space ;
I will take some savage woman, she shall rear my dusky race.

Iron-jointed, supple-sinewed, they shall dive and they shall run,
Catch the wild goat by the hair, and hurl their lances in the sun.

Whistle back the parrot's call, and leap the rainbows of the brooks,
Not with blinded eyesight poring over miserable books—

Fool, again the dream, the fancy ! but I know my words are wild,
But I count the gray barbarian lower than the Christian child.

I, to herd with narrow foreheads, vacant of our glorious gains,
Like a beast with lower pleasures, like a beast with lower pains !

Mated with a squalid savage—what to me were sun or clime ?
I, the heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time—

I, that rather held it better men should perish one by one,
Than that earth should stand at gaze like Joshua's moon in Ajalon !

Not in vain the distance beacons. Forward, forward let us range ;
Let the great world spin forever down the ringing grooves of change.

Through the shadow of the globe we sweep into the younger day :
Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay.

Mother-age (for mine I knew not), help me as when life begun—
Rift the hills, and roll the waters, flash the lightnings, weigh the sun—

Oh, I see the crescent promise of my spirit hath not set ;
Ancient founts of inspiration well through all my fancy yet.

Howsoever these things be, a long farewell to Locksley Hall !
Now for me the woods may wither, now for me the roof-tree fall.

Comes a vapor from the margin, blackening over heath and holt,
Cramming all the blast before it, in its breast a thunder-bolt.

Let it fall on Locksley Hall, with rain or hail, or fire or snow ;
For the mighty wind arises, roaring seaward, and I go.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.

IT was a summer evening,
Old Kaspar's work was done,
And he before his cottage door
Was sitting in the sun,
And by him sported on the green
His little grandchild Wilhelmine.

She saw her brother Peterkin
Roll something large and round,
Which he beside the rivulet,
In playing there, had found ;
He came to ask what he had found,
That was so large, and smooth, and round.

Old Kaspar took it from the boy,
Who stood expectant by ;
And then the old man shook his head,
And with a natural sigh,
"'Tis some poor fellow's skull," said he,
"Who fell in the great victory.

"I find them in the garden,
For there's many here about ;
And often, when I go to plough,
The ploughshare turns them out !
For many thousand men," said he,
"Were slain in that great victory."

"Now tell us what 'twas all about,"
Young Peterkin he cries;
While little Wilhelmine looks up
With wonder-waiting eyes;
"Now tell us all about the war,
And what they fought each other for."

"It was the English," Kaspar cried,
"Who put the French to rout;
But what they fought each other for,
I could not well make out.
But everybody said," quoth he,
"That 'twas a famous victory.

"My father lived at Blenheim then,
Yon little stream hard by;
They burnt his dwelling to the ground,
And he was forced to fly;
So with his wife and child he fled,
Nor had he where to rest his head.

"With fire and sword the country round
Was wasted far and wide;
And many a childing mother, then,
And new-born baby died;
But things like that, you know, must be
At every famous victory.

"They say it was a shocking sight
After the field was won;
For many thousand bodies here
Lay rotting in the sun;
But things like that, you know, must be
After a famous victory.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlbro' won,
And our good prince Eugene."
"Why, 'twas a very wicked thing!"
Said little Wilhelmine.
"Nay—nay—my little girl," quoth he,
"It was a famous victory.

"And everybody praised the Duke
Who this great fight did win."
"And what good came of it at last?"
Quoth little Peterkin.
"Why, that I cannot tell," said he;
"But 'twas a famous victory."

ROBERT SOUTHEY.

LOCHINVAR.

LADY HERON'S SONG, FROM "MARMION."

OH, young Lochinvar is come out of the west;
Through all the wide Border his steed was the best;
And save his good broadsword he weapon had none;
He rode all unarmed, and he rode all alone.
So faithful in love, and so dauntless in war,
There never was knight like the young Lochinvar.

He stayed not for brake and he stopped not for stone:
He swam the Esk River where ford there was none:
But ere he alighted at Netherby gate,
The bride had consented, the gallant came late;
For a laggard in love and a dastard in war
Was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

So boldly he entered the Netherby hall,
Among bridesmen and kinsmen, and brothers and all:
Then spoke the bride's father, his hand on his sword,
(For the poor craven bridegroom said never a word),
"O, come ye in peace here or come ye in war,
Or to dance at our bridal, young Lord Lochinvar?"

"I long wooed your daughter, my suit you denied:
Love swells like the Solway, but ebbs like its tide;
And now am I come, with this lost love of mine
To lead but one measure, drink one cup of wine.
There are maidens in Scotland, more lovely by far,
That would gladly be bride to the young Lochinvar!"

The bride kissed the goblet, the knight took it up;
He quaffed off the wine, and he threw down the cup.
She looked down to blush, and she looked up to sigh,
With a smile on her lips and a tear in her eye.
He took her soft hand ere her mother could bar;
"Now tread we a measure!" said young Lochinvar.

So stately his form, and so lovely her face,
That never a hall such a galliard did grace;
While her mother did fret and her father did fume,
And the bridegroom stood dangling his bonnet and plume,
And the bride-maidens whispered, "'Twere better by far,
To have matched our fair cousin with young Lochinvar!"

One touch to her hand and one word in her ear,
When they reached the hall door and the charger stood near;
So light to the croup the fair lady he swung,
So light to the saddle before her he sprung.
"She is won! we are gone, over bank, bush, and scaur;
They'll have fleet steeds that follow!" quoth young Lochinvar.

There was mounting 'mong Græmes of the Netherby clan;
Fosters, Fenwicks, and Musgraves, they rode and they ran;
There was racing and chasing on Canonbie Lee,—
But the lost bride of Netherby ne'er did they see!
So daring in love and so dauntless in war,
Have ye e'er heard of gallant like young Lochinvar?

SIR WALTER SCOTT.

BINGEN ON THE RHINE.

A SOLDIER of the Legion lay dying in Algiers :
There was lack of woman's nursing, there was dearth of woman's tears ;
But a comrade stood beside him, while his life-blood ebbed away,
And bent with pitying glances, to hear what he might say.
The dying soldier faltered, as he took that comrade's hand,
And he said : "I never more shall see my own, my native land.
Take a message and a token to some distant friends of mine ;
For I was born at Bingen—at Bingen on the Rhine.

"Tell my brothers and companions, when they meet and crowd around,
To hear my mournful story, in the pleasant vineyard ground,
That we fought the battle bravely ; and when the day was done,
Full many a corse lay ghastly pale beneath the setting sun.
And 'midst the dead and dying were some grown old in wars,
The death-wounds on their gallant breasts the last of many scars ;
But some were young, and suddenly beheld life's morn decline ;
And one had come from Bingen—fair Bingen on the Rhine !

"Tell my mother that her other sons shall comfort her old age,
For I was still a truant bird that thought his home a cage ;
For my father was a soldier, and even as a child
My heart leaped forth to hear him tell of struggles fierce and wild ;
And when he died, and left us to divide his scanty hoard,
I let them take whate'er they would—but kept my father's sword ;
And with boyish love I hung it, where the bright light used to shine,
On the cottage wall at Bingen—calm Bingen on the Rhine.

"Tell my sister not to weep for me, and sob with drooping head,
When the troops come marching home again, with glad and gallant tread ;
But to look upon them proudly, with a calm and steadfast eye,
For her brother was a soldier too, and not afraid to die;
And if a comrade seek her love, I ask her in my name
To listen to him kindly, without regret or shame ;
And to hang the old sword in its place—my father's sword and mine—
For the honor of old Bingen—dear Bingen on the Rhine.

"There's another, not a sister : in the happy days gone by
You'd have known her by the merriment that sparkled in her eye ;
Too innocent for coquetry, too fond for idle scorning :
O, friend ! I fear the lightest heart makes sometimes heaviest mourning.
Tell her the last night of my life (for ere this moon be risen
My body will be out of pain, my soul be out of prison),
I dreamed I stood with her, and saw the yellow sunlight shine
On the vine-clad hills of Bingen—fair Bingen on the Rhine.

"I saw the blue Rhine sweep along ; I heard, or seemed to hear,
The German songs we used to sing, in chorus sweet and clear ;
And down the pleasant river, and up the slanting hill,
The echoing chorus sounded, through the evening calm and still ;
And her glad blue eyes were on me, as we passed, with friendly talk,
Down many a path beloved of yore, and well-remembered walk ;
And her little hand lay lightly, confidingly in mine :
But we'll meet no more at Bingen—loved Bingen on the Rhine !"

His voice grew faint and hoarse—his grasp was childish weak ;
His eyes put on a dying look—he sighed, and ceased to speak ;
His comrade bent to lift him, but the spark of life had fled :
The soldier of the Legion in a foreign land was dead !
And the soft moon rose up slowly, and calmly she looked down
On the red sand of the battle-field, with bloody corpses strewn.
Yes, calmly on that dreadful scene her pale light seemed to shine
As it shone on distant Bingen—fair Bingen on the Rhine.

CAROLINE ELIZABETH NORTON.

THE GLOVE AND THE LIONS.

KING FRANCIS was a hearty king, and loved a royal sport,
And one day, as his lions fought, sat looking on the court.
The nobles fill'd the benches, with the ladies in their pride,
And 'mongst them sat the Count de Lorge, with one for whom he sigh'd:
And truly 'twas a gallant thing to see that crowning show,
Valor and love, and a king above, and the royal beasts below.

Ramp'd and roar'd the lions, with horrid laughing jaws;
They bit, they glared, gave blows like beams, a wind went with their paws;
With wallowing might and stifled roar they roll'd on one another,
Till all the pit with sand and mane was in a thunderous smother;
The bloody foam above the bars came whisking through the air;
Said Francis then, "Faith, gentlemen, we're better here than there."

De Lorge's love o'erheard the king—a beauteous, lively dame,
With smiling lips and sharp bright eyes, which always seem'd the same;
She thought, The Count my lover is brave as brave can be;
He surely would do wondrous things to show his love of me;
King, ladies, lovers, all look on; the occasion is divine;
I'll drop my glove, to prove his love; great glory will be mine.

She dropp'd her glove, to prove his love, then look'd at him and smiled;
He bow'd, and in a moment leap'd among the lions wild;
The leap was quick, return was quick, he has regain'd his place,
Then threw the glove, but not with love, right in the lady's face.
"By heaven," said Francis, "rightly done!" and he rose from where he sat;
"No love," quoth he, "but vanity, sets love a task like that."

LEIGH HUNT.

THE VILLAGE BLACKSMITH.

UNDER a spreading chestnut tree
The village smithy stands:
The smith—a mighty man is he,
With large and sinewy hands;
And the muscles of his brawny arms
Are strong as iron bands.

His hair is crisp, and black, and long;
His face is like the tan;
His brow is wet with honest sweat—
He earns whate'er he can;
And looks the whole world in the face,
For he owes not any man.

Week in, week out, from morn till night,
You can hear his bellows blow;
You can hear him swing his heavy sledge,
With measured beat and slow—
Like a sexton ringing the village bell,
When the evening sun is low.

And children, coming home from school,
Look in at the open door;
They love to see the flaming forge,
And hear the bellows roar,
And catch the burning sparks, that fly
Like chaff from a threshing floor.

He goes on Sunday to the church,
And sits among his boys;
He hears the parson pray and preach—
He hears his daughter's voice,
Singing in the village choir,
And it makes his heart rejoice.

It sounds to him like her mother's voice,
Singing in Paradise!
He needs must think of her once more,
How in the grave she lies;
And with his hard, rough hand he wipes
A tear out of his eyes.

Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing—
Onward through life he goes;
Each morning sees some task begin,
Each evening sees it close—
Something attempted, something done,
Has earned a night's repose.

Thanks, thanks to thee, my worthy friend,
For the lesson thou has taught!
Thus at the flaming forge of life
Our fortunes must be wrought—
Thus on its sounding anvil shaped
Each burning deed and thought!

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

THE CHARGE OF THE LIGHT BRIGADE

AT BALAKLAVA.

HALF a league, half a league,
Half a league onward,
All in the valley of Death,
Rode the Six Hundred.

Into the valley of Death
Rode the Six Hundred;
For up came an order which
Some one had blundered.
"Forward, the Light Brigade!
Take the guns!" Nolan said;
Into the valley of Death,
Rode the Six Hundred.

"Forward, the Light Brigade!"
No man was there dismayed,
Not though the soldiers knew
Some one had blundered.
Theirs not to make reply,
Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die;
Into the valley of Death,
Rode the Six Hundred.

Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon in front of them,
Volleyed and thundered.
Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well;
Into the jaws of Death.
Into the mouth of Hell,
Rode the Six Hundred.

Flashed all their sabres bare,
Flashed all at once in air,
Sabring the gunners there,
Charging an army, while
All the world wondered.
Plunged in the battery smoke,
With many a desperate stroke
The Russian line they broke,
Then they rode back—but not,
Not the Six Hundred.

Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon behind them,
Volleyed and thundered.
Stormed at with shot and shell,
While horse and hero fell,
Those that had fought so well
Came from the jaws of Death,
Back from the mouth of Hell,
All that was left of them,
Left of Six Hundred.

When can their glory fade?
O! the wild charge they made!
All the world wondered.
Honor the charge they made!
Honor the Light Brigade,
Noble Six Hundred.

ALFRED TENNYSON.

HOHENLINDEN.

ON Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow,
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.

But Linden saw another sight
When the drum beat, at dead of night,
Commanding fires of death to light
The darkness of her scenery.

By torch and trumpet fast arrayed,
Each horseman drew his battle-blade,
And furious every charger neighed
To join the dreadful revelry.

Then shook the hills with thunder riven;
Then rushed the steeds to battle driven;
And, louder than the bolts of heaven,
Far flashed the red artillery.

But redder yet those fires shall glow
On Linden's hills of crimsoned snow,
And bloodier yet shall be the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.

'Tis morn; but scarce yon level sun
Can pierce the war-clouds' rolling dun,
Where furious Frank and fiery Hun
Shout in their sulphurous canopy.

The combat deepens. On, ye brave,
Who rush to glory or the grave!
Wave, Munich! all thy banners wave,
And charge with all thy chivalry!

Few, few shall part where many meet!
The snow shall be their winding-sheet;
And every turf beneath their feet
Shall be a soldier's sepulchre.

THOMAS CAMPBELL.

THE VAGABONDS.

We are two travelers, Roger and I.
  Roger's my dog :—come here, you scamp!
Jump for the gentlemen,—mind your eye!
  Over the table,—look out for the lamp!—
The rogue is growing a little old;
  Five years we've tramped through wind and weather,
And slept out-doors when nights were cold,
  And ate and drank—and starved together.

We've learned what comfort is, I tell you!
  A bed on the floor, a bit of rosin,
A fire to thaw out thumbs (poor fellow!
  The paw he holds up there's been frozen),
Plenty of catgut for my fiddle,
  (This out-door business is bad for strings),
Then a few nice buckwheats hot from the griddle,
  And Roger and I set up for kings!

No thank ye, sir,—I never drink;
  Roger and I are exceedingly moral,—
Aren't we, Roger?—see him wink!—
  Well, something hot, then,—we won't quarrel.
He's thirsty, too,—see him nod his head?
  What a pity, sir, that dogs can't talk!
He understands every word that's said,—
  And he knows good milk from water-and-chalk.

The truth is, sir, now I reflect,
  I've been so sadly given to grog,
I wonder I've not lost the respect
  (Here's to you, sir!) even of my dog,
But he sticks by, through thick and thin;
  And this old coat, with its empty pockets,
And rags that smell of tobacco and gin,
  He'll follow while he has eyes in his sockets.

There isn't another creature living
  Would do it, and prove, through every disaster,
So fond, so faithful, and so forgiving,
  To such a miserable, thankless master!
No, sir!—see him wag his tail and grin!
  By George! it makes my old eyes water!
That is, there's something in this gin
  That chokes a fellow. But no matter!

We'll have some music, if you're willing,
  And Roger (hem! what a plague a cough is, sir!)
Shall march a little.—Start, you villain!
  Stand straight! 'Bout face! Salute your officer!
Put up that paw! Dress! Take your rifle!
  (Some dogs have arms, you see!) now hold your
Cap while the gentlemen give a trifle,
  To aid a poor old patriot soldier!

March! Halt! Now show how the rebel shakes,
  When he stands up to hear his sentence.
Now tell us how many drams it takes
  To honor a jolly new acquaintance.
Five yelps,—that's five; he's mighty knowing!
  The night's before us, fill the glasses!—
Quick, sir! I'm ill,—my brain is going!
  Some brandy,—thank you,—there!—it passes!

Why not reform? That's easily said;
  But I've gone through such wretched treatment,
Sometimes forgetting the taste of bread,
  And scarce remembering what meat meant,
That my poor stomach's past reform;
  And there are times when, mad with thinking,
I'd sell out heaven for something warm
  To prop a horrible inward sinking.

Is there a way to forget to think?
  At your age, sir, home, fortune, friends,
A dear girl's love—But I took to drink—
  The same old story; you know how it ends.
If you could have seen these classic features—
  You needn't laugh, sir; they were not then
Such a burning libel on God's creatures;
  I was one of your handsomest men!

If you had seen her, so fair and young,
  Whose head was so happy on this breast,
If you could have heard the songs I sung
  When the wine went round, you wouldn't have guessed
That even I, sir, should be straying
  From door to door with fiddle and dog,
Ragged and penniless, and playing
  To you to-night for a glass of grog.

She's married since—a parson's wife;
  'Twas better for her that we should part—
Better the soberest, prosiest life
  Than a blasted home and a broken heart.
I have seen her! Once. I was weak and spent;
  On the dusty road a carriage stopped,
But little she dreamed, as on she went,
  Who kissed the coin that her fingers dropped!

You've set me to talking, sir; I'm sorry;
  It makes me wild to think of the change!
What do you care for a beggar's story?
  Is it amusing? You find it strange?
I had a mother so proud of me!
  'Twas well she died before—Do you know
If the happy spirits in heaven can see
  The ruin and wretchedness here below?

Another glass, and strong, to deaden
This pain ; then Roger and I will start.
I wonder has he such a lumpish, leaden,
Aching thing in place of a heart ?
He is sad sometimes, and would weep, if he could,
No doubt remembering things that were,—
A virtuous kennel, with plenty of food,
And himself a sober, respectable cur.

I'm better now ; that glass was warming—
You rascal ! limber your lazy feet !
We must be fiddling and performing
For supper and bed, or starve in the street.
Not a very gay life to lead, you think ?
But soon we shall go where lodgings are free,
And the sleepers need neither victuals nor drink ;—
The sooner the better for Roger and me !

JOHN TOWNSEND TROWBRIDGE.

EXCELSIOR.

THE shades of night were falling fast,
As through an Alpine village passed
A youth, who bore, 'mid snow and ice,
A banner with the strange device—
Excelsior !

His brow was sad ; his eye beneath
Flashed like a falchion from its sheath ;
And like a silver clarion rung
The accents of that unknown tongue—
Excelsior !

In happy homes he saw the light
Of household fires gleam warm and bright ;
Above, the spectral glaciers shone,
And from his lips escaped a groan—
Excelsior !

"Try not the pass !" the old man said ;
"Dark lowers the tempest overhead ;
The roaring torrent is deep and wide !"
And loud that clarion voice replied,
Excelsior !

"O stay !" the maiden said, "and rest
Thy weary head upon this breast !"
A tear stood in his bright blue eye,
But still he answered, with a sigh,
Excelsior !

"Beware the pine-tree's withered branch !
Beware the awful avalanche !"
This was the peasant's last good-night ;
A voice replied, far up the height,
Excelsior !

At break of day as heavenward
The pious monks of St. Bernard
Uttered the oft-repeated prayer,
A voice cried, through the startled air,
Excelsior !

A traveller, by the faithful hound,
Half-buried in the snow was found,
Still grasping in his hand of ice
That banner with the strange device—
Excelsior !

There, in the twilight cold and gray,
Lifeless, but beautiful, he lay ;
And from the sky, serene and far,
A voice fell, like a falling star—
Excelsior !

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

MAUD MULLER.

MAUD MULLER, on a summer's day,
Raked the meadows sweet with hay.

Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth
Of simple beauty and rustic health.

Singing, she wrought, and her merry glee
The mock-bird echoed from his tree.

But when she glanced to the far-off town,
White from its hill-slope looking down,

The sweet song died, and a vague unrest
And a nameless longing filled her breast—

A wish, that she hardly dared to own,
For something better than she had known.

The judge rode slowly down the lane,
Smoothing his horse's chestnut mane.

He drew his bridle in the shade
Of the apple-tree, to greet the maid,

And ask a draught from the spring that flowed
Through the meadow, across the road.

She stooped where the cool spring bubbled up,
And filled for him her small tin cup,

And blushed as she gave it, looking down
On her feet so bare, and her tattered gown.

"Thanks !" said the judge, "a sweeter draft
From a fairer hand was never quaffed."

He spoke of the grass and flowers and trees,
Of the singing birds and the humming bees ;

Then talked of the haying, and wondered whether
The clouds in the west would bring foul weather.

And Maud forgot her brier-torn gown,
And her graceful ankles, bare and brown,

And listened, while a pleased surprise
Looked from her long-lashed hazel-eyes.

At last, like one who for delay
Seeks a vain excuse, he rode away.

Maud Muller looked and sighed: "Ah me!
That I the judge's bride might be!

"He would dress me up in silks so fine,
And praise and toast me at his wine.

"My father should wear a broadcloth coat,
My brother should sail a painted boat.

"I'd dress my mother so grand and gay,
And the baby should have a new toy each day.

"And I'd feed the hungry and clothe the poor,
And all should bless me who left our door."

The judge looked back as he climbed the hill
And saw Maud Muller standing still:

"A form more fair, a face more sweet,
Ne'er hath it been my lot to meet.

"And her modest answer and graceful air
Show her wise and good as she is fair.

"Would she were mine, and I to-day,
Like her, a harvester of hay.

"No doubtful balance of rights and wrongs,
Nor weary lawyers with endless tongues,

"But low of cattle, and song of birds,
And health, and quiet, and loving words."

But he thought of his sister, proud and cold,
And his mother, vain of her rank and gold.

So, closing his heart, the judge rode on,
And Maud was left in the field alone.

But the lawyers smiled that afternoon,
When he hummed in court an old love tune;

And the young girl mused beside the well,
Till the rain on the unraked clover fell.

He wedded a wife of richest dower,
Who lived for fashion, as he for power.

Yet oft, in his marble hearth's bright glow,
He watched a picture come and go;

And sweet Maud Muller's hazel eyes
Looked out in their innocent surprise.

Oft, when the wine in his glass was red,
He longed for the wayside well instead,

And closed his eyes on his garnished rooms,
To dream of meadows and clover blooms;

And the proud man sighed with a secret pain,
"Ah, that I were free again!

"Free as when I rode that day
Where the barefoot maiden raked the hay."

She wedded a man unlearned and poor,
And many children played round her door.

But care and sorrow, and child-birth pain,
Left their traces on heart and brain.

And oft, when the summer sun shone hot
On the new-mown hay in the meadow lot,

And she heard the little spring brook fall
Over the roadside, through the wall

In the shade of the apple-tree again
She saw a rider draw his rein,

And, gazing down with a timid grace,
She felt his pleased eyes read her face.

Sometimes her narrow kitchen walls
Stretched away into stately halls;

The weary wheel to a spinnet turned,
The tallow candle an astral burned;

And for him who sat by the chimney lug,
Dozing and grumbling o'er pipe and mug,

A manly form at her side she saw,
And joy was duty and love was law.

Then she took up her burden of life again,
Saying only, "It might have been."

Alas for maiden, alas for Judge,
For rich repiner and household drudge!

God pity them both! and pity us all,
Who vainly the dream of youth recall;

For of all words of tongue or pen,
The saddest are these: "It might have been!"

Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies
Deeply buried from human eyes;

And, in the hereafter, angels may
Roll the stone from its grave away!

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER.

THE BURIAL OF SIR JOHN MOORE.

NOT a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corse to the rampart we hurried ;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

We buried him darkly at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning ;
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.

No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him ;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him.

Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow ;
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed,
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
That the foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head ;
And we far away on the billow.

Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone,
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him ;
But little he'll reck if they let him sleep on
In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

But half of our heavy task was done,
When the clock struck the hour for retiring ;
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe was sullenly firing.

Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory ;
We carved not a line, we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone with his glory.

CHARLES WOLFE.

REVELRY IN INDIA.

WE meet 'neath the sounding rafter,
And the walls around are bare ;
As they echo the peals of laughter,
It seems that the dead are there ;
But stand to your glasses steady,
We drink to our comrades' eyes ;
Quaff a cup to the dead already—
And hurrah for the next that dies !

Not here are the goblets flowing,
Not here is the vintage sweet ;
'Tis cold, as our hearts are growing,
And dark as the doom we meet.
But stand to your glasses steady,
And soon shall our pulses rise ;
A cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

Not a sigh for the lot that darkles,
Not a tear for the friends that sink ;
We'll fall 'midst the wine-cup's sparkles,
As mute as the wine we drink.
So stand to your glasses steady,
'Tis in this that our respite lies ;
One cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

Time was when we frowned at others,
We thought we were wiser then ;
Ha ! ha ! let those think of their mothers,
Who hope to see them again.
No ! stand to your glasses steady,
The thoughtless are here the wise ;
A cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

There's many a hand that's shaking ;
There's many a cheek that's sunk ;
But soon, though our hearts are breaking,
They'll burn with the wine we've drunk.
So stand to your glasses steady,
'Tis here the revival lies ;
A cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

There's a mist's on the grass congealing,
'Tis the hurricane's fiery breath ;
And this does the warmth of feeling
Turn ice in the grasp of death.
Ho ! stand to your glasses steady ;
For a moment the vapor flies ;
A cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

Who dreads to the dust returning ?
Who shrinks from the sable shore,
Where the high and haughty yearning
Of the soul shall sing no more ?
Ho ! stand to your glasses steady ;
This world is a world of lies :
A cup to the dead already—
Hurrah for the next that dies !

Cut off from the land that bore us,
Betrayed by the land we find,
Where the brightest have gone before us,
And the dullest remain behind—
Stand, stand to your glasses steady !
'Tis all we have left to prize ;
A cup to the dead already—
And hurrah for the next that dies !

BARTHOLOMEW DOWLING.

THE BLUE AND THE GRAY.

By the flow of the inland river,
Whence the fleets of iron have fled,
Where the blades of the grave-grass quiver,
Asleep are the ranks of the dead;
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Under the one, the Blue;
Under the other, the Gray.

These in the robings of glory,
Those in the gloom of defeat;
All with the battle-blood gory,
In the dusk of eternity meet;
Under the sod and the dew
Waiting the judgment day;
Under the laurel, the Blue;
Under the willow, the Gray.

From the silence of sorrowful hours,
The desolate mourners go,
Lovingly laden with flowers,
Alike for the friend and the foe;
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Under the roses, the Blue;
Under the lilies, the Gray.

So, with an equal splendor,
The morning sun-rays fall,
With a touch impartially tender,
On the blossoms blooming for all;
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Broidered with gold, the Blue;
Mellowed with gold, the Gray.

So, when the summer calleth,
On forest and field of grain,
With an equal murmur falleth
The cooling drip of the rain;
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Wet with the rain, the Blue;
Wet with the rain, the Gray.

Sadly, but not with upbraiding,
The generous deed was done;
In the storm of the years that are fading,
No braver battle was won;
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Under the blossoms, the Blue;
Under the garlands, the Gray.

No more shall the war-cry sever,
Or the winding rivers be red;
They banish our anger forever,
When they laurel the graves of our dead.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day;
Love and tears for the Blue,
Tears and love for the Gray.

FRANCIS MILES FINCH.

THE PICKET GUARD.

"ALL quiet along the Potomac," they say,
"Except now and then a stray picket
Is shot, as he walks on his beat, to and fro,
By a rifleman hid in the thicket.
'Tis nothing—a private or two, now and then,
Will not count in the news of the battle;
Not an officer lost—only one of the men,
Moaning out, all alone, the death-rattle."

All quiet along the Potomac to-night,
Where the soldiers lie peacefully dreaming;
Their tents in the rays of the clear autumn moon,
Or the light of the watch-fires, are gleaming.
A tremulous sigh, as the gentle night-wind
Through the forest-leaves softly is creeping;
While stars up above, with their glittering eyes,
Keep guard—for the army is sleeping.

There's only the sound of the lone sentry's tread,
As he tramps from the rock to the fountain,
And thinks of the two in the low trundle-bed
Far away in the cot on the mountain.
His musket falls slack—his face, dark and grim,
Grows gentle with memories tender,
As he mutters a prayer for the children asleep—
For their mother—may Heaven defend her!

The moon seems to shine just as brightly as then,
That night, when the love yet unspoken
Leaped up to his lips—when low-murmured vows
Were pledged to be ever unbroken.
Then drawing his sleeve roughly over his eyes,
He dashes off tears that were welling,
And gathers his gun closer up to its place
As if to keep down the heart-swelling.

He passes the fountain, the blasted pine tree—
The footstep is lagging and weary;
Yet onward he goes, through the broad belt of light,
Toward the shades of the forest so dreary.
Hark! was it the night-winds that rustled the leaves?
Was it moonlight so wondrously flashing?
It looked like a rifle—"Ah! Mary, good-bye!"
And the life-blood is ebbing and plashing.

All quiet along the Potomac to-night,
No sound save the rush of the river;
While soft falls the dew on the face of the dead—
The picket's off duty forever.

ETHEL LYNN BEERS.

PLAIN LANGUAGE FROM TRUTHFUL JAMES.

WHICH I wish to remark—
And my language is plain—
That for ways that are dark
And for tricks that are vain,
The heathen Chinee is peculiar:
Which the same I would rise to explain.

Ah Sin was his name;
And I shall not deny
In regard to the same
What that name might imply;
But his smile was pensive and childlike,
As I frequent remarked to Bill Nye.

It was August the third,
And quite soft was the skies,
Which it might be inferred
That Ah Sin was likewise:
Yet he played it that day upon William
And me in a way I despise.

Which we had a small game,
And Ah Sin took a hand:
It was euchre. The same
He did not understand;
But he smiled, as he sat by the table,
With the smile that was childlike and bland.

Yet the cards they were stocked
In a way that I grieve,
And my feelings were shocked
At the state of Nye's sleeve,
Which was stuffed full of aces and bowers,
And the same with intent to deceive.

But the hands that were played
By that heathen Chinee,
And the points that he made,
Were quite frightful to see—
Till at last he put down a right bower,
Which the same Nye had dealt unto me.

Then I looked up at Nye,
And he gazed upon me;
And he rose with a sigh,
And said, "Can this be!
We are ruined by Chinese cheap labor,"—
And he went for that heathen Chinee.

In the scene that ensued
I did not take a hand;
But the floor it was strewed
Like the leaves on the strand
With the cards that Ah Sin had been hiding,
In the game "he did not understand."

In his sleeves which were long,
He had twenty-four packs—
Which was coming it strong,
Yet I state but the facts;
And we found on his nails, which were taper,
What is frequent in tapers—that's wax.

Which is why I remark,
And my language is plain,
That for ways that are dark,
And for tricks that are vain,
The heathen Chinee is peculiar—
Which the same I am free to maintain.

BRET HARTE.

LITTLE BREECHES.

I DON'T go much on religion,
I never ain't had no show;
But I've got a middlin' tight grip, sir,
On the handful o' things I know.
I don't pan out on the prophets,
And free-will, and that sort of thing;
But I b'lieve in God and the angels,
Ever sence one night last spring.

I come into town with some turnips,
And my little Gabe came along—
No four-year old in the county
Could beat him for pretty and strong.
Peart and chipper and sassy,
Always ready to swear and fight;
And I'd larnt him to chaw terbacker,
Jest to keep his milk-teeth white.

The snow come down like a blanket
As I passed by Taggart's store;
I went in for a jug of molasses,
And left the team at the door.
They skerred at something and started—
I heard one little squall,
And hell-to-split over the prairie
Went team, Little Breeches, and all.

Hell-to-split over the prairie!
I was almost froze with skeer;
But we rousted up some torches,
And sarched for 'em far and near.
At last we struck hosses and wagon,
Snowed under a soft white mound,
Upsot, dead beat—but of little Gabe
No hide nor hair was found.

And here all hope soured on me,
Of my fellow-critters' aid—
I jist flopped down on my marrow-bones,
Crotch deep in the snow, and prayed.

* * * * * *

By this the torches was played out,
And me and Isrul Parr
Went off for some wood to a sheep-fold
That he said was somewhar thar.

We found it at last, and a little shed
Whar they shut up the lambs at night;
We looked in, and seen them huddled thar,
So warm and sleepy and white.
And thar sot Little Breeches, and chirped
As peart as ever you see,
'I want a chaw of terbacker,
And that's what's the matter with me."

How did he git thar? Angels—
He could never have walked in that storm—
They jist scooped down and toted him
To whar it was safe and warm.
And I think that saving a little child
And bringing him to his own,
Is a derned sight better business
Than loafing around the Throne.

THE JESTER'S SERMON.

THE Jester shook his head and bells, and leaped upon a chair,
The pages laughed, the women screamed, and tossed their scented hair;
The falcon whistled, staghounds bayed, the lapdog barked without,
The scullion dropped the pitcher brown, the cook railed at the lout!
The steward, counting out his gold, let pouch and money fall,
And why? because the Jester rose to say grace in the hall!

The page played with the heron's plume, the steward with his chain,
The butler drummed upon the board, and laughed with might and main;
The grooms beat on their metal cans, and roared till they were red,
But still the Jester shut his eyes and rolled his witty head;
And when they grew a little still, read half a yard of text,
And, waving hand, struck on the desk, then frowned like one preplexed.

"Dear sinners all," the fool began, "man's life is but a jest,
A dream, a shadow, bubble, air, a vapor at the best;
In a thousand pounds of law I find not a single ounce of love;
A blind man killed the parson's cow in shooting at the dove;
The fool that eats till he is sick must fast till he is well;
The wooer who can flatter most will bear away the belle.

"Let no man halloo he is safe till he is through the wood;
He who will not when he may, must tarry when he should;
He who laughs at crooked men should need walk very straight;
Oh, he who once has won a name may lie abed till eight!
Make haste to purchase house and land, be very slow to wed;
True coral needs no painter's brush nor need be daubed with red.

"The friar, preaching, cursed the thief (the pudding in his sleeve),
To fish for sprats with golden hooks is foolish, by your leave,—
To travel well,—an ass's ears, ape's face, hog's mouth, and ostrich legs.
He does not care a pin for thieves who limps about and begs.
Be always first man at a feast and last man at a fray;
The short way round, in spite of all, is still the longest way.

"When the hungry curate licks the knife, there's not much for the clerk;
When the pilot, turning pale and sick, looks up—the storm grows dark."
Then loud they laughed; the fat cook's tears ran down into the pan:
The steward shook, that he was forced to drop the brimming can;
And then again the women screamed, and every staghound bayed,—
And why? because the motley fool so wise a sermon made.

ONLY WAITING.

A very old man in an alms-house was asked what he was doing now. He replied, "Only waiting."

ONLY waiting till the shadows
Are a little longer grown;
Only waiting till the glimmer
Of the day's last beam is flown;

Till the night of earth is faded
From the heart once full of day;
Till the dawn of heaven is breaking
Through the twilight soft and gray.

Only waiting till the reapers
Have the last sheaf gathered home;
For the summer time is faded,
And the autumn winds have come.
Quickly, reapers, gather quickly
The last ripe hours of my heart,
For the bloom of life is withered,
And I hasten to depart.

Only waiting till the angels
Open wide the mystic gate,
At whose feet I long have lingered,
Weary, poor, and desolate.
Even now I hear the footsteps,
And their voices far away;
If they call me, I am waiting,
Only waiting to obey.

Only waiting till the shadows
Are a little longer grown;
Only waiting till the glimmer
Of the day's last beam is flown;
Then from out the gathered darkness,
Holy, deathless stars shall rise,
By whose light my soul shall gladly
Tread its pathway to the skies.

FRANCES LAUGHTON MACE.

NEARER HOME.

ONE sweetly solemn thought
Comes to me o'er and o'er:
I'm nearer home to-day
Than I ever have been before;

Nearer my Father's house,
Where the many mansions be;
Nearer the great white throne,
Nearer the crystal sea;

Nearer the bound of life,
Where we lay our burdens down;
Nearer leaving the cross,
Nearer gaining the crown!

But lying darkly between,
Winding down through the night,
Is the silent, unknown stream,
That leads at last to the light.

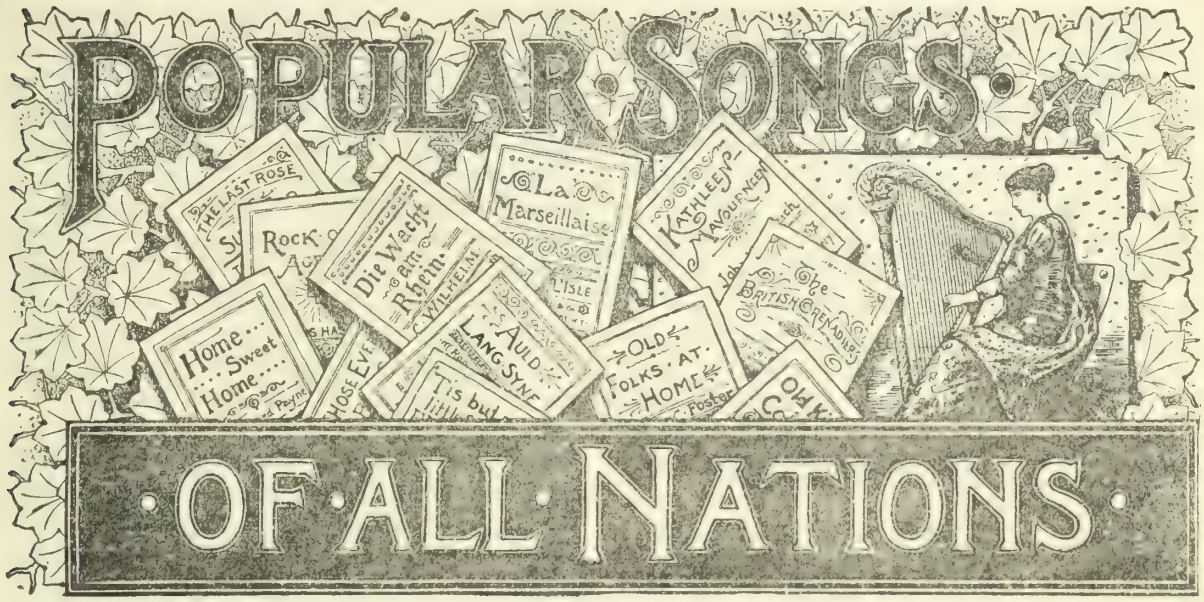
Closer and closer my steps
Come to the dread abysm:
Closer Death to my lips
Presses the awful chrism.

Oh, if my mortal feet
Have almost gained the brink—
If it be I am nearer home
Even to-day than I think,—

Father, perfect my trust!
Let my spirit feel, in death,
That her feet are firmly set
On the Rock of a living faith!

PHŒBE CARY.





VOCAL MUSIC is probably the oldest branch of the art, but from the number of ancient dance-songs still extant, it is reasonable to conceive that vocal music was at first a mere accessory of the dance. Choral singing at religious and other festivals was also a practice of very remote antiquity. Recitations by bards commemorative of the exploits of heroes were a further and distinct development of vocal music. But the song proper had no existence anterior to the Troubadours; their graceful lyrics and appropriate rhythmical tunes were its earliest form.

Popular songs include the rude spontaneous outcome of native inspiration, the wild indigenous fruit of their own soil, and those other more regular and finished compositions which are written with conscious art by men who have made Music their study. This latter class of songs is designated by the German phrase *Kunstlied*, or artistic song; while the former class, whose origin and authorship are generally obscure, may be called folk-songs, or songs of the people. Such are the *Volkslieder* of Germany, the *Canti Populari* of Italy, and the *Ballads* of England.

The song is that branch of Music in which national peculiarities linger longest, and international affinities grow most slowly. This is primarily due to the fact that language which is local, is an integral element of song. Secondly it is caused by the popular origin of songs. Being of the people and for the people, they flourish most in a sphere where the influences of foreign example and teaching can hardly reach them. Hence it happens that where the artistic song has lost every trace of its native soil, national melodies preserve a distinctively local color. In some countries of Europe the development of the song can be followed from the primitive form of folk-song to the highest type of artistic composition; but in others the art of Music has scarcely yet advanced beyond the stage of national melodies.

It is almost needless to call attention to the necessary dependence of the song upon Poetry. Until the poet supplies lyrics of adequate power and beauty of form, the skill of the composer alone cannot develop the full capacities of the song. When, however, poets and composers of the first rank have worked together in mutual sympathy, the song has quickly mounted to the loftiest heights of art. Again, poets and composers are alike the children of their times, and vividly reflect the dominant emotions of the hour and the scene in which they live.

History colors every branch of art, and none more so than the song, for it is the first and simplest mode of giving expression to strong feeling. Men naturally sing of that of which their heads and hearts are full; and thus there is a close correspondence between great historic events and the multitude of songs to which they invariably give birth. From wars have issued songs of victory, and other martial odes; from keen political struggles, songs of satire; from religious reformations, majestic hymns and chorals; and from revolutions, impassioned songs of liberty. There are songs for all emotions and occasions. There are songs for all times and seasons—songs of childhood and songs of old age—songs of exile and songs of home—songs of nature and songs of the sea—songs of sorrow and songs of mirth—songs of sentiment—songs of love.

It would be interesting, if our space permitted, to give an account of what songs had been popular, how they had risen and waned in public favor, what local events, what queer by-words, what jokes pertinent to the day, but now forgotten, had been sung by the merry people of the time. Some songs that had no doubt been suddenly popular, as quickly passed to obscurity, while others, like "Auld Lang Syne," "The Last Rose of Summer," "Sally in Our Alley," and "Home, Sweet Home," have secured a permanent hold on the hearts of the people.

There has probably been an improvement in sentiment, at least, in our best songs, upon those which were sung in the olden time. The most famous of those were drinking songs, of which the best known is, perhaps, that written by a chaplain named Walter De Mapes, of undue jollity, in the service of Henry II., which commences "Mihi est propositum in taberna mori," etc. It may be noticed that the most popular sentimental and humorous songs in the English language are the Irish, Scotch, and those attributed to the American negroes. The quaint and careless variations from the English words in the Scottish songs and negro plantation melodies seem to enhance the sentiment and make the humor more pointed. The songs of Moore and Burns represent the Irish and Scotch, while Foster best represents negro minstrelsy as it has taken its prominent position in this country. Many of the plaintive songs of Foster that are supposed to belong peculiarly to burnt-cork minstrelsy, possess a charm that compensates for much of their nonsense. If proof of this statement were needed we could scarcely do better than quote a passage written by Thackeray:

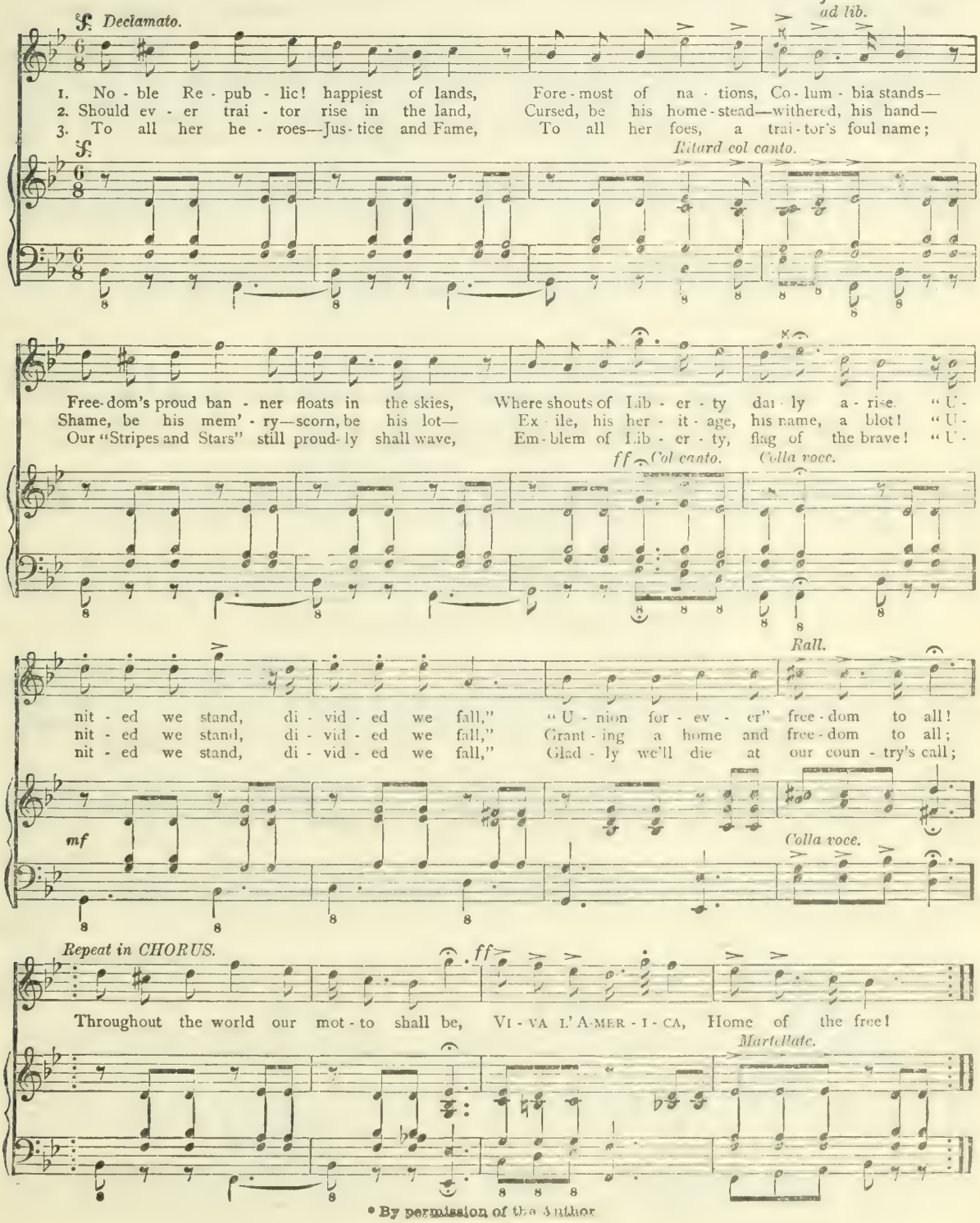
"I heard a humorist balladist not long since—a minstrel with wool on his head, and an ultra-Ethiopian complexion, who performed a negro ballad that I confess moistened these spectacles in a most unexpected manner. I have gazed at thousands of tragedy queens dying on the stage, and expiring in appropriate blank verse, and I never wanted to wipe them. They have looked up, be it said, at many scores of clergymen in the pulpit without being dimmed, and behold a vagabond, with a corked face and a banjo, sings a little song, strikes a wild note, which sets the heart thrilling with happy pity."

"I knew a very wise man," says Fletcher of Saltoun, "that believed if a man were permitted to make the ballads, he need not care who should make the laws of a nation." He would not be a very wise man nowadays who should make this remark, for if there is any one thing more impossible than another, it is the manufacturing to order of a popular song. The ready-made National hymn is generally as perfunctory as a birthday ode. It is more than likely to be merely literary, and to lack, either wholly or in part, the direct simplicity and manly pathos of a song which comes spontaneous and unexpected from the heart of the people.

More than one American poet tried to find fit words for "John Brown's Body," an air which stirs the blood like the blare of a trumpet, but the rude stanzas of the original song have held their own against all more polished and perfect competitors. Oddly enough, it is not exactly certain who was the composer of "John Brown's Body." We all know, however, that John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," was an American by birth, although he wrote his song to be used in a play prepared for an English theater. And the "Old Folks at Home," the wailing refrain of which whoever may have heard it sung by Mme. Christine Nilsson will not soon forget, is American, both in authorship and in subject. On the other hand, we Americans have borrowed the airs of some of our most famous songs. We were not willing to let the British have all the best tunes. The "Star Spangled Banner" is Dr. Arnold's "Anacreon in Heaven." "Yankee Doodle" is substantially identical with the "Lucy Locket Lost Her Pocket," which came into notice just after the great success of the "Beggars' Opera."

VIVA L' AMERICA, HOME OF THE FREE.*

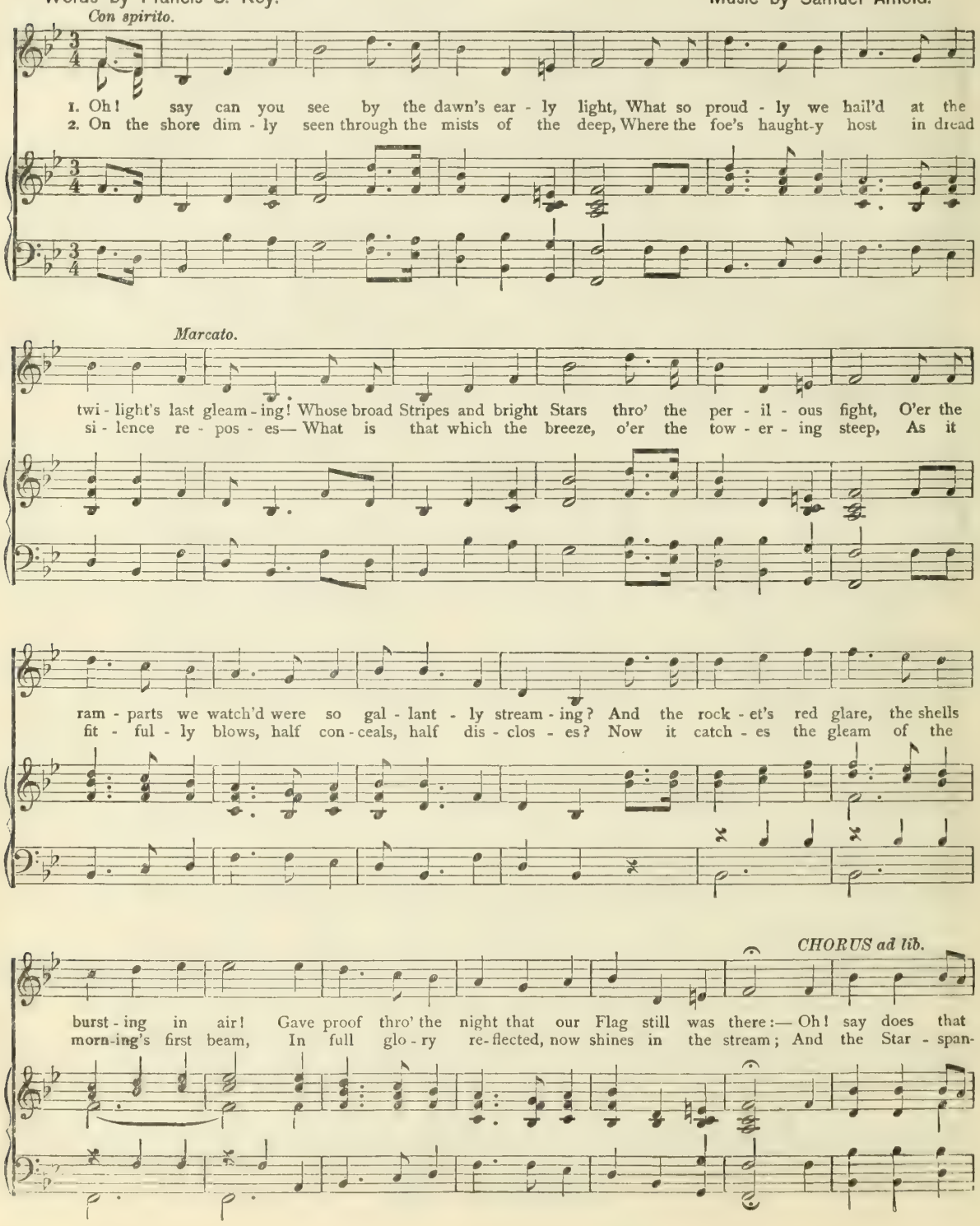
Words and Music by H. Millard.

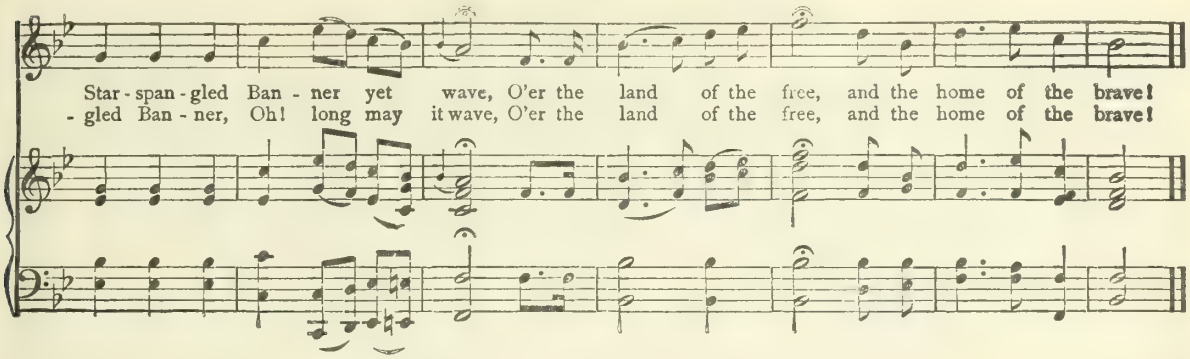


* By permission of the Author

THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER.

Words by Francis S. Key. Music by Samuel Arnold.



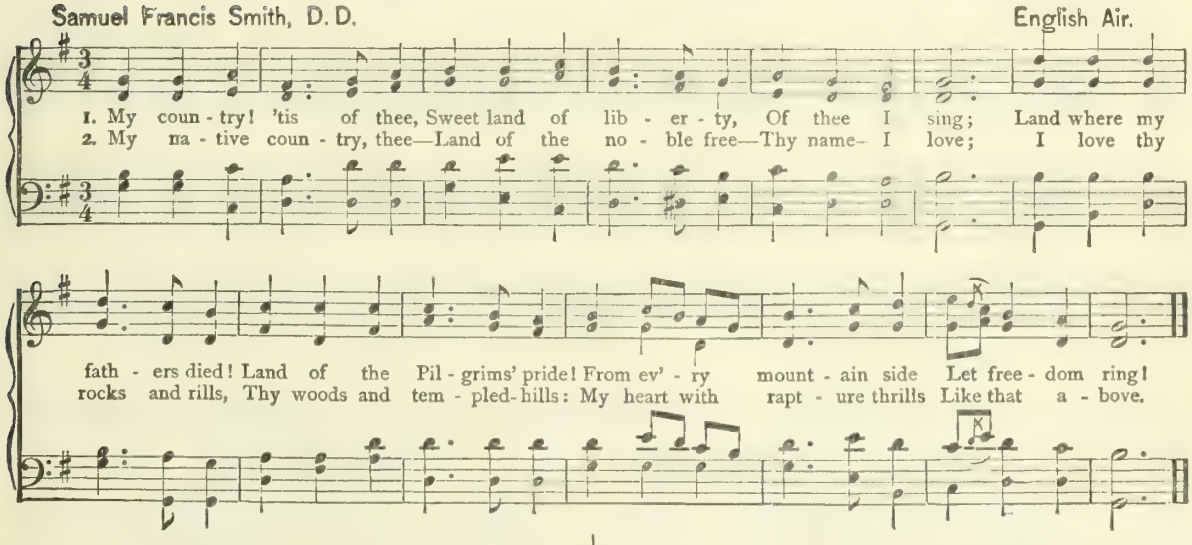


3. And where is that band who so vauntingly swore,
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion,
A home and a country shall leave us no more?
Their blood has wash'd out their foul foot-step's pollution!
No refuge could save the hireling and slave,
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave;
And the Star-spangled Banner, in triumph doth wave,
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave!

4. O thus be it ever, when freeman shall stand,
Between their lov'd home, and the war's desolation;
Blest with vict'ry and peace, may the heav'n-rescued land,
Praise the pow'r that hath made, and preserves us a Nation!
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto:—In God, is our trust;
And the Star-spangled Banner, in triumph shall wave,
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave.

MY COUNTRY, 'TIS OF THEE.

Samuel Francis Smith, D. D. English Air.

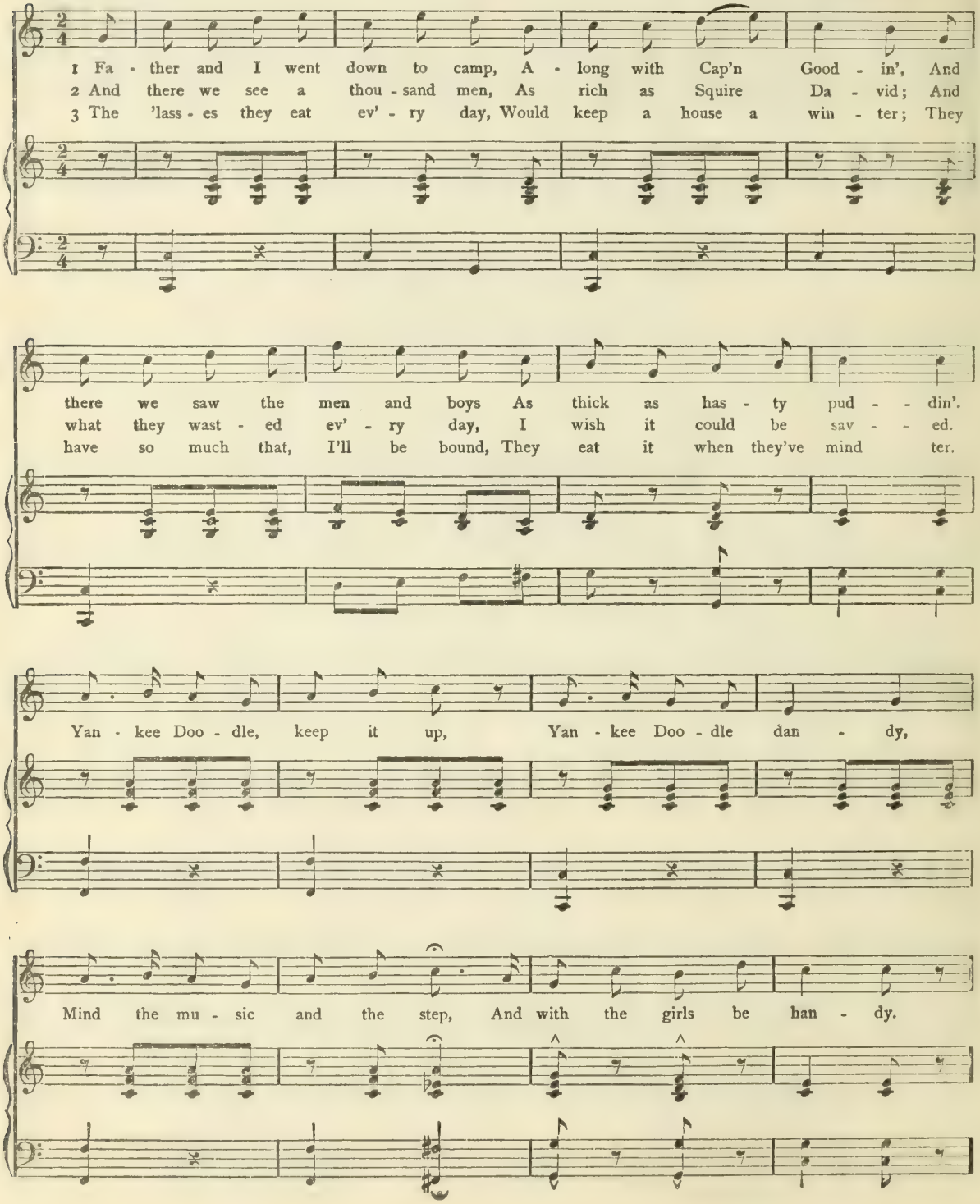


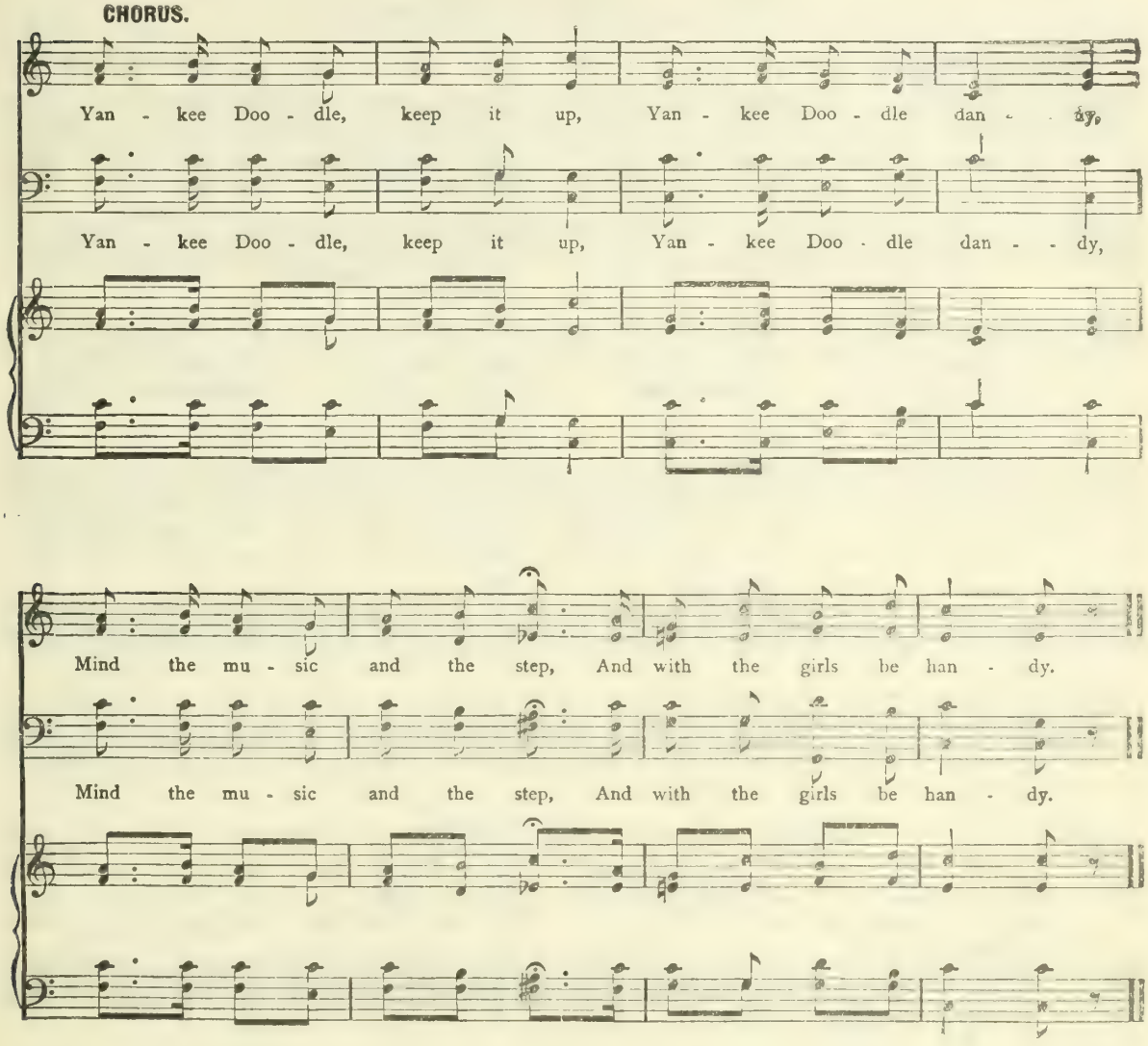
3. Let music swell the breeze,
And ring from all the trees
Sweet freedom's song:
Let mortal tongues awake;
Let all that breathe partake;
Let rocks their silence break,—
The sound prolong.

4. Our father's God! to Thee,
Author of liberty,
To Thee we sing:
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light;
Protect us by Thy might,
Great God, our King!

YANKEE DOODLE.

Author Unknown. Pyrenees Air.





4. And there I saw a swamping gun,
Large as a log of maple,
Upon a deuced little cart,
A load for father's cattle.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

5. And every time they shoot it off,
It takes a horn of powder,
And makes a noise like father's gun,
Only a nation louder.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

6. I went as nigh to one myself
As 'Siah's underpinning;
And father went as nigh agin,
I thought the deuce was in him.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

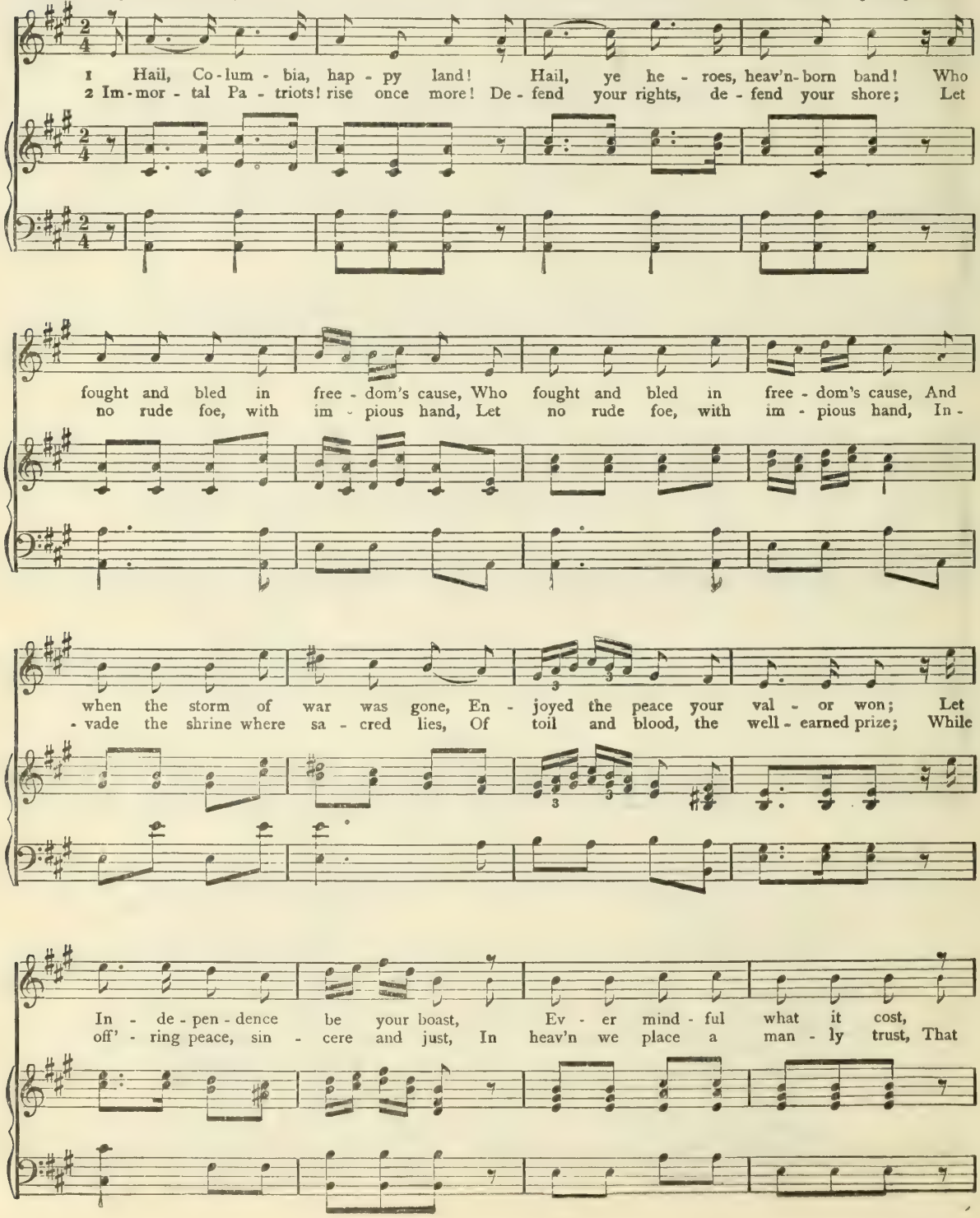
7. Cousin Simon grew so bold,
I thought he would have cocked it;
It scared me so I shrinked it off
And hung by father's pocket.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

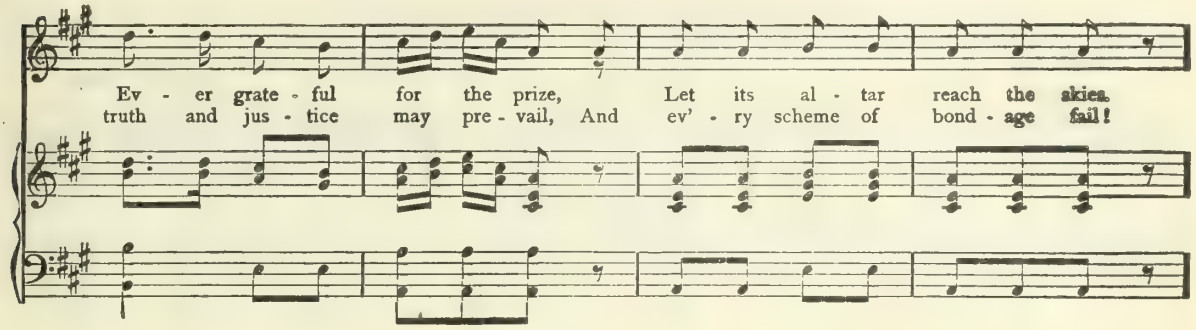
8. And Cap'n Davis had a gun,
He kind of clapt his hand on't,
And stuck a crooked stabbing iron
Upon the little end on't.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

9. And there I see a pumpkin shell
As big as mother's basin;
And every time they touched it off
They scampered like the nation.
Yankee Doodle, etc.

HAIL, COLUMBIA!

Words by Joseph Hopkinson. Music by Phyla.



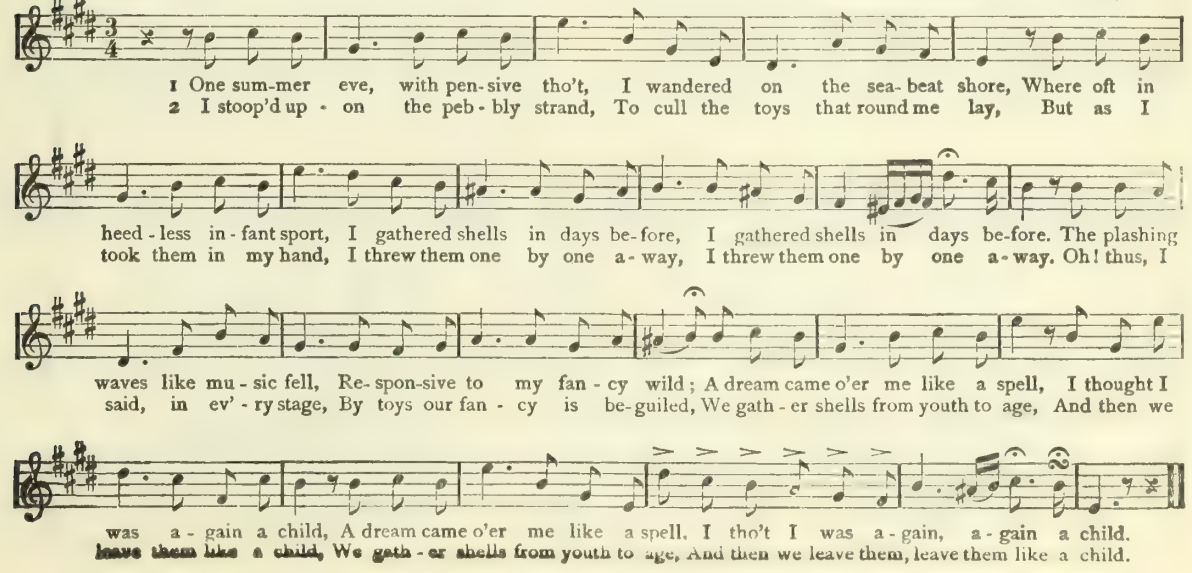






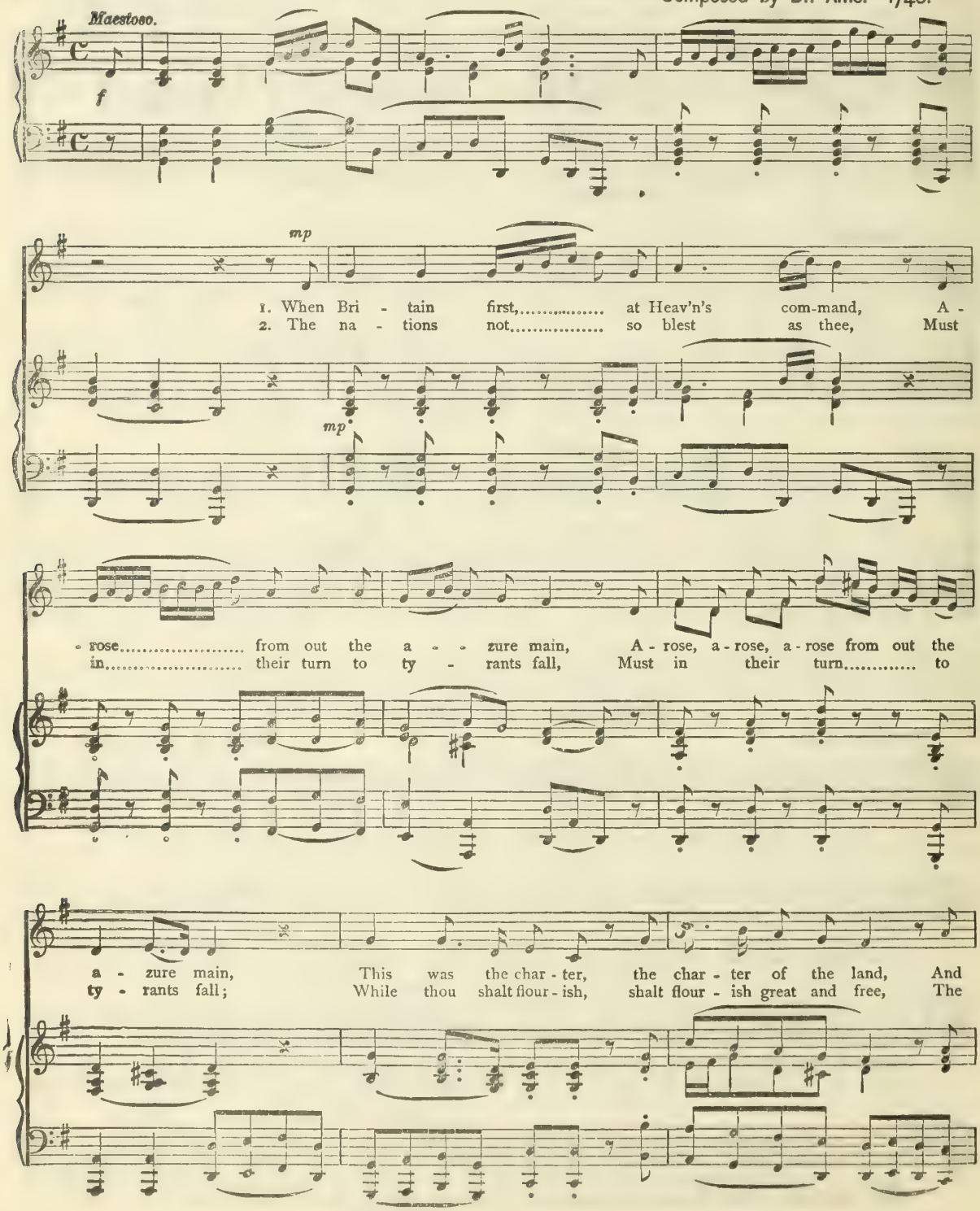
SHELLS OF OCEAN.

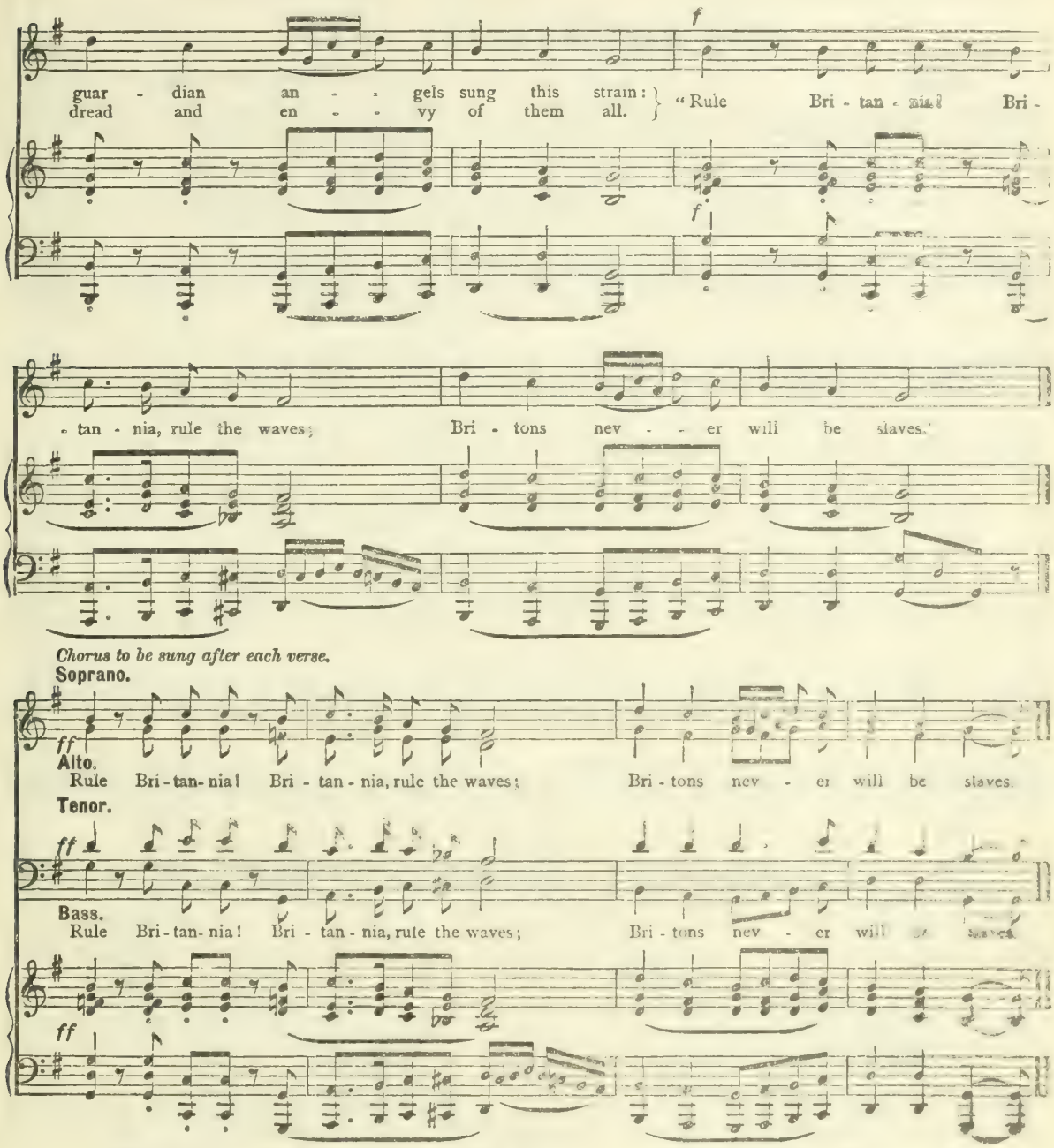
Words by Lake. Music by J. W. Cherry.



RULE BRITANNIA.

Composed by Dr. Ame. 1740.





3. Still more majestic shalt thou rise,
More dreadful from each foreign stroke;
As the loud blast, that tears the skies,
Serves but to root thy native oak.
Rule Britannia! &c.

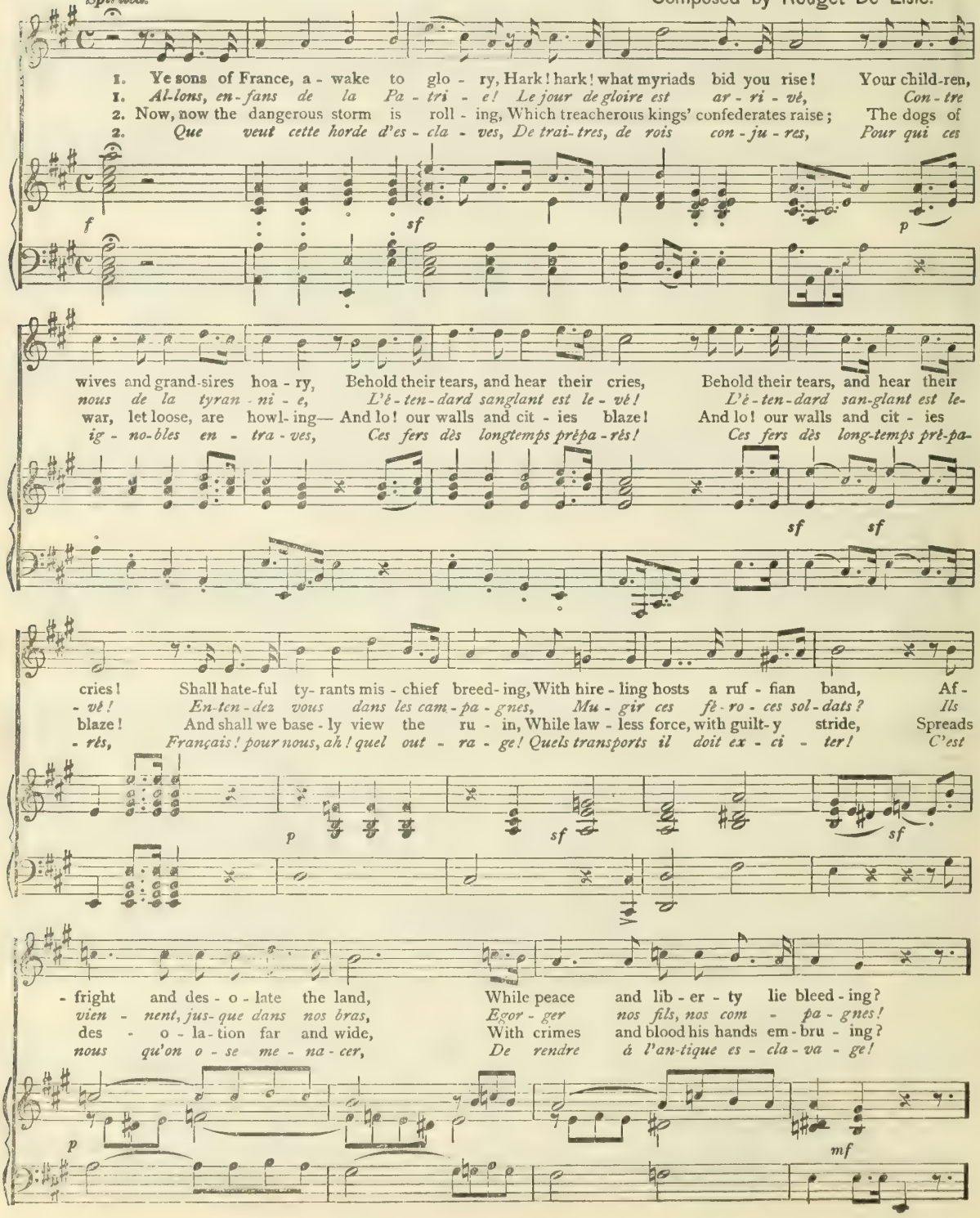
4. Thee, haughty tyrants ne'er shall tame;
All their attempts to bend thee down,
Will but arouse thy gen'rous flame,
To work *their* woe, and *thy* renown.
Rule Britannia! &c.

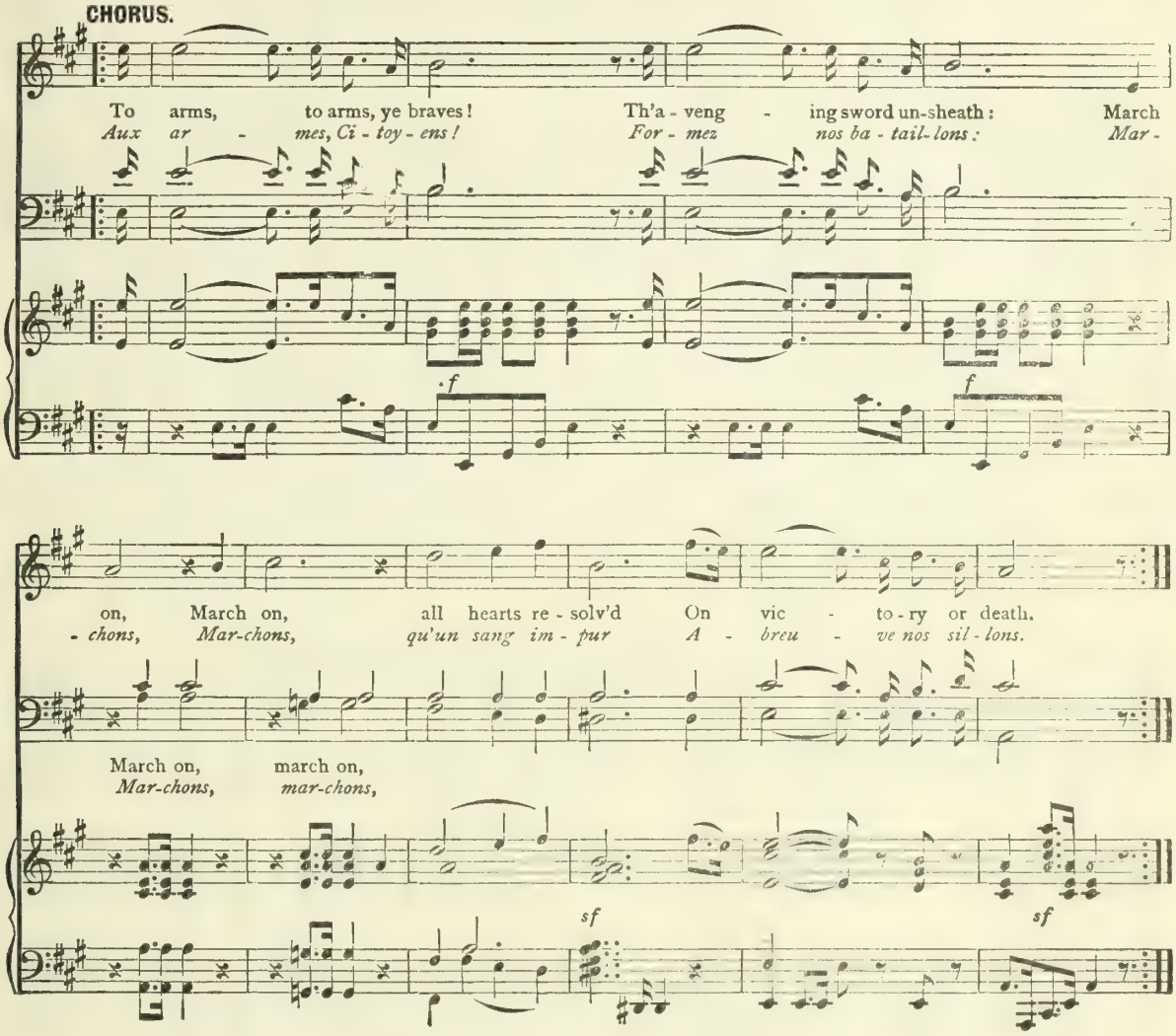
5. To thee belongs the rural reign,
Thy cities shall with commerce shine;
All thine, shall be the subject main,
And ev'ry shore it circles, *thine.*
Rule Britannia! &c.

6. The muses, still with freedom found,
Shall to thy happy coast repair;
Blest Isle! with matchless beauty crown'd,
And manly hearts to guard the fair.
Rule Britannia! &c.

THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN.

Spirited. Composed by Rouget De Lisle.





3.

With luxury and pride surrounded,
The vile, insatiate despots dare,
Their thirst of gold and power unbounded,
To mete and vend the light and air.
Like beasts of burden would they load us—
Like gods would bid their slaves adore—
But man is man—and who is more?
Then shall they longer lash and goad us?
To arms! &c.

4.

O liberty! can man resign thee,
Once, having felt thy generous flame?
Can dungeons, bolts, and bars confine thee?
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept bewailing
That falsehood's dagger tyrants wield—
But freedom is our sword and shield,
And all their arts are unvailing.
To arms! &c.

3.

Quoi! des cohortes étrangères
Feraient la loi dans nos foyers?
Quoi! ces phalanges mercenaires,
Terrasseraient nos fiers guerriers?
Grand Dieu! par des mains enchaînées
Nos fronts sous le joug se ploieraient!
De vils despotes deviendraient
Les maîtres des nos destinées!
Aux armes, &c.

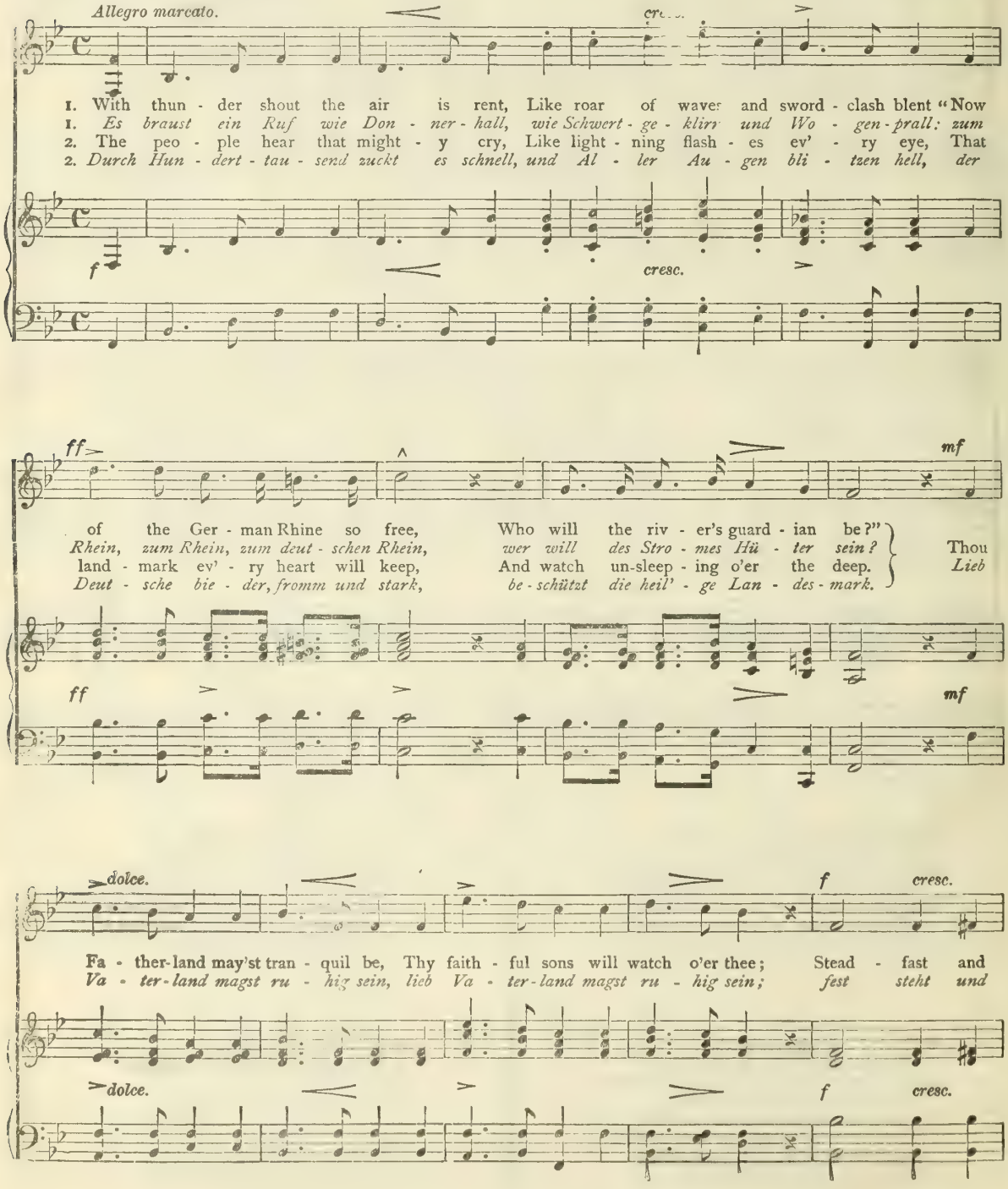
4.

Amour sacré de la patrie,
Conduis, soutiens nos bras vengeurs:
Liberté, Liberté cherie,
Combats avec tes défenseurs:
Sous nos drapeaux que la victoire
Accoure à tes mâles accens;
Que tes ennemis expirans
Voient ton triomphe et notre gloire.
Aux armes, &c.

THE WATCH O'ER THE RHINE.

(DIE WACHT AM RHEIN.)

Words by Max Schneckenberger. (1840.) Music by C. Wilhelm.





3. Thy tide reflects the heav'ns above,
And heroes gaze on thee with love,
And proudly breathe a vow to thee,
Thou, Rhine, shalt ever German be.
Thou Fatherland, &c.

4. So long as blood flows in each vein,
Or hands to draw the sword remain,
And while an arm is in the land,
No foe shall walk upon thy strand.
Thou Fatherland, &c.

5. The waves re-echo back the cry,
The standard in the breeze doth fly,
The Rhine, the German Rhine, so free,
Yes, we will all thy guardians be.
Thou Fatherland, &c.

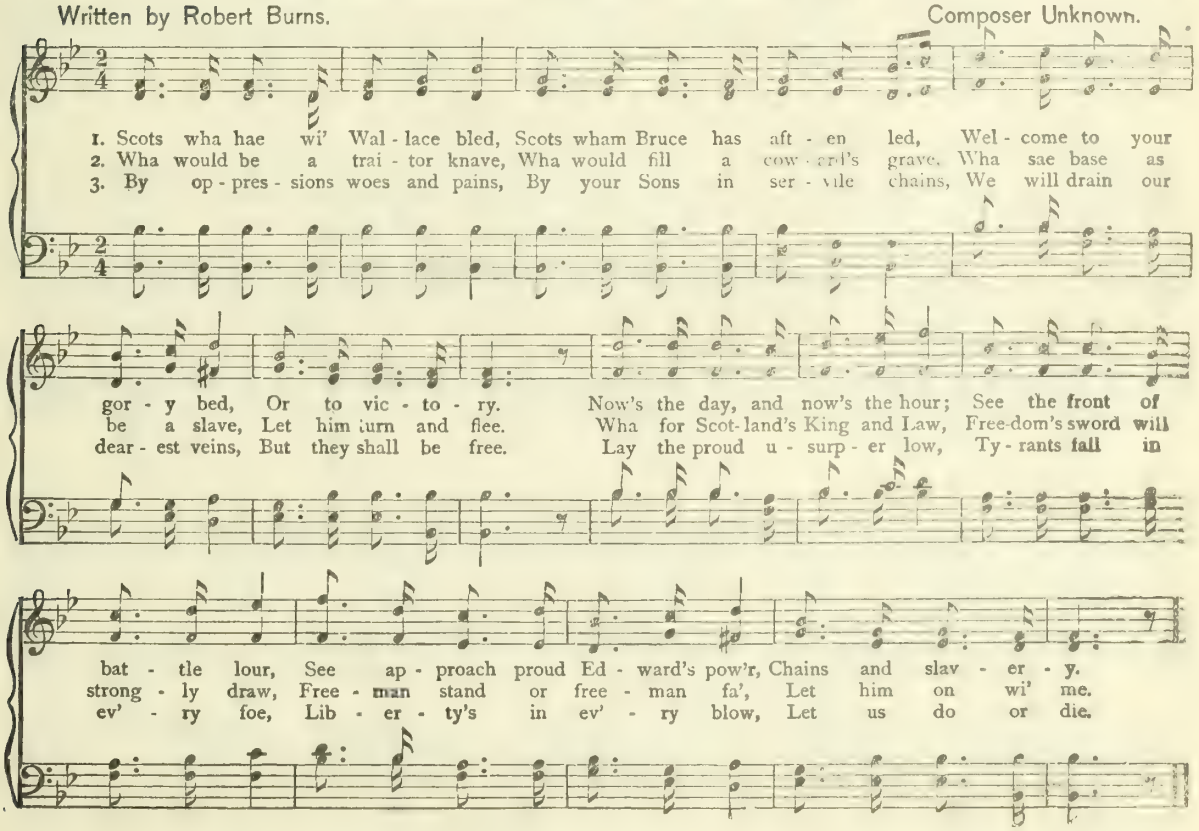
3. *Er blickt hinauf in Himmelsau'n,*
Da Helden Väter niederschau'n,
Und schwört mit stolzer Kampfeslust,
"Du Rhein bleibst deutsch wie meine Brust."
Lieb Vaterland, &c.

4. *So lang ein Tropfen Blut noch glüht,*
Noch eine Faust den Degen zieht,
Und noch ein Arm die Büchse spannt,
Betritt kein Feind hier deinen Strand!
Lieb Vaterland, &c.

5. *Der Schwur erschallt, die Woge rinnt,*
Die Fahnen flattern hoch im Wind,
Am Rhein, am Rhein, am deutschen Rhein,
Wir alle wollen Hüter sein!
Lieb Vaterland, &c.

BRUCE'S ADDRESS TO HIS ARMY.

Written by Robert Burns. Composer Unknown.



THE RUSSIAN NATIONAL ANTHEM.

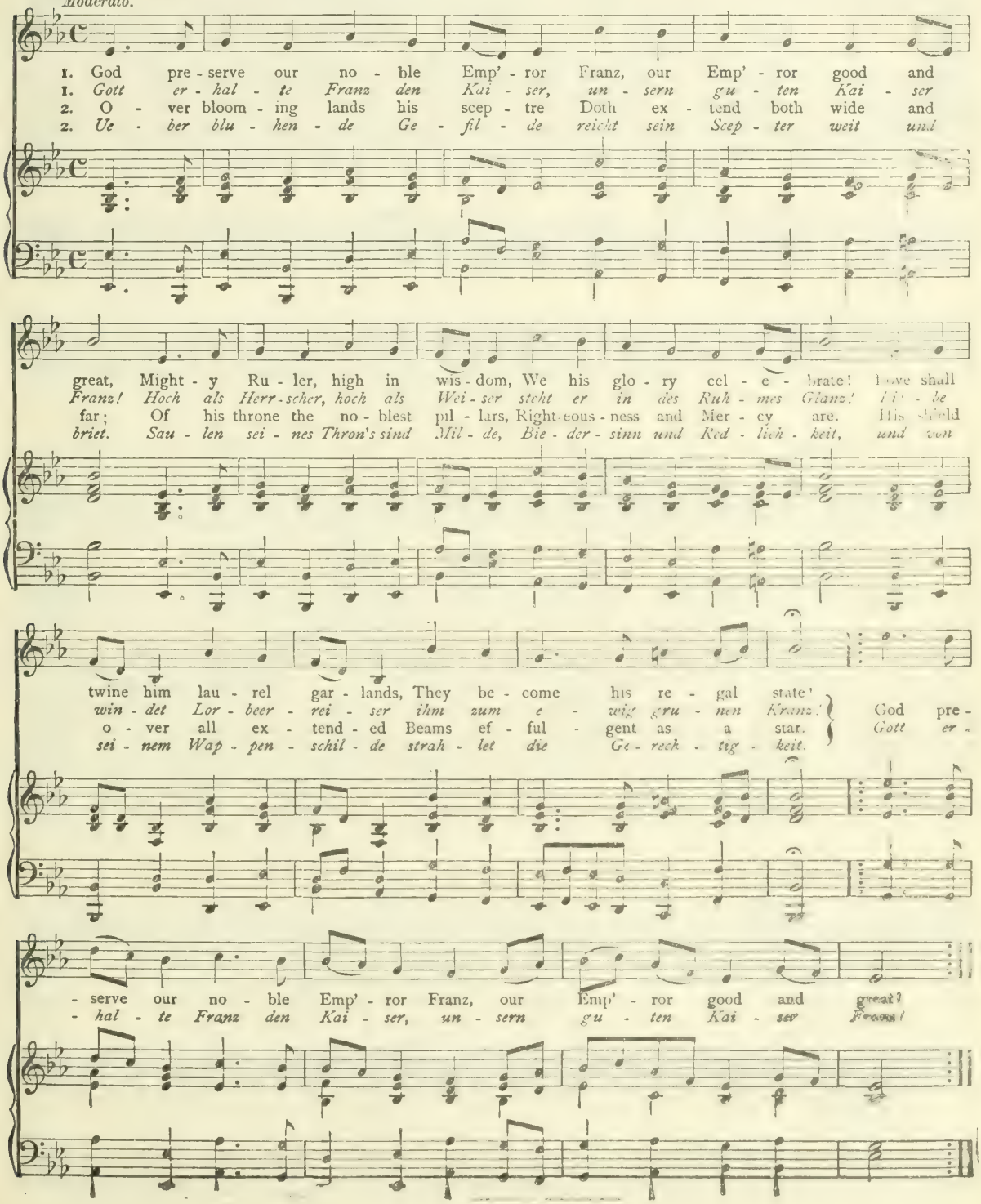
Words by Joukowsky. Music by Von Lvoff.



AUSTRIAN NATIONAL HYMN.

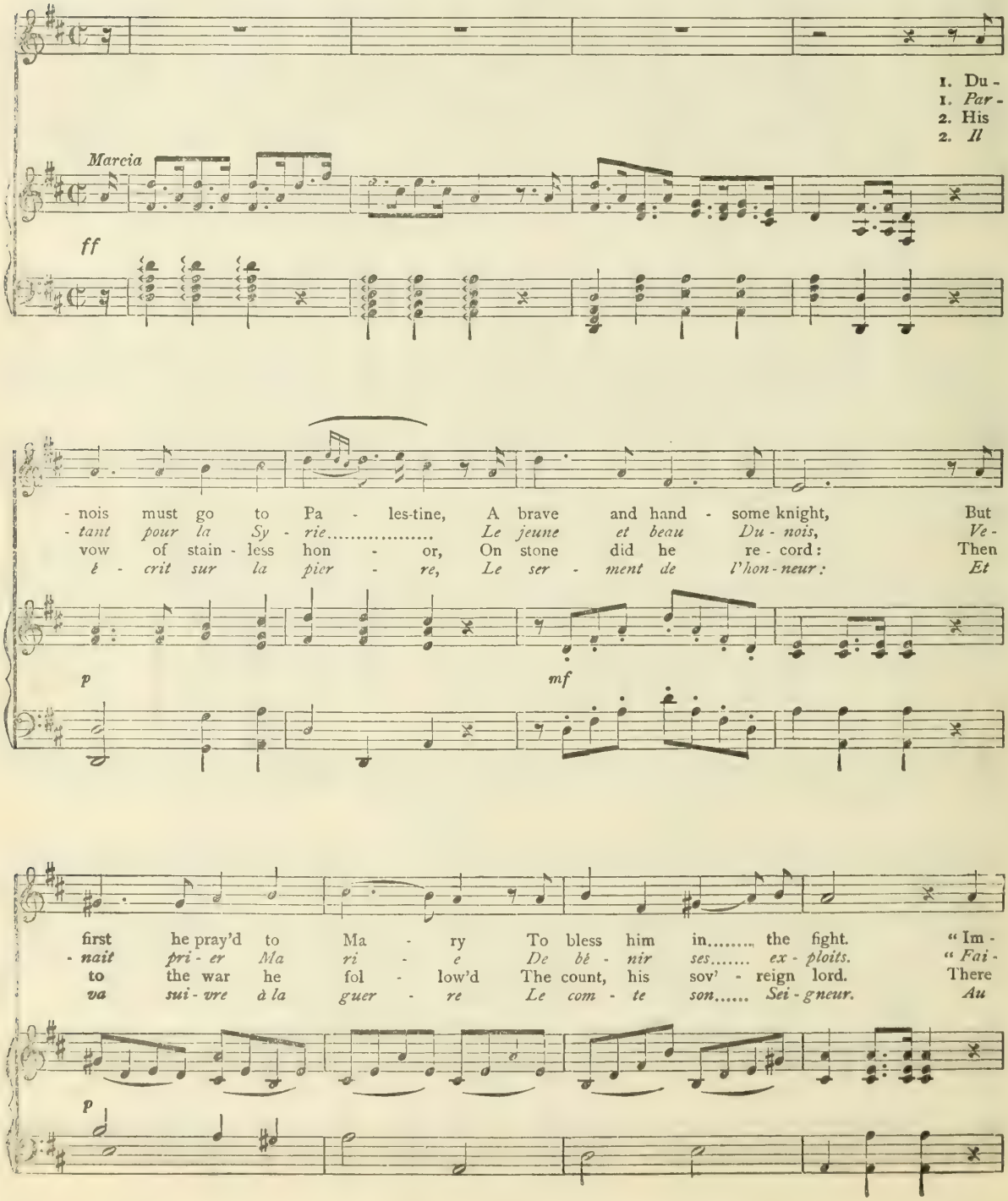
Words by Laurenz Leop. Haschka, (1797.) Music by Haydn.

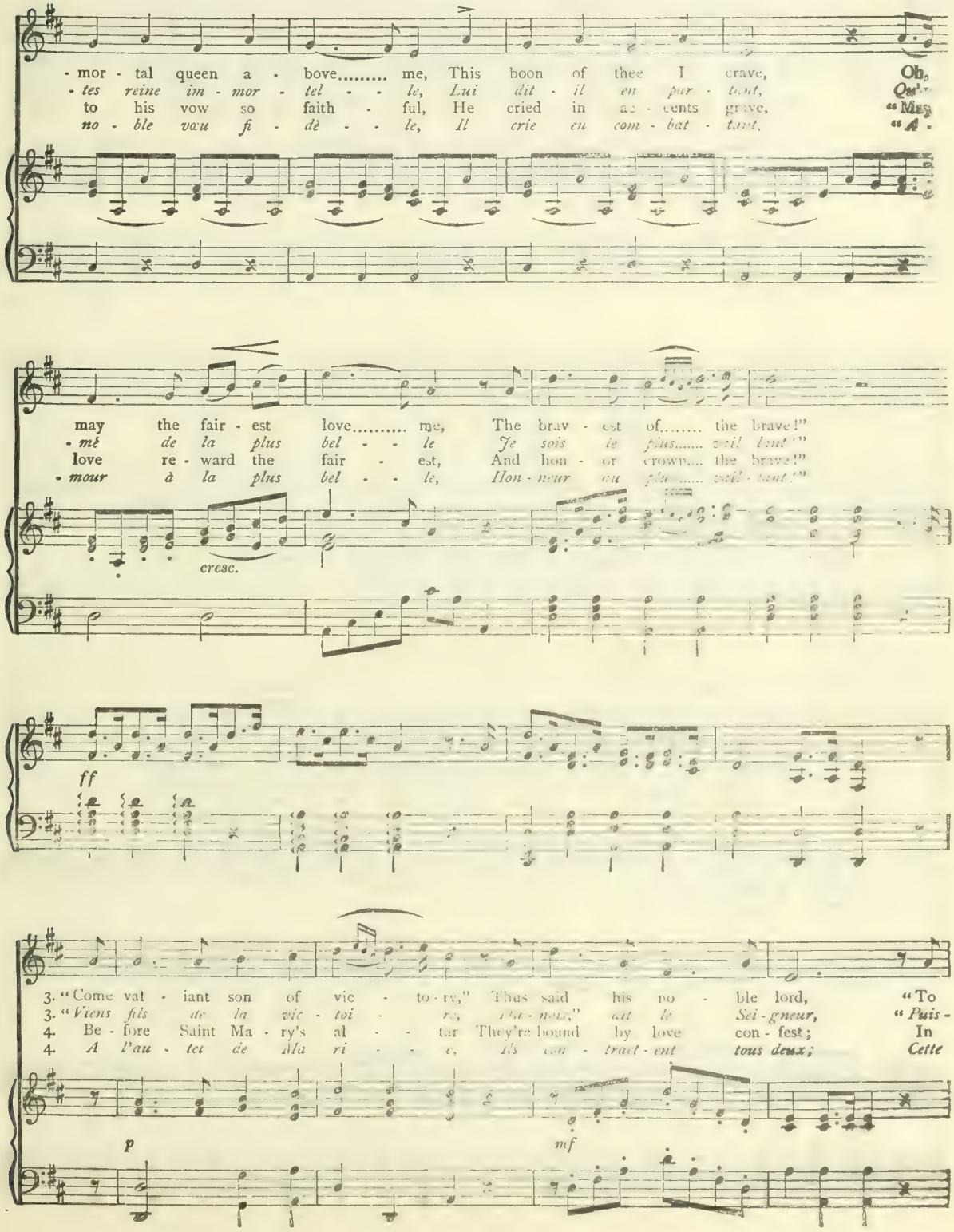
Moderato.

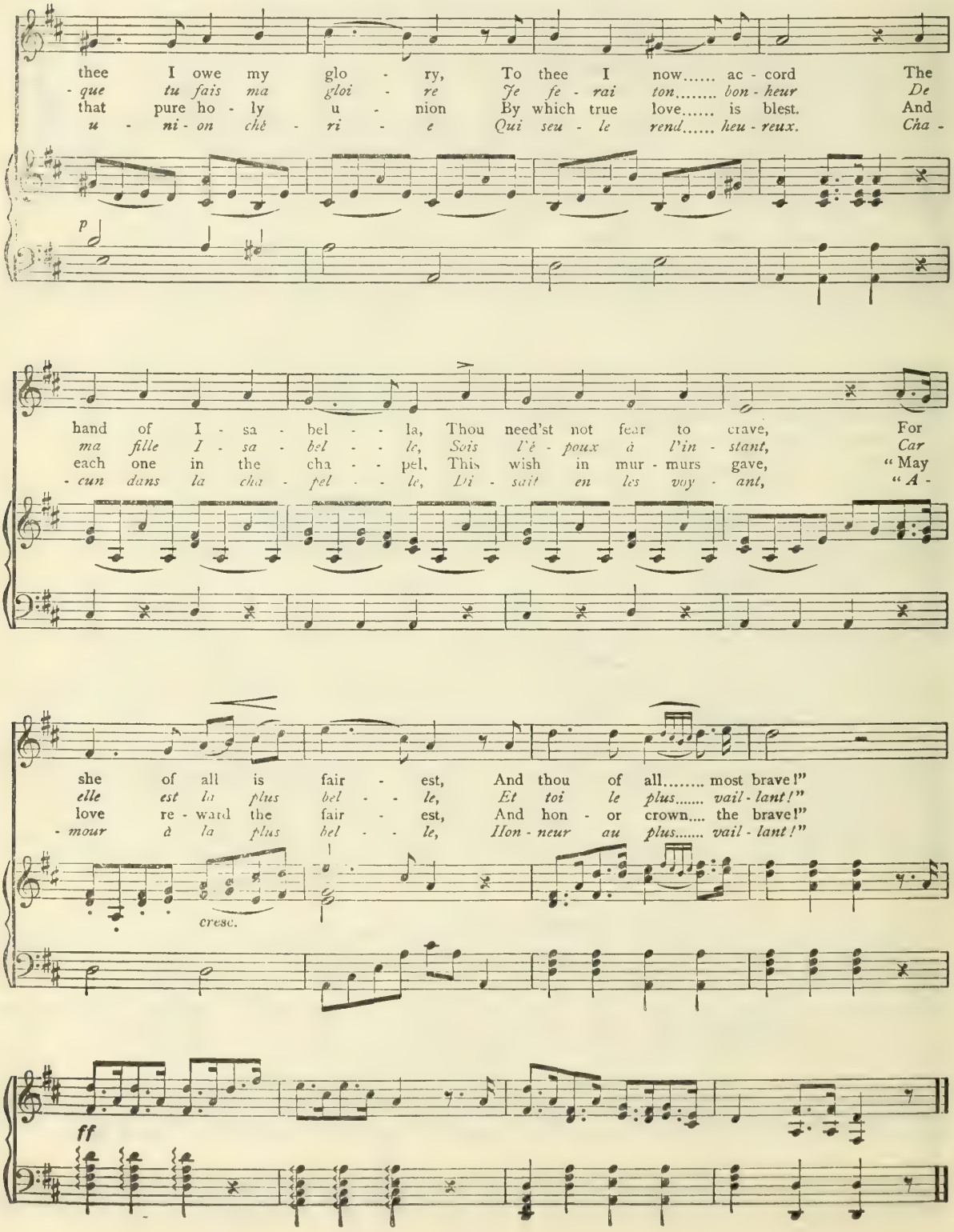


PARTANT POUR LA SYRIE.

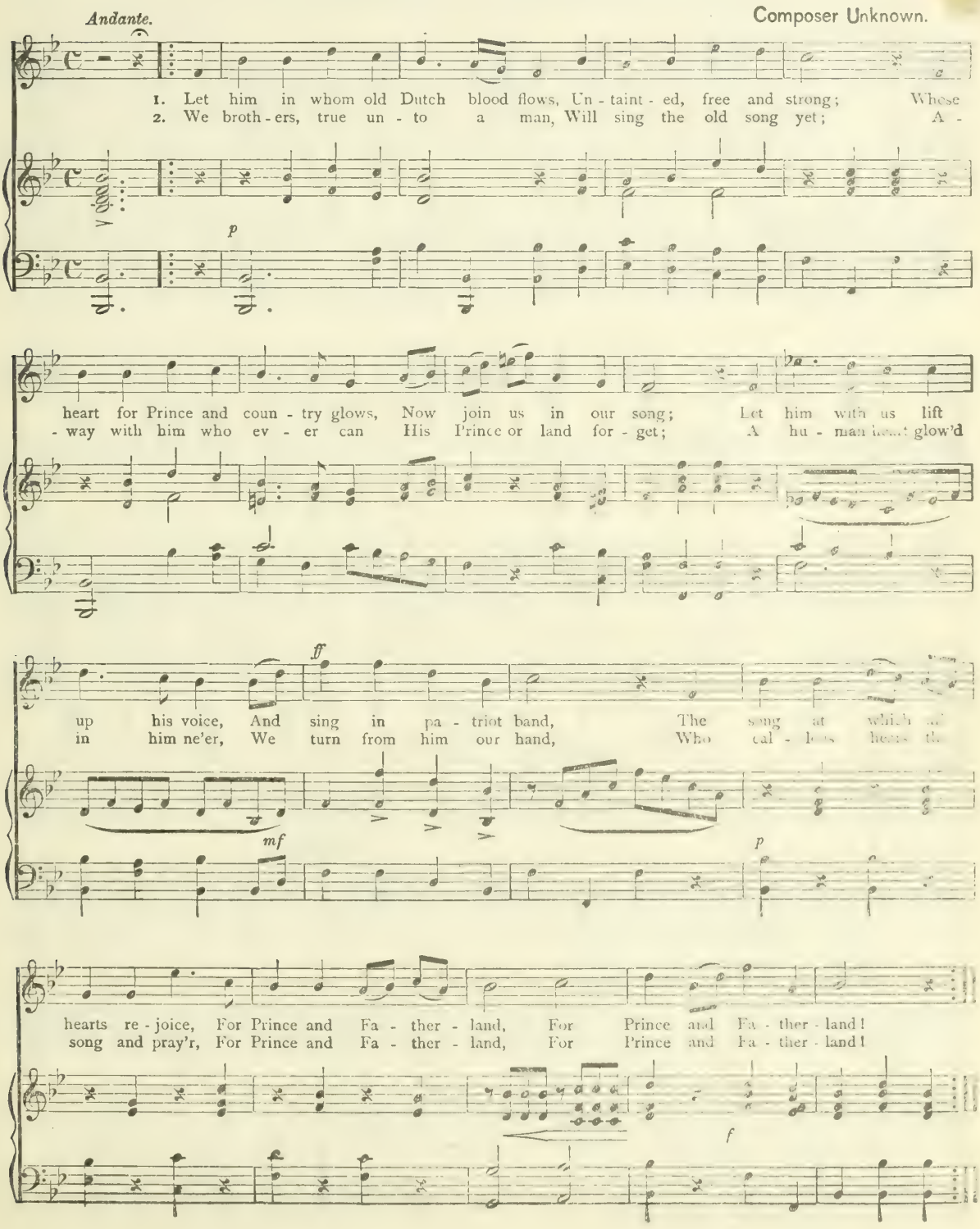
Words and Music by Queen Hortense.




- mor - tal queen a - bove..... me, This boon of thee I crave,
- tes reine im - mor - tel - - le, Lui dit - il en par - tant,
to his vow so faith - ful, He cried in ac - cents grave,
no - ble vœu fi - dè - - le, Il crie en com - bat - tant,
Oh,
Qu'
"May
"A -
may the fair - est love..... me, The brav - est of..... the brave!"
- mé de la plus bel - - le Je sois le plus..... vail - lant!"
love re - ward the fair - est, And hon - or crown.... the brave!"
- mour à la plus bel - - le, Hon - neur au plus..... vail - lant!"
cresc.
ff
3. "Come val - iant son of vic - to - ry," Thus said his no - ble lord,
3. "Viens fils de la vic - toi - re, Dit - nous," dit le Sei - gneur,
4. Be - fore Saint Ma - ry's al - - tar They're bound by love con - fest;
4. A l'au - tel de Ma ri - - e, Ils con - tract - ent tous deux;
"To
"Puis -
In
Cette
p
mf


thee I owe my glo - ry, To thee I now..... ac - cord The
- que tu fais ma gloi - re Je fe - rai ton..... bon - heur De
that pure ho - ly u - nion By which true love..... is blest. And
u - ni - on ché - ri - e Qui seu - le rend..... heu - reux. Cha -
p
hand of I - sa - bel - - la, Thou need'st not fear to crave, For
ma fille I - sa - bel - - le, Sois l'é - poux à l'in - stant, Car
each one in the cha - pel, This wish in mur - murs gave, "May
- cun dans la cha - pel - - le, Di - sait en les voy - ant, "A -
she of all is fair - est, And thou of all..... most brave!"
elle est la plus bel - - le, Et toi le plus..... vail - lant!"
love re - ward the fair - est, And hon - or crown.... the brave!"
- mour à la plus bel - - le, Hon - neur au plus..... vail - lant!"
cresc.
ff

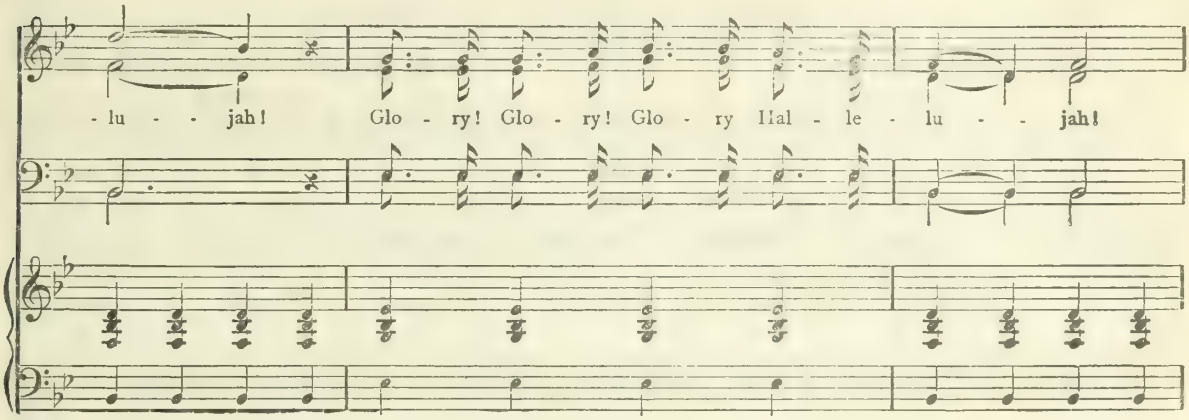
DUTCH NATIONAL SONG.

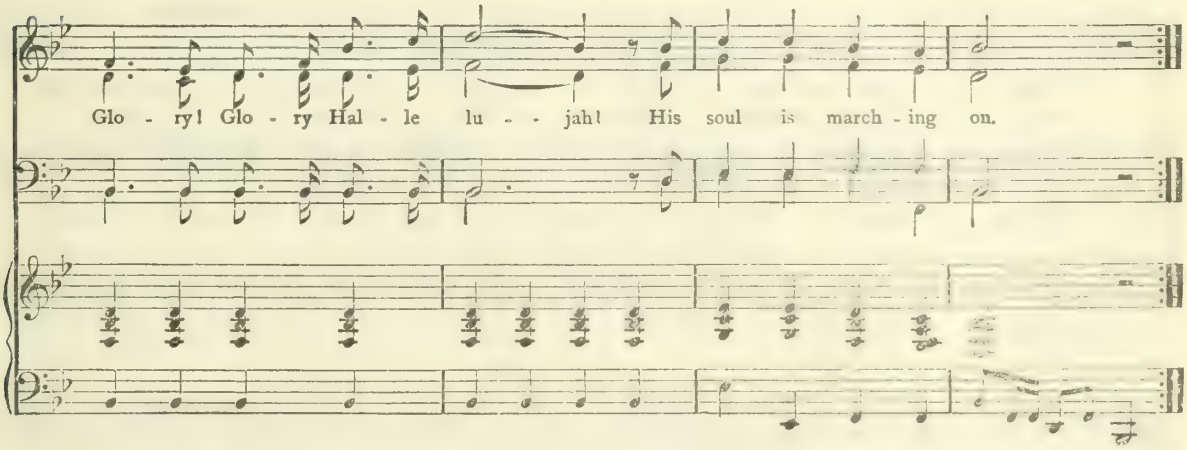


GLORY: GLORY: HALLELUJAH:

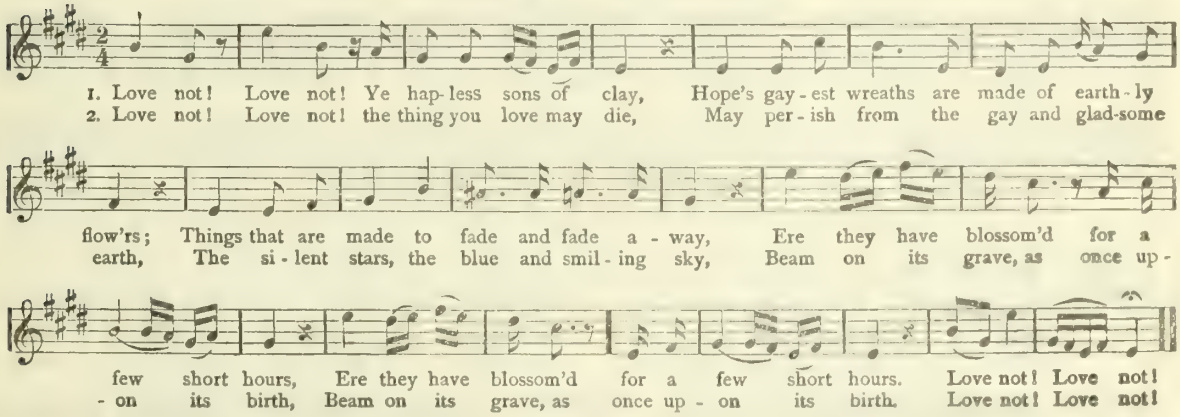
Words by Charles S. Hall. Composer Unknown.







LOVE NOT.

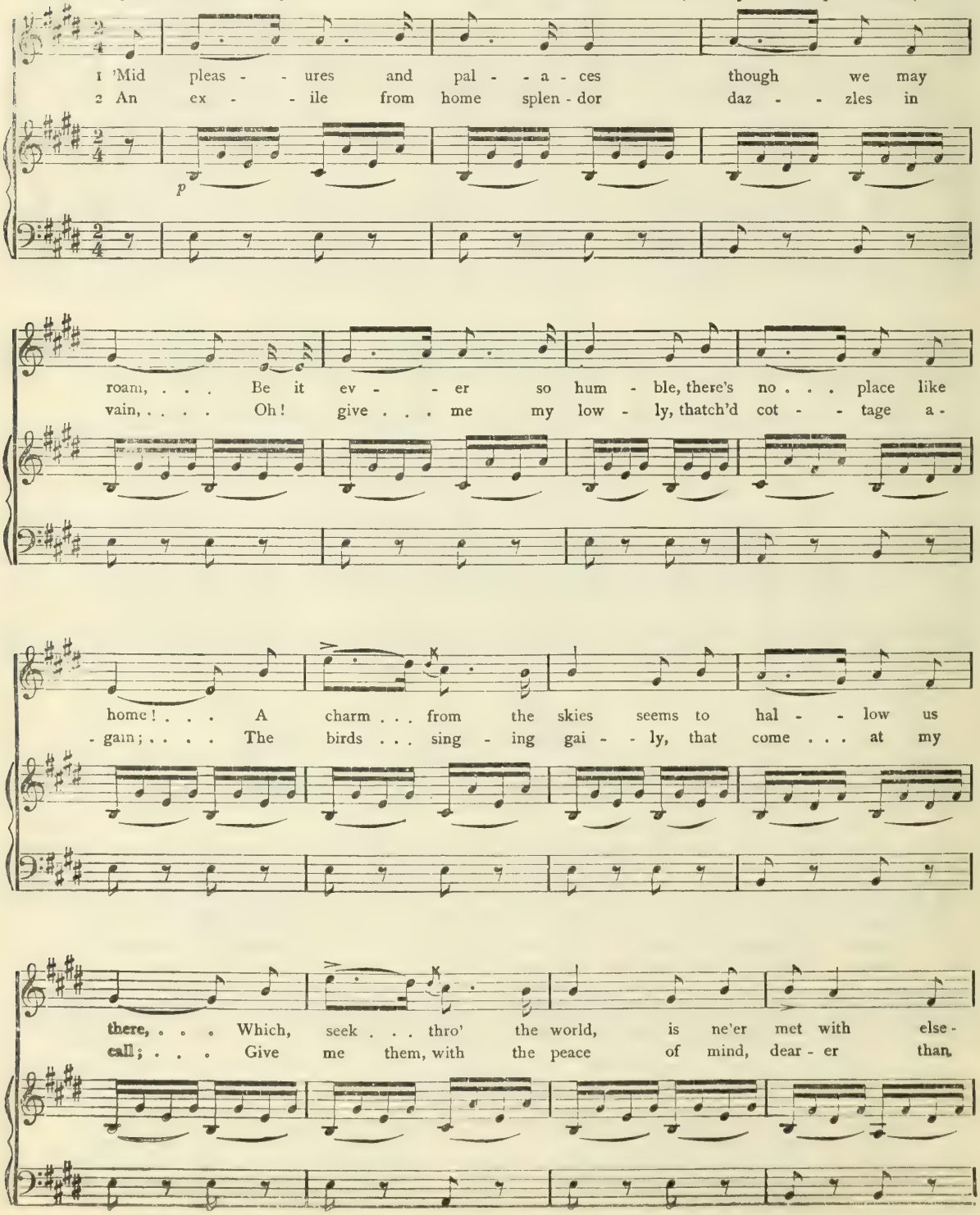


3. Love not! love not! the thing you love may change,
The rosy lip may cease to smile on you,
The kindly beaming eye grow cold and strange,
The heart still warmly beat, yet not be true.
Love not! love not!

4. Love not! love not! oh, warning vainly said,
In present hours, as in years gone by:
Love flings a halo round the dear one's head,
Faultless, immortal till they change or die.
Love not! love not!

HOME, SWEET HOME.

Words by John Howard Payne. Sicilian Air adapted by Sir Henry R. Bishop.

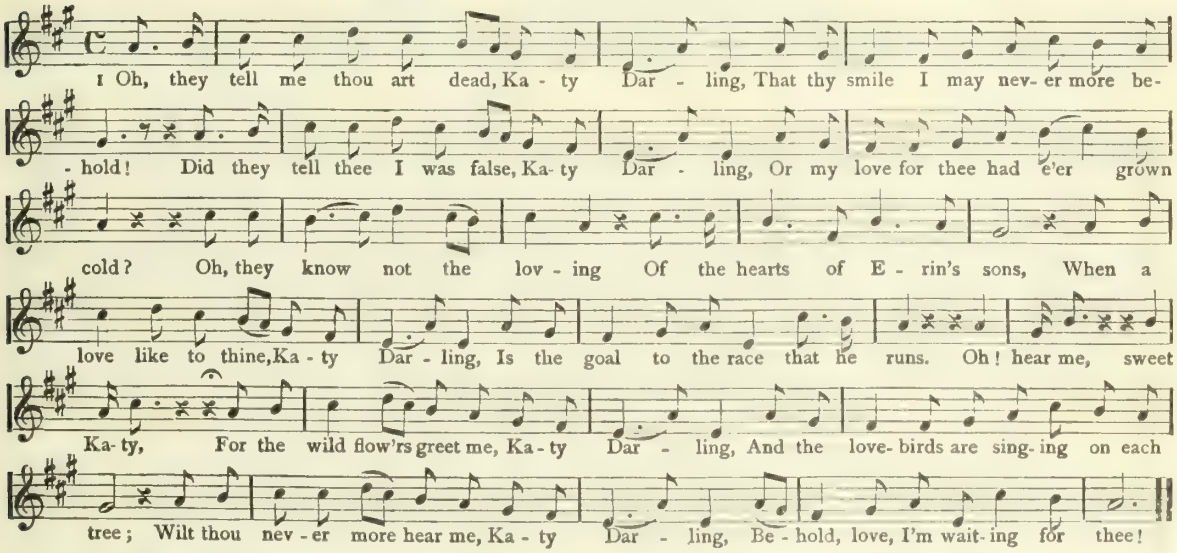




3. How sweet 'tis to sit 'neath a fond father's smile,
And the cares of a mother to soothe and beguile,
Let others delight 'mid new pleasures to roam,
But give me, oh! give me the pleasures of home.
Home! home! sweet, sweet home!
But give me, oh! give me the pleasures of home.

4. To thee I'll return, over-burdened with care,
The heart's dearest solace will smile on me there;
No more from that cottage again will I roam,
Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.
Home! home! sweet, sweet home!
There's no place like home; there's no place like home.

KATY DARLING.

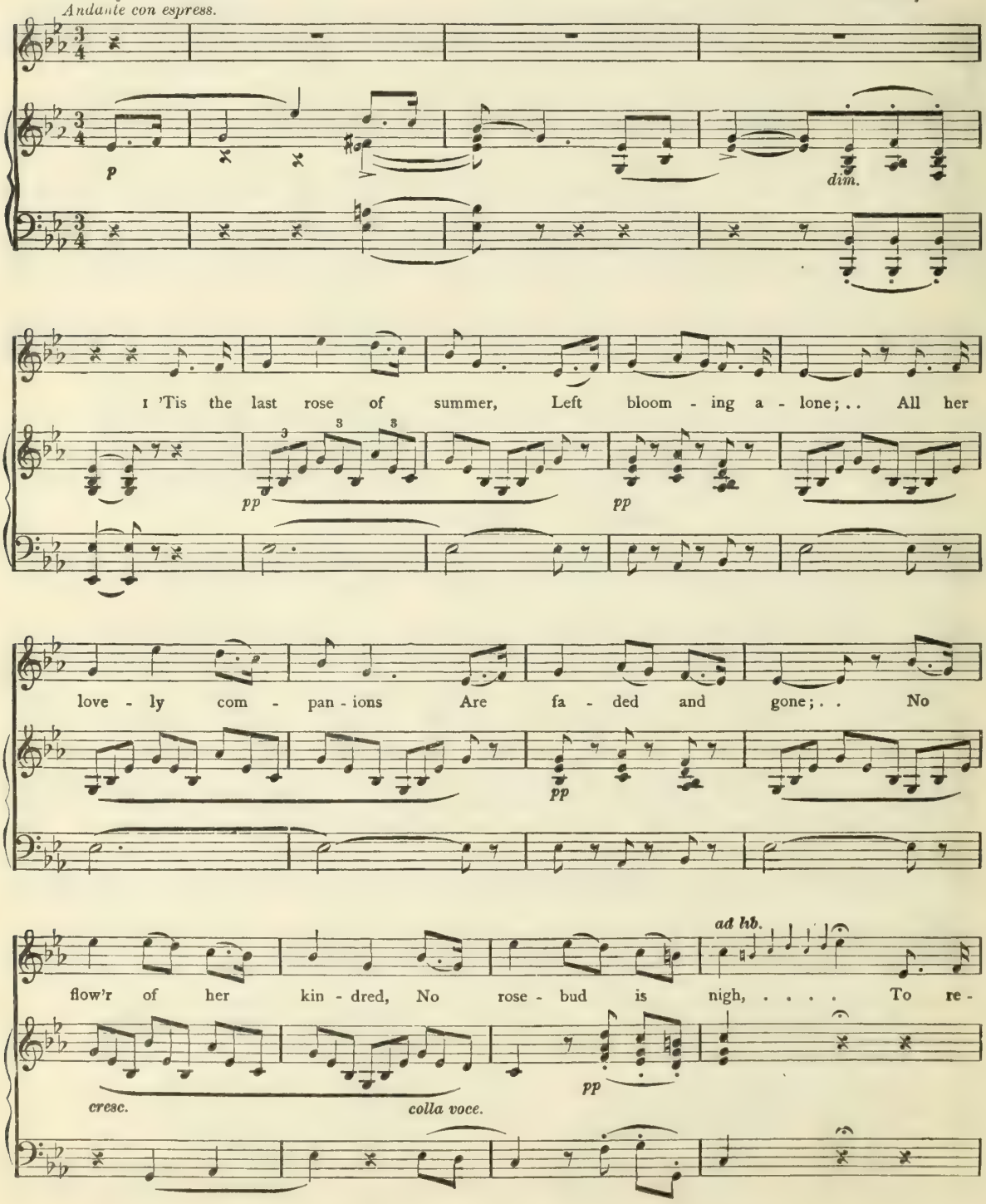


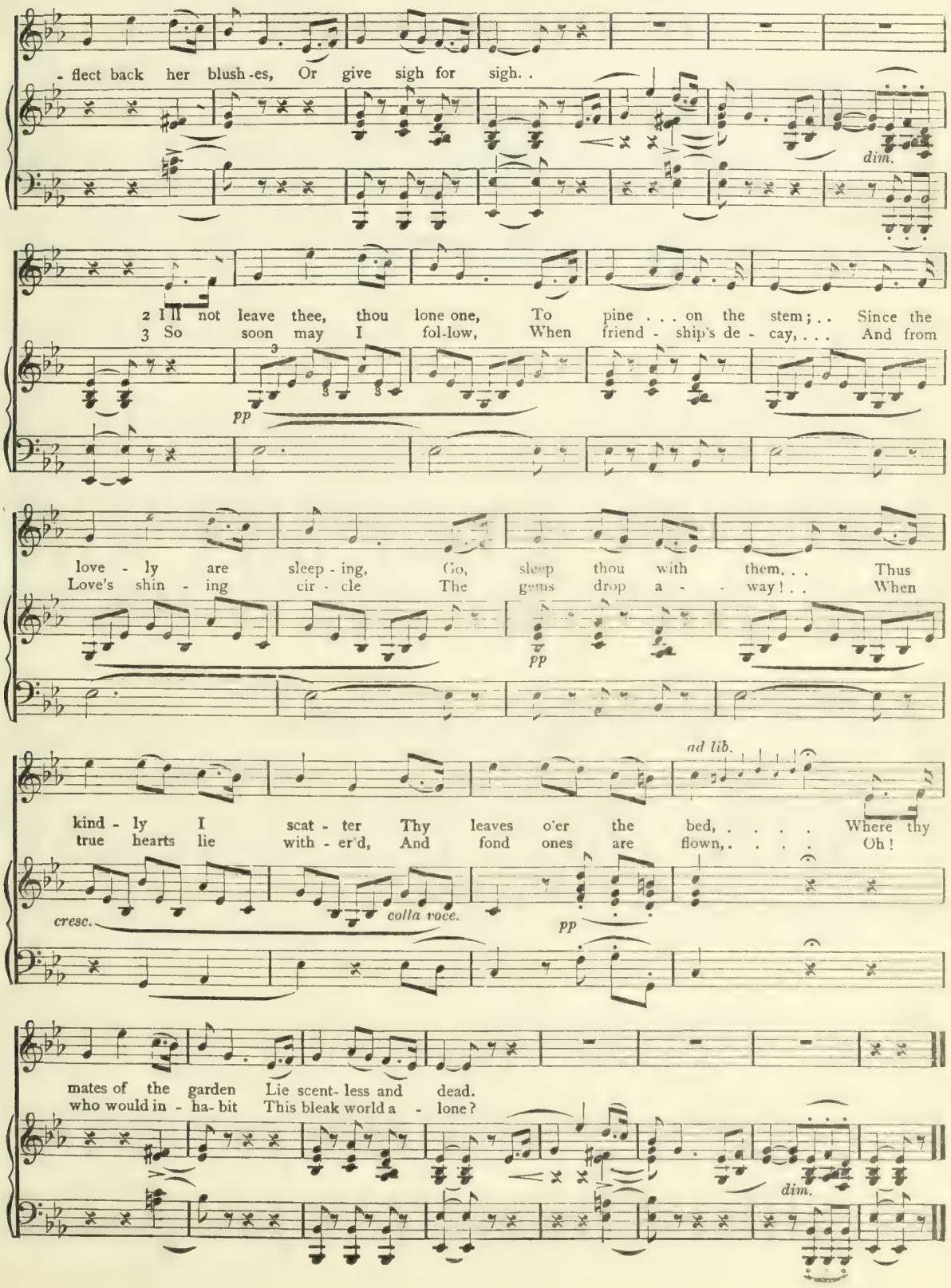
2. I'm kneeling by thy grave, Katy Darling,
This world is all a bleak world to me;
Oh, could'st thou hear my wailing, Katy Darling!
Or think, love, I am sighing for thee;
Oh, methinks the stars are weeping,
By their soft and lambent light,
And thy heart would be melting, Katy Darling,
Could'st thou see thy lone Dermot this night,
Oh, listen, sweet Katy!
For the wild flow'rs are sleeping, Katy Darling,
And the love-birds are nest'ling in each tree—
Wilt thou never more hear me, Katy Darling,
Or know, love, I'm kneeling by thee?

3. 'Tis useless all my weeping, Katy Darling,
But I'll pray that thy spirit be my guide,
And that when my life be spent, Katy Darling,
They will lay me down to rest by thy side.
Oh, a huge great grief I'm bearing,
Though I scarce can heave a sigh,
And I'll ever be dreaming, Katy Darling,
Of thy love every day till I die.
Farewell then, sweet Katy!
For the wild-flow'rs will blossom, Katy Darling,
And the love-birds will warble in each tree;
But in heaven I will meet thee, Katy Darling,
For there, love, thou'rt waiting for me.

THE LAST ROSE OF SUMMER.

Words by Thomas Moore. Air.—"The Groves of Blarney."

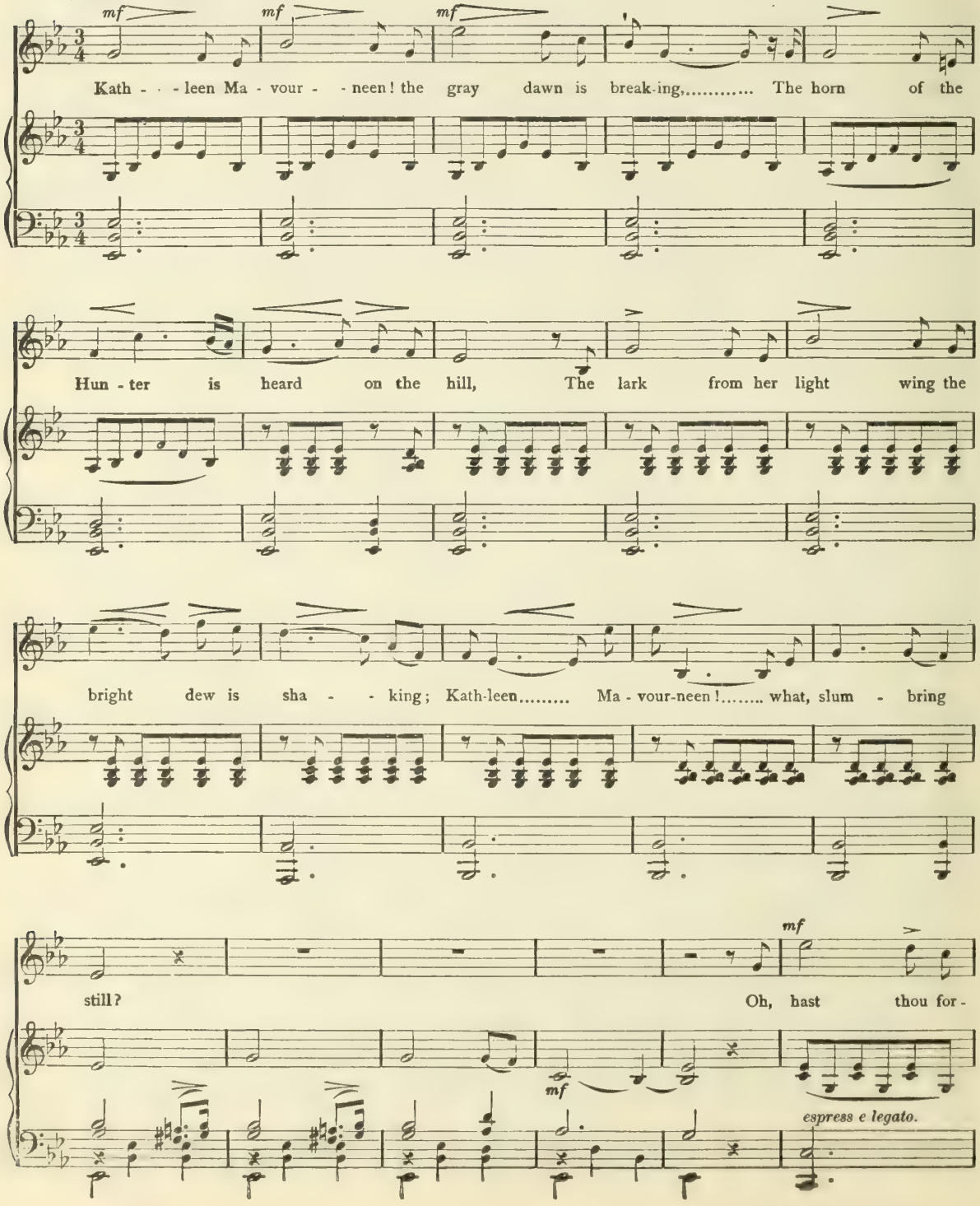


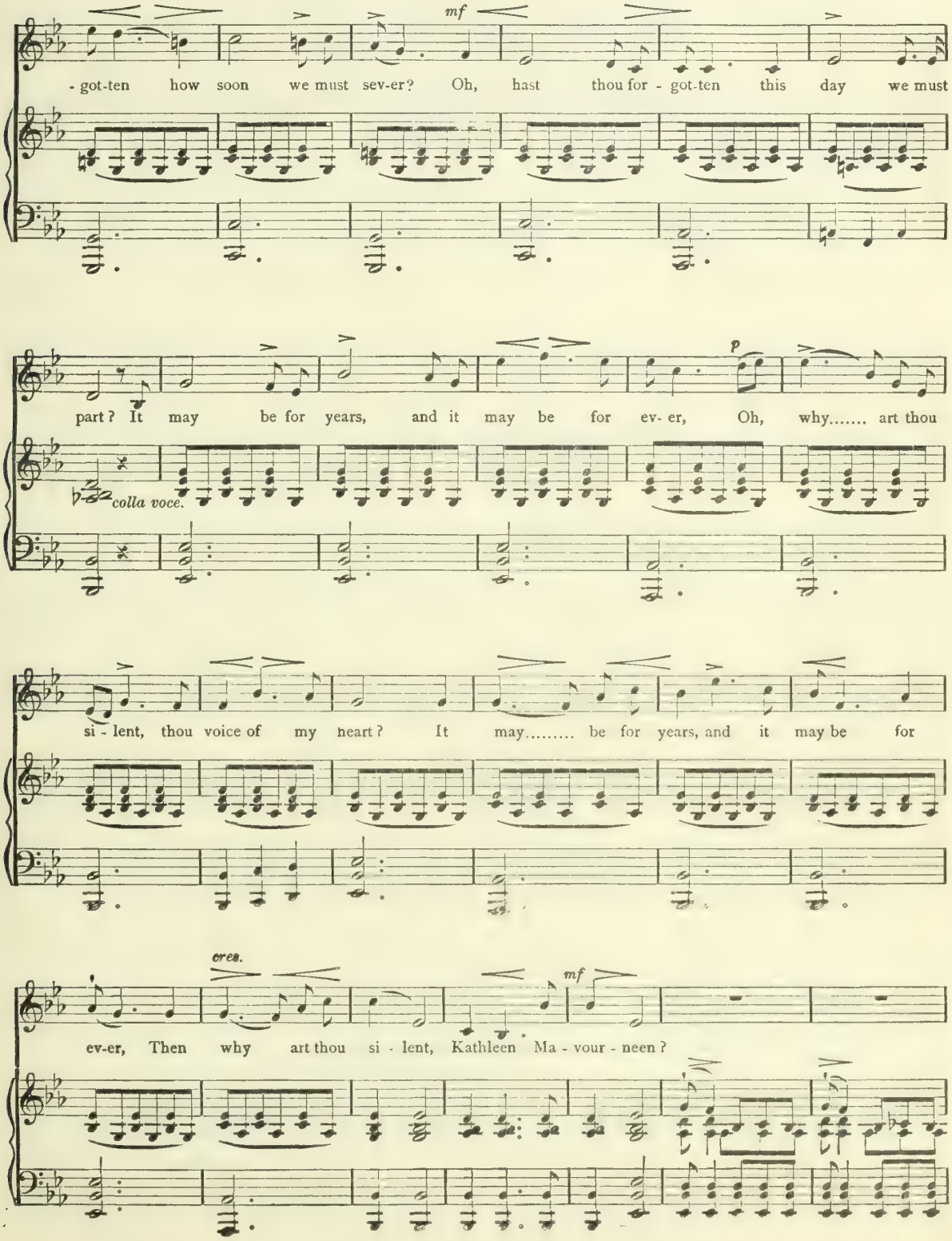

- flect back her blush-es, Or give sigh for sigh. .
dim.
2 I'll not leave thee, thou lone one, To pine . . . on the stem; . . Since the
3 So soon may I fol-low, When friend - ship's de - cay, . . . And from
pp
love - ly are sleep - ing, Go, sleep thou with them. . . Thus
Love's shin - ing cir - cle The gems drop a - - way! . . When
pp
ad lib.
kind - ly I scat - ter Thy leaves o'er the bed, ... Where thy
true hearts lie with - er'd, And fond ones are flown, ... Oh!
cresc.
colla voce.
pp
mates of the garden Lie scent- less and dead.
who would in - ha- bit This bleak world a - lone?
dim.

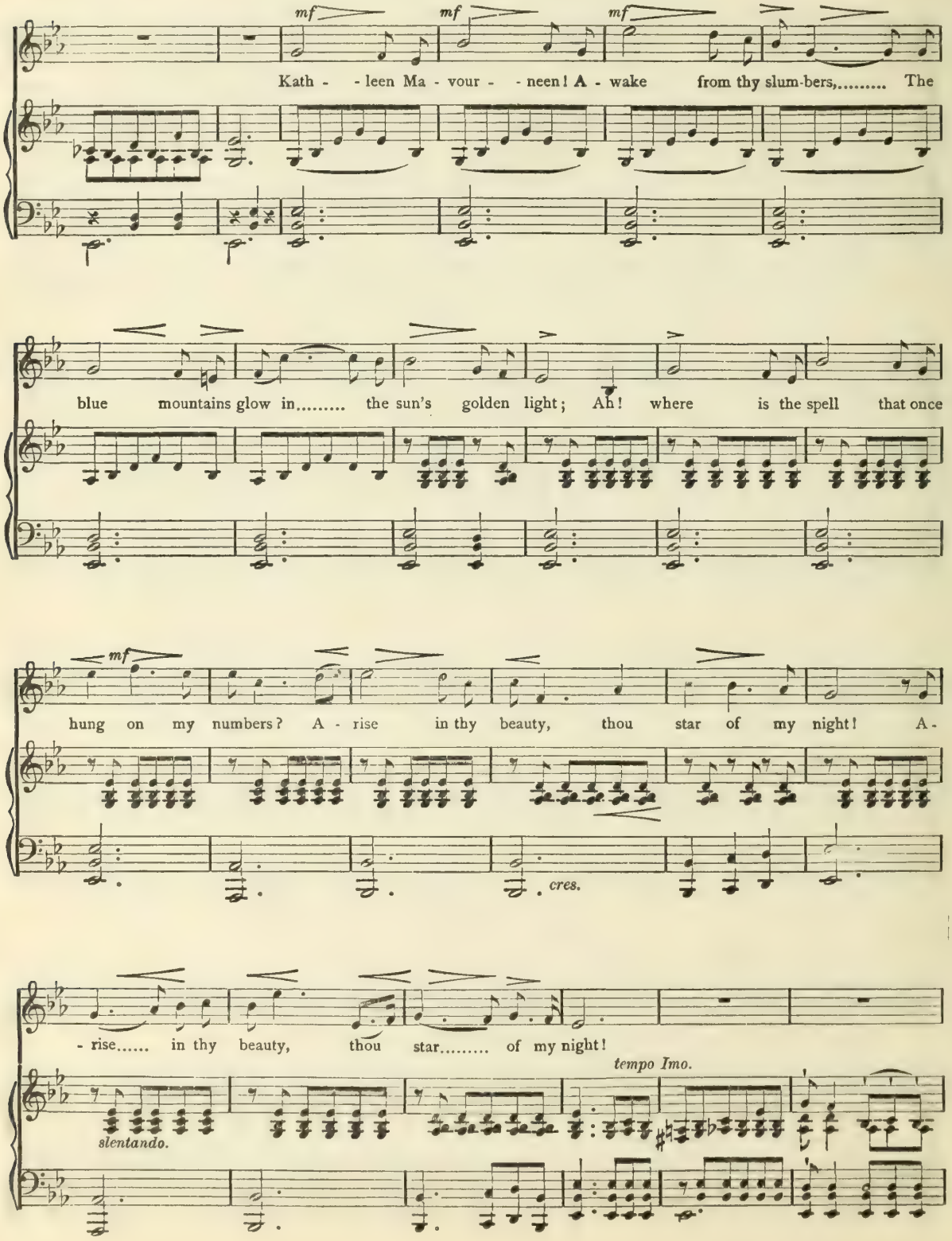
KATHLEEN MAVOURNEEN.

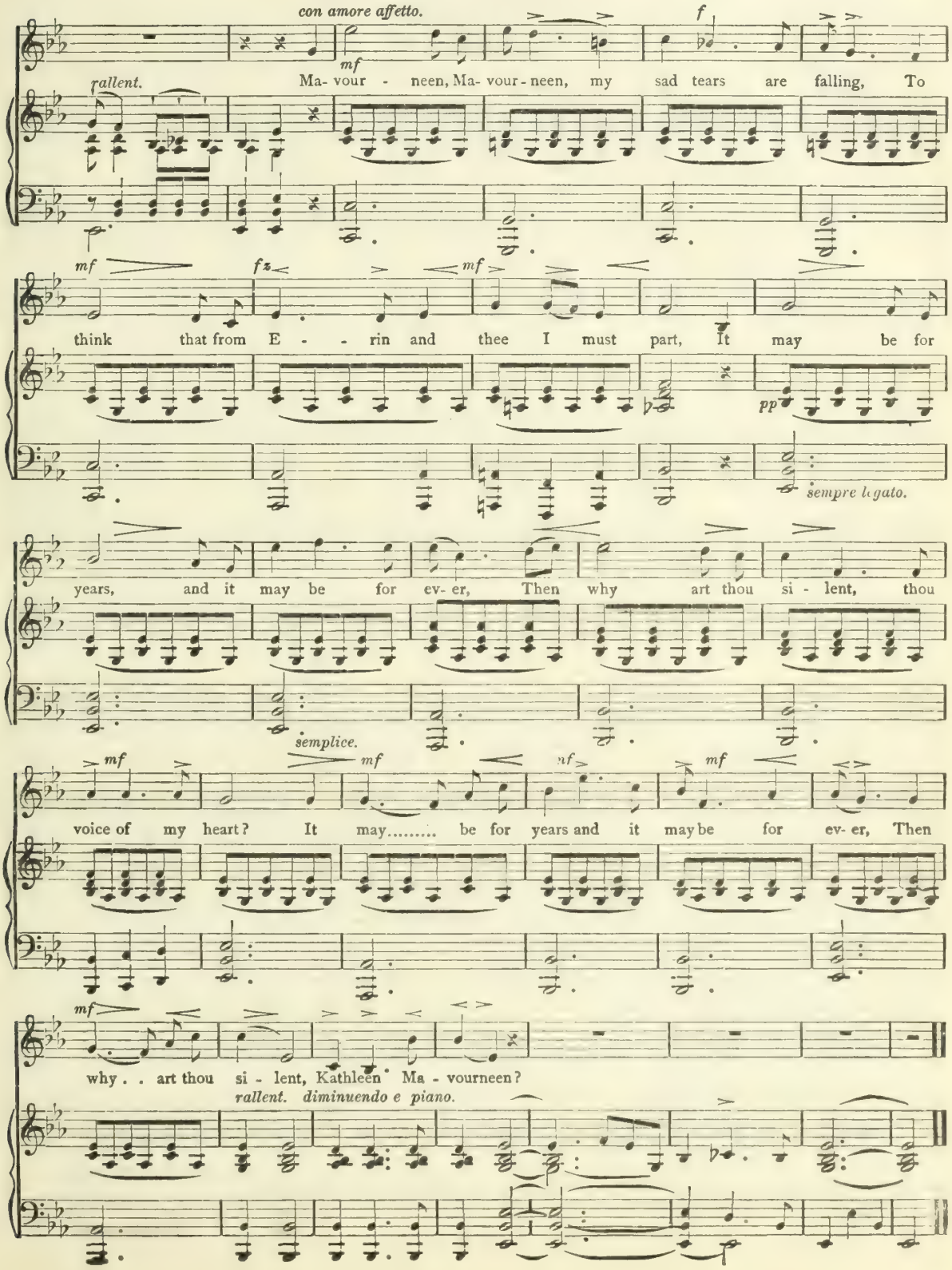
Words by Mrs. Crawford. Music by F. N. Crouch.

Andante e Penseroso.




mf
- got-ten how soon we must sev-er? Oh, hast thou for - got-ten this day we must
p
part? It may be for years, and it may be for ev- er, Oh, why..... art thou
colla voce.
si - lent, thou voice of my heart? It may..... be for years, and it may be for
cres.
mf
ev-er, Then why art thou si - lent, Kathleen Ma - vour - neen?

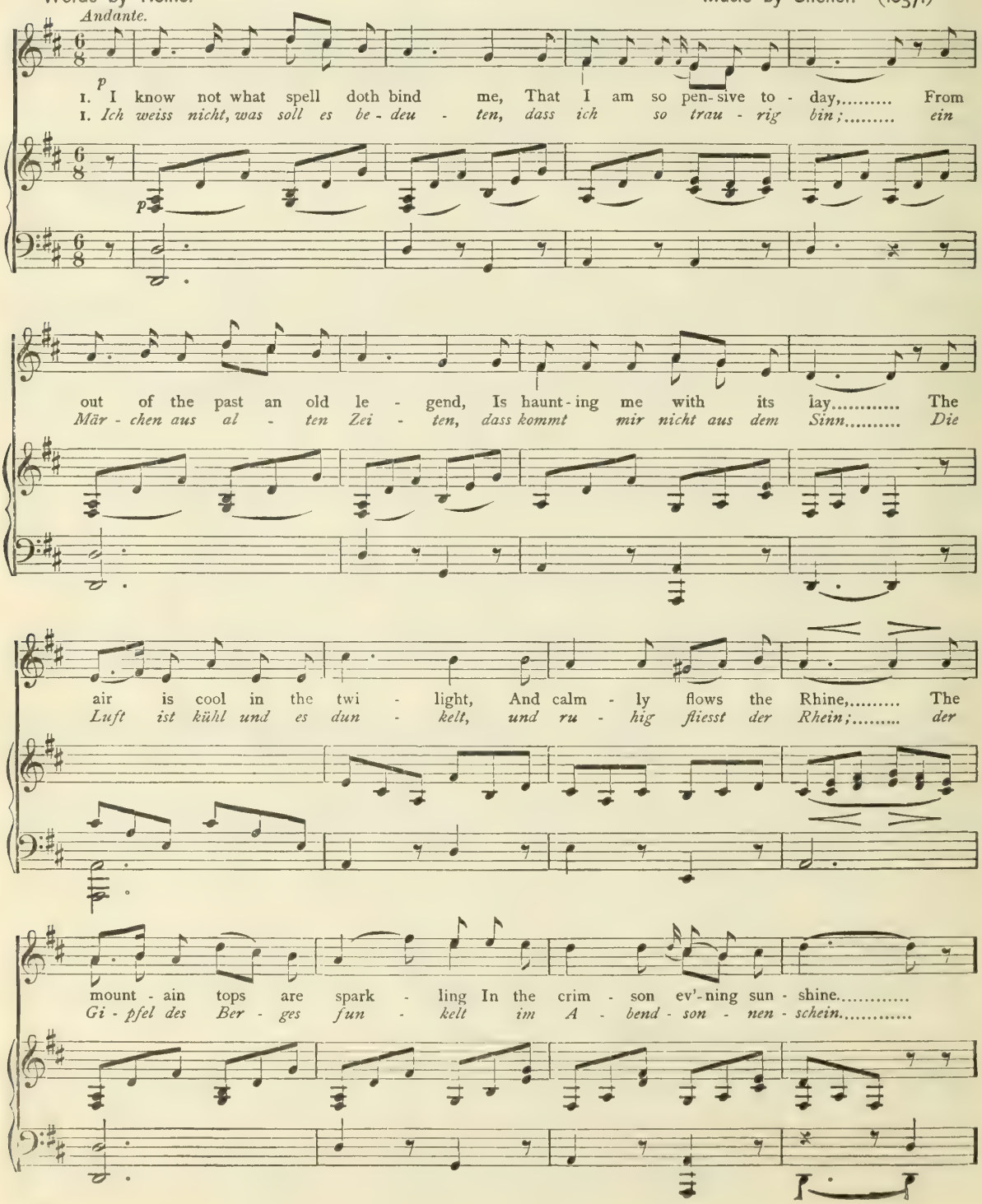

mf
mf
mf
Kath - - leen Ma - vour - - neen! A - wake from thy slum-bers,..... The
blue mountains glow in..... the sun's golden light; Ah! where is the spell that once
mf
hung on my numbers? A - rise in thy beauty, thou star of my night! A -
cres.
- rise..... in thy beauty, thou star..... of my night!
tempo Imo.
slentando.


con amore affetto.
mf
f
rallent.
Ma- vour - neen, Ma- vour - neen, my sad tears are falling, To
mf
fz
mf
think that from E - - rin and thee I must part, It may be for
pp
sempre legato.
years, and it may be for ev- er, Then why art thou si - lent, thou
semplice.
mf
mf
nf
mf
voice of my heart? It may..... be for years and it may be for ev- er, Then
mf
why . . art thou si - lent, Kathleen Ma - vourneen?
rallent. diminuendo e piano.

LORELEY.

(LORELEY.)

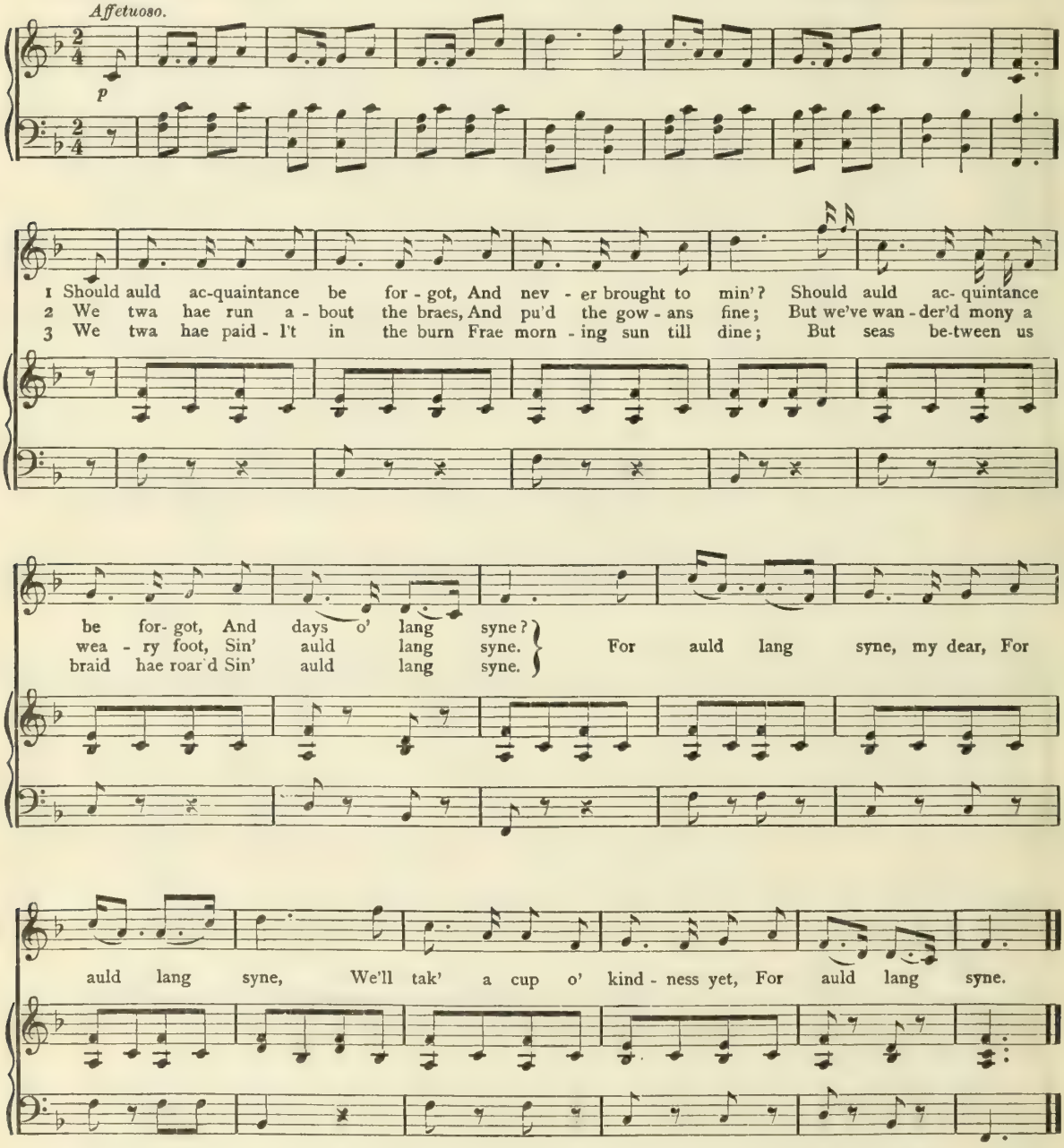
Words by Heine. Music by Silcher. (1837.)




p
2. The love - li - est maid - en is sit - ting So strange - ly beau ti - ful there,..... Her
2. Die schön - ste Jung - frau sit - zet dort o - ben wun - der - bar,..... ihr
3. In his skiff the be - wil - der'd boat - man Is seiz'd with love's wild est woe,..... He
3. Den Schif - fer im klei - nen Schif - fe er - greift es mit wil - dem Weh;..... er
p
won - d'rous jew - els are glist' - ning, She combs her bright gold - en hair..... With a
gold - nes Gesch - mei - de blit - zet, sie kämmt ihr gol - de - nes Haar;..... Sie
sees not the treach - 'rous break - ers That men - ace his bark be - low;..... And
schaut nicht die Fel - sen - rif - fe, er schaut nur hin - auf in die Höh..... Jeh
gold - en comb doth she comb it, A song so wild she sings;..... There
kämmt es mit gol - de - nem Kam - me und singt ein Lied da - bei;..... das
soon will the waves o - ver - whelm him, Be - neath the cur - rent strong;..... For
glau - be, die Wel - len ver - schlin - gen am En - de Schif - fer und Kahn;..... und
breathes some weird mys - tic pow - - er In ev' - ry tone that rings.....
hat ei - ne wun - der - sa - - me, ge - wal - ti - ge Me - lo - dei.....
fa - tal un - to the vic - - tim Is Lore - ley's sy - ren song.....
das hat mit ih - rem Sin - - gen die Lo - re - ley ge - than.....

AULD LANG SYNE.

Words by Robert Burns. Old Lowland Melody.



4.

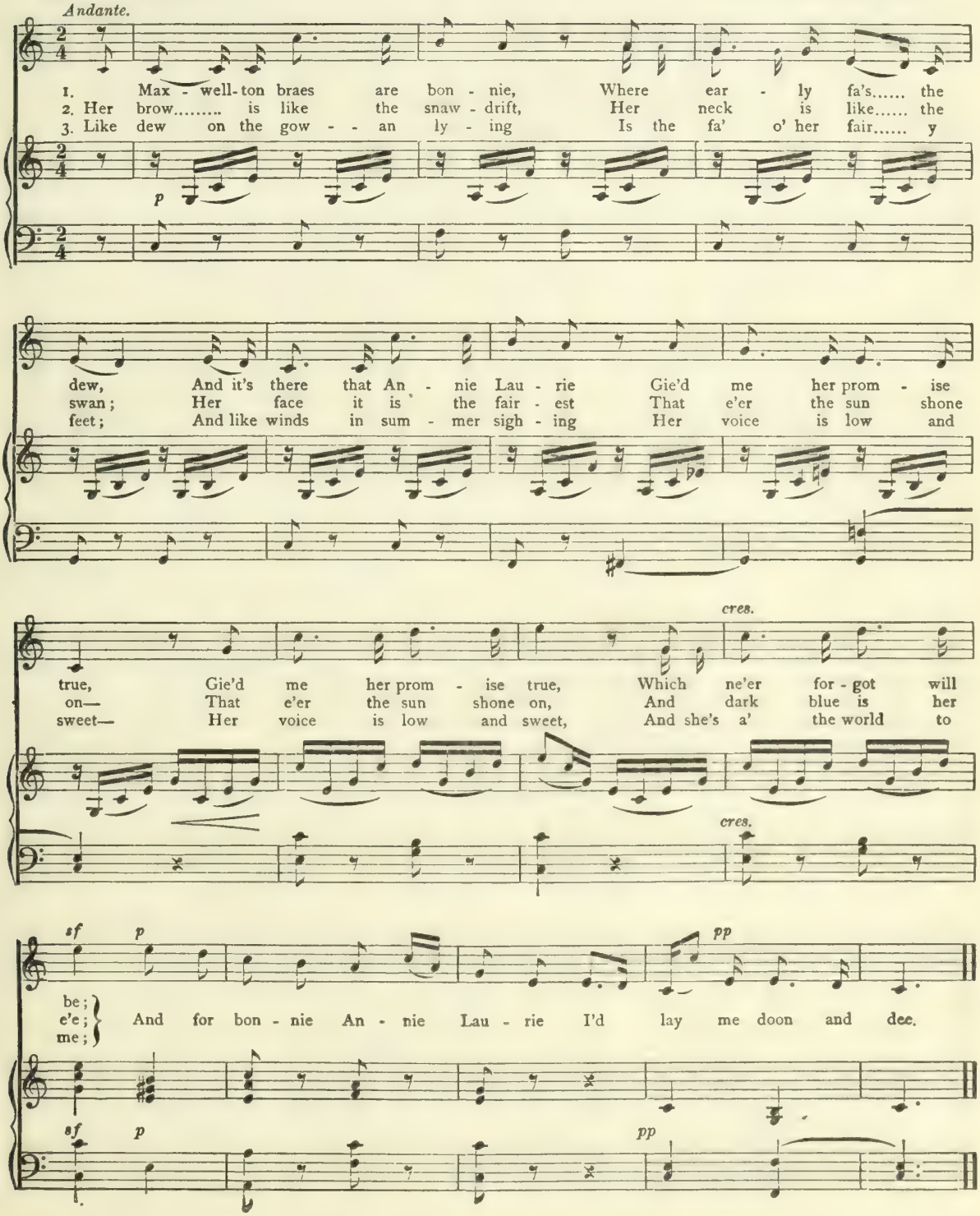
And there's a hand, my trusty frien,'
And gie's a hand o' thine;
And we'll tak' a right gude willy-waught
For auld lang syne.
For auld lang syne, *etc.*

5.

And surely ye'll be your pint stoup
As surely I'll be mine!
And we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
For auld lang syne.
For auld lang syne, *etc.*

ANNIE LAURIE.

Words by Douglas. Music by Lady John Scott.



SALLY IN OUR ALLEY.

Words by Henry Carey. Old English Air.

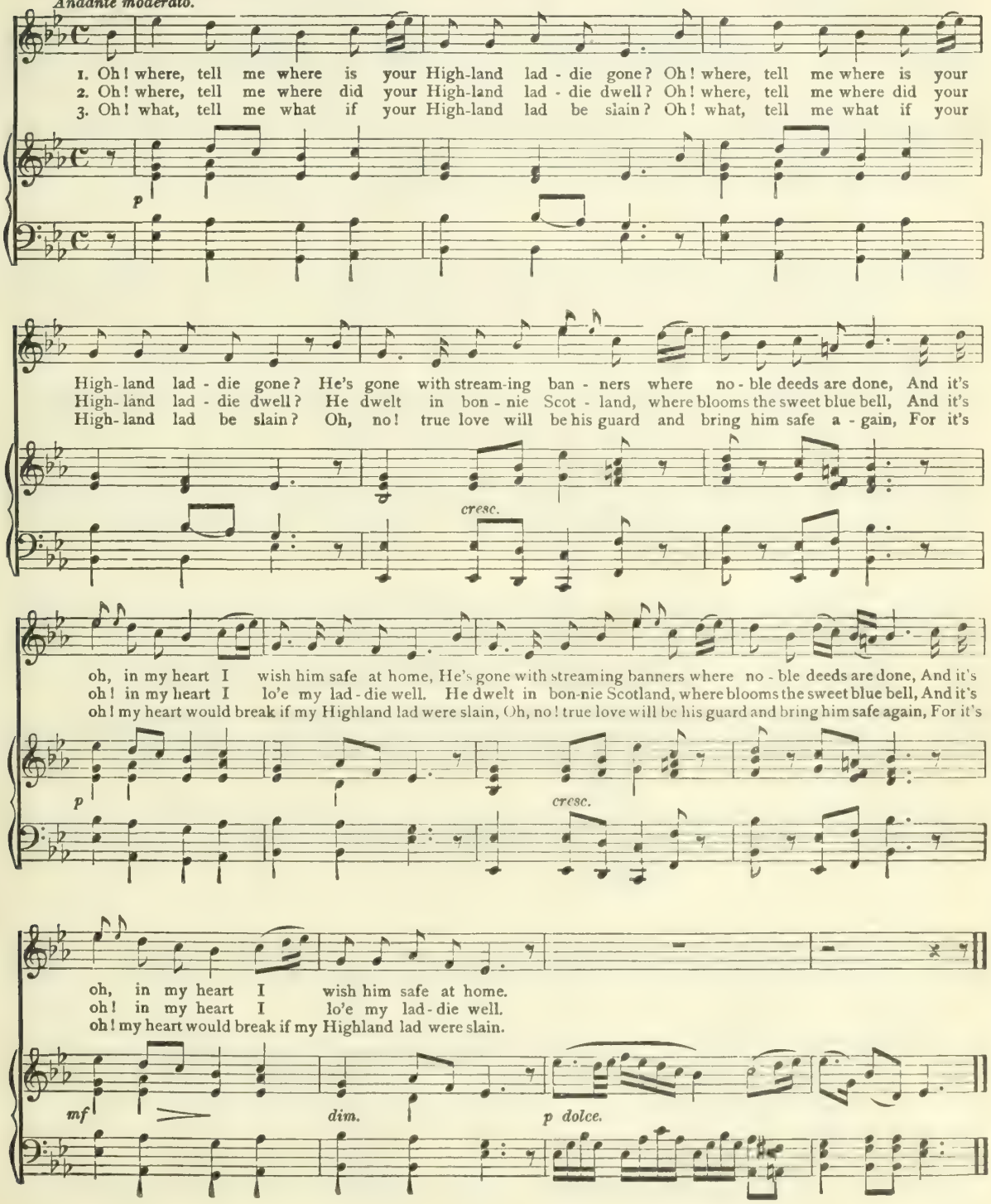
Andante.



THE BLUE BELLS OF SCOTLAND.

Words by Mrs. James Grant. Composer Unknown.

Andante moderato.



OFT IN THE STILLY NIGHT.

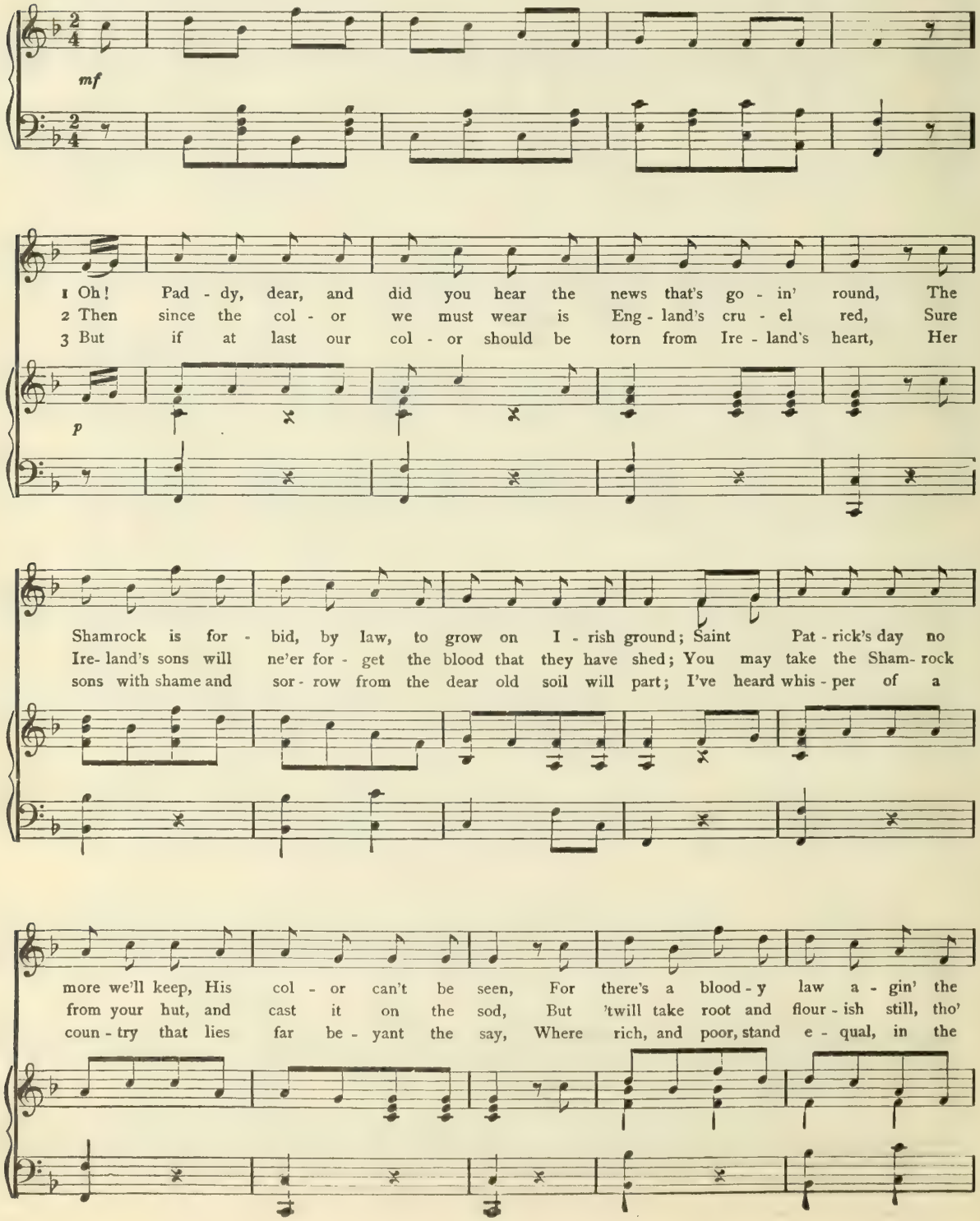
Words and Music by Thomas Moore.




words of love then spo - ken, The eyes that shone, now dimm'd and gone, The
ban - quet - hall de - sert - ed, Whose lights are fled, whose gar - lands dead, And
pp
cheer - ful hearts now bro - - ken!
all but he de - part - - ed!
Thus, in the still - y night, Ere
pp con pedale.
slum - ber's chain has bound..... me, Sad mem' - ry brings the light Of
riten.
oth - er days a - round me.
colla voce.

THE WEARING OF THE GREEN.

Words by Dion Boucicault. Composer Unknown.




Wear - in' o' the green; I met with Nap - per Tan - dy and he tuk me by the
un - der foot 'tis trod; When the law can stop the blades of grass from grow - ing as they
light of free - dom's day; O E - rin, must we lave you, driv - en by the ty - rant's
hand, And he said: "how's poor ould Ire - land, and how does she stand?"
grow, And when the leaves in sum - mer time their ver - dure dare not show;
hand, Must we ask a moth - er's wel - come from a strange but hap - pier land!
She's the most dis - tress - ful coun - try, that ev - er you have seen; They're
Then I will change the col - or I wear in my cau - been, But
Where the cru - el cross of Eng - land's thral - dom nev - er shall be seen, And
Repeat as CHORUS.
hang - ing men and wo - men there for wear - ing of the green.
'till that day, please God, I'll stick to wear - ing of the green.
where, thank God, we'll live and die, still wear - ing of the green.

THE BRITISH GRENADIERS.

16th Century.

Allegro con spirito.

1. Some talk of Al - ex - an - der, And some of Her - cu - les, Of Hec - tor and Ly -
2. When - e'er we are com - mand - ed To storm the pal - i - sades, Our lead - ers march with
3. Then let us fill a bump - er, And drink a health to those Who car - ry caps and

cresc. *p*

- san - der, And such great names as these; But of all the world's brave he - roes There's
fu - sees, And we with hand - gre - nades; We throw them from the gla - cis A -
pouch - es, And wear the loup - ed clothes: May they and their com - man - ders Live

cresc. *p*

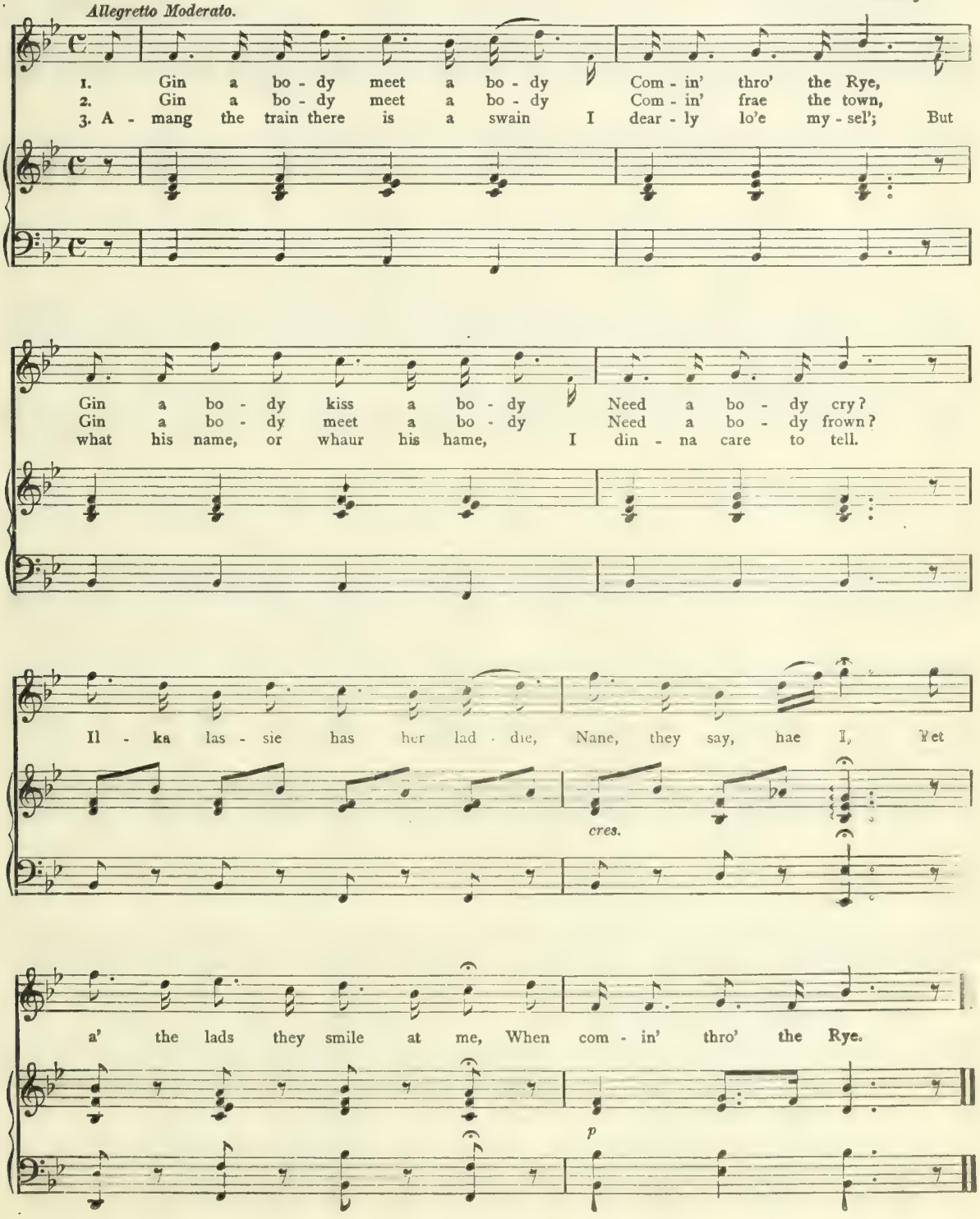
none that can com - pare, With a tow row row row row row, To the Bri - tish Gren - a - dier.
- bout the en - e - mies' ears, Sing tow row row row row row, The Bri - tish Gren - a - diers.
hap - py all their years, With a tow row row row row row, For the Bri - tish Gren - a - diers.

D.S.

COMING THRO' THE RYE.

Author Unknown. Old Scotch Melody.

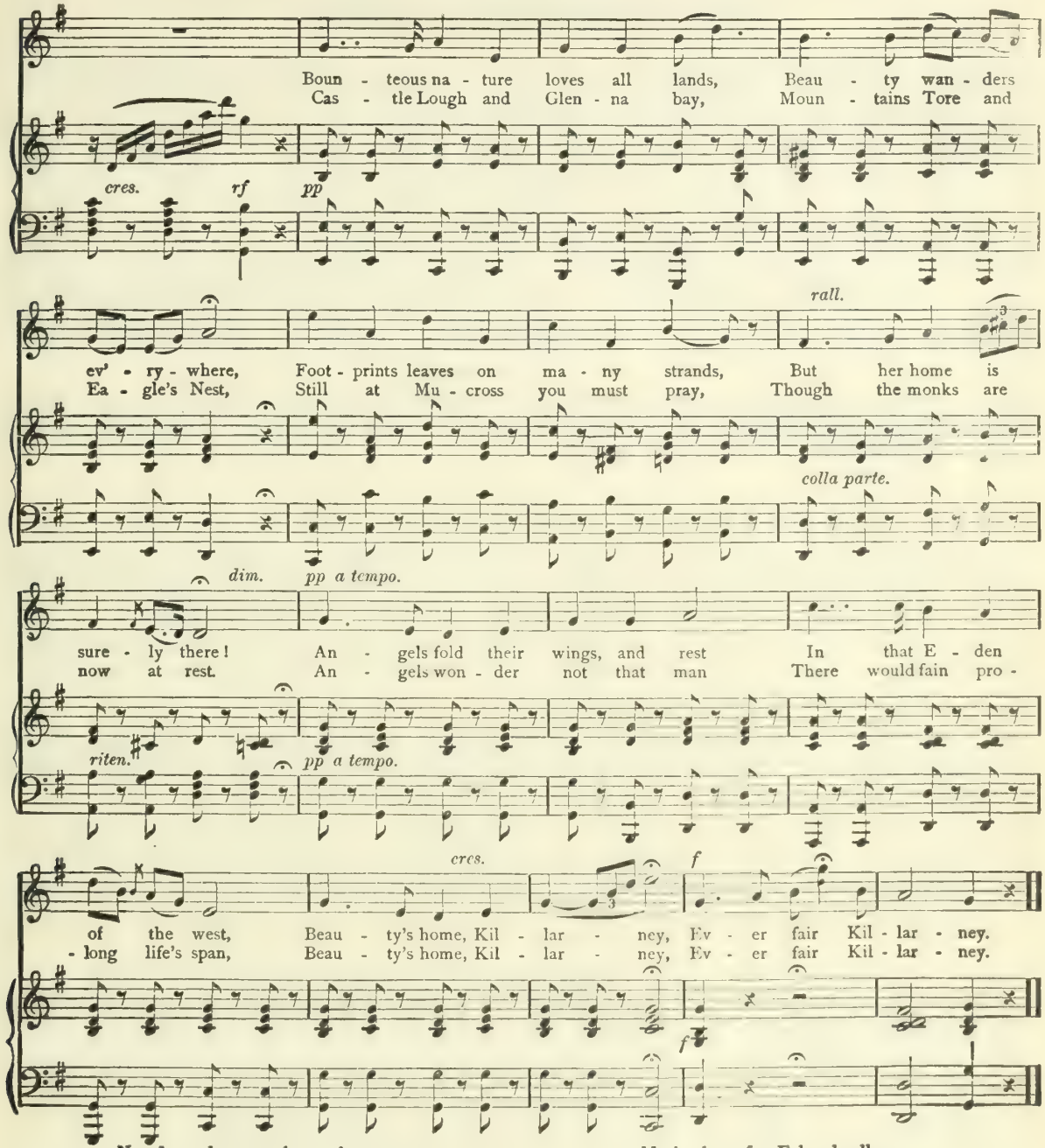
Allegretto Moderato.



KILLARNEY.

Author Unknown. Music by W. M. Balfe.





3. No place else can charm the eye
With such bright and varied tints,
Every rock that you pass by,
Verdure broiders or besprints.
Virgin there the green grass grows,
Every morn Spring's natal day,
Bright-hued berries daff the snows,
Smiling winter's frown away.
Angels often pausing there,
Doubt if Eden were more fair,
Beauty's home, Killarney,
Ever fair Killarney.

4. Music there for Echo dwells,
Makes each sound a harmony,
Many-voiced the chorus swells,
Till it faints in ecstacy.
With the charmful tints below
Seems the heaven above to vie,
All rich colors that we know,
Tinge the cloud wreaths in that sky.
Wings of angels so might shine,
Glancing back soft light divine,
Beauty's home, Killarney,
Ever fair Killarney.

GERMAN CRADLE SONG.

Words by Franz Karl Hiemer. (1810.) Music by C. M. Von Weber.



THE GIRL I LEFT BEHIND ME.

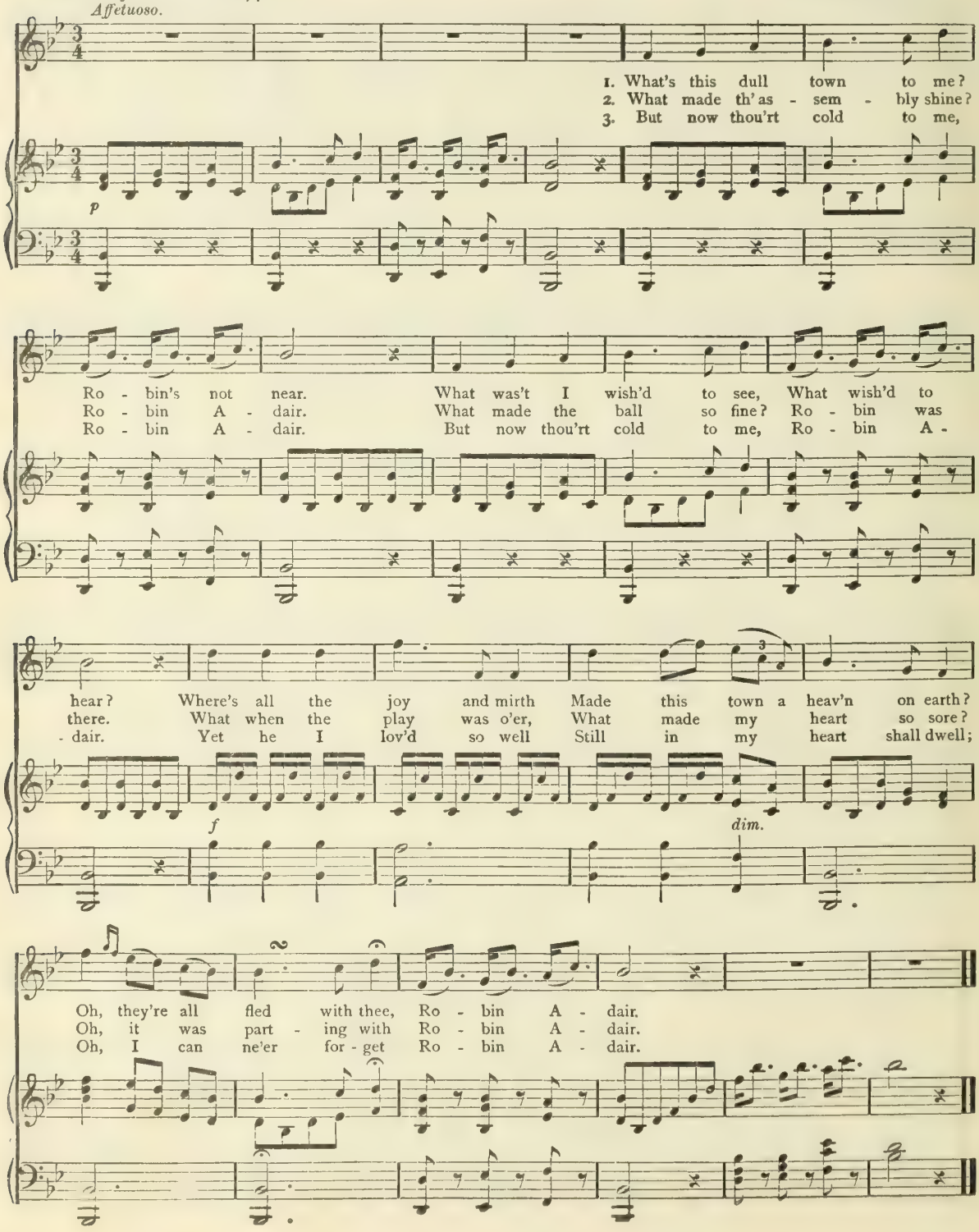
Author Unknown. Old Irish Air.



ROBIN ADAIR.

Words by Caroline Keppel. Old Scotch Air.

Affetuoso.

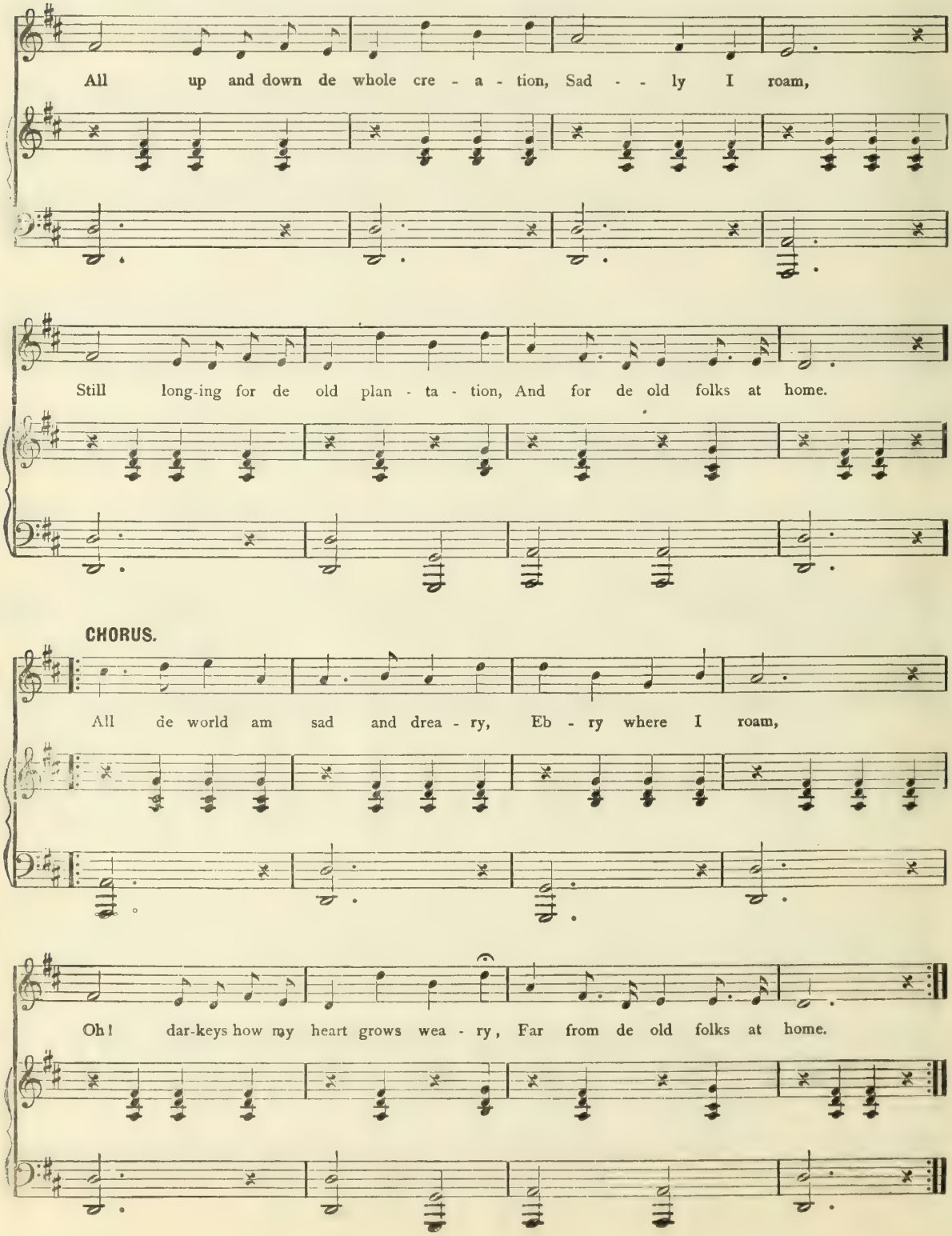


OLD FOLKS AT HOME.*

Written and Composed by S. C. Foster.



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All up and down de whole cre - a - tion, Sad - - ly I roam,
Still long-ing for de old plan - ta - tion, And for de old folks at home.
CHORUS.
All de world am sad and drea - ry, Eb - ry where I roam,
Oh! dar-keys how my heart grows wea - ry, Far from de old folks at home.



2d Verse.

All round de lit - tle farm I wan - der'd When I was young,

Den ma - ny hap - py days I squan - der'd, Ma - ny de songs I sung.

When I was play - ing wid my brud - der, Hap - - py was I,

Cho.

Oh! take me to my kind old mud - der, Dere let me live and die.

3d Verse.

One lit - tle hut a - mong de bush - es, One dat I love,

Still sad - ly to my mem' - ry rush - es, No mat - ter where I rove.

When will I see de bees a hum - ming All round de comb?

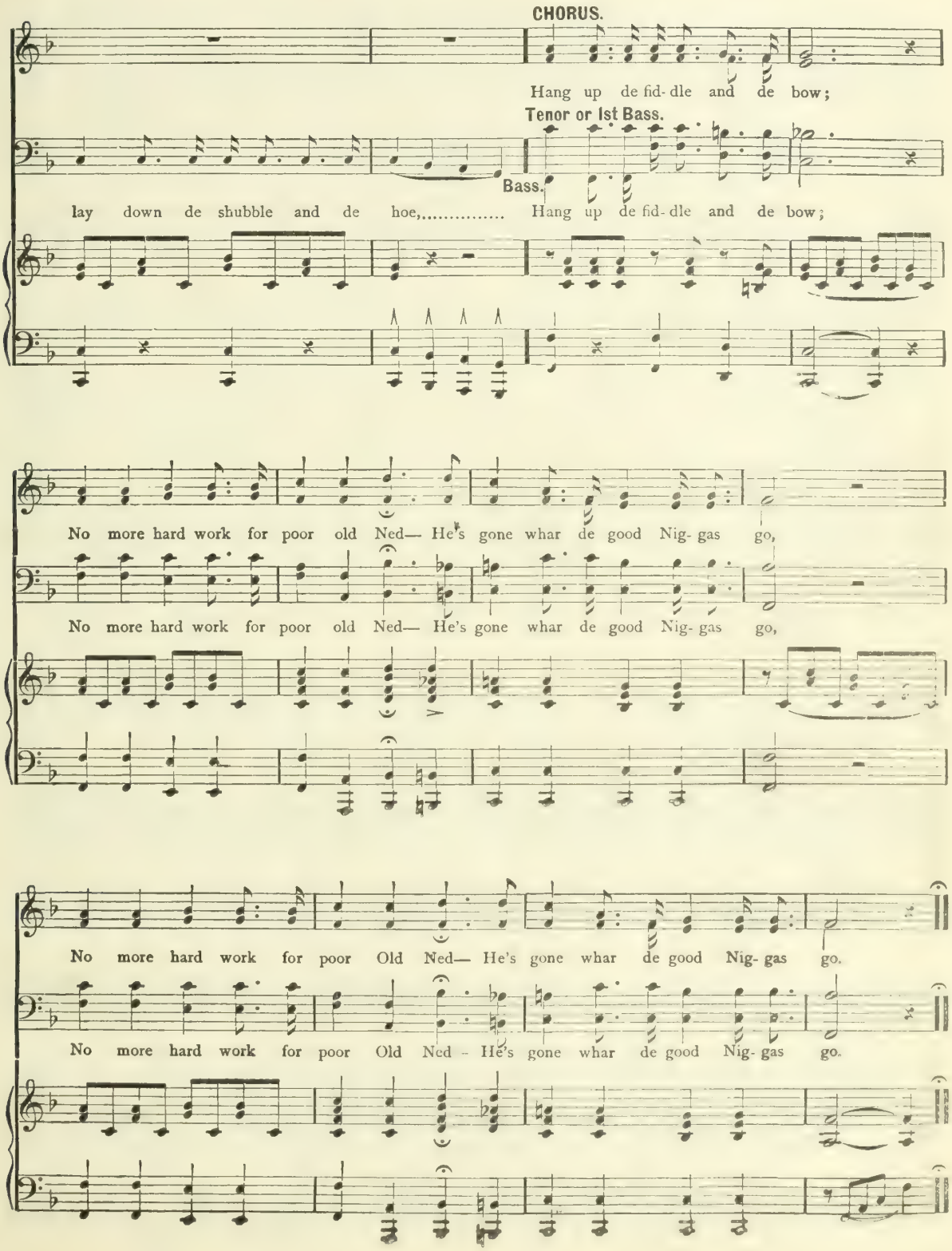
Cho.

When will I hear de ban - jo tum - ming, Down in my good old home?

UNCLE NED.

Written and Composed by S. C. Foster.

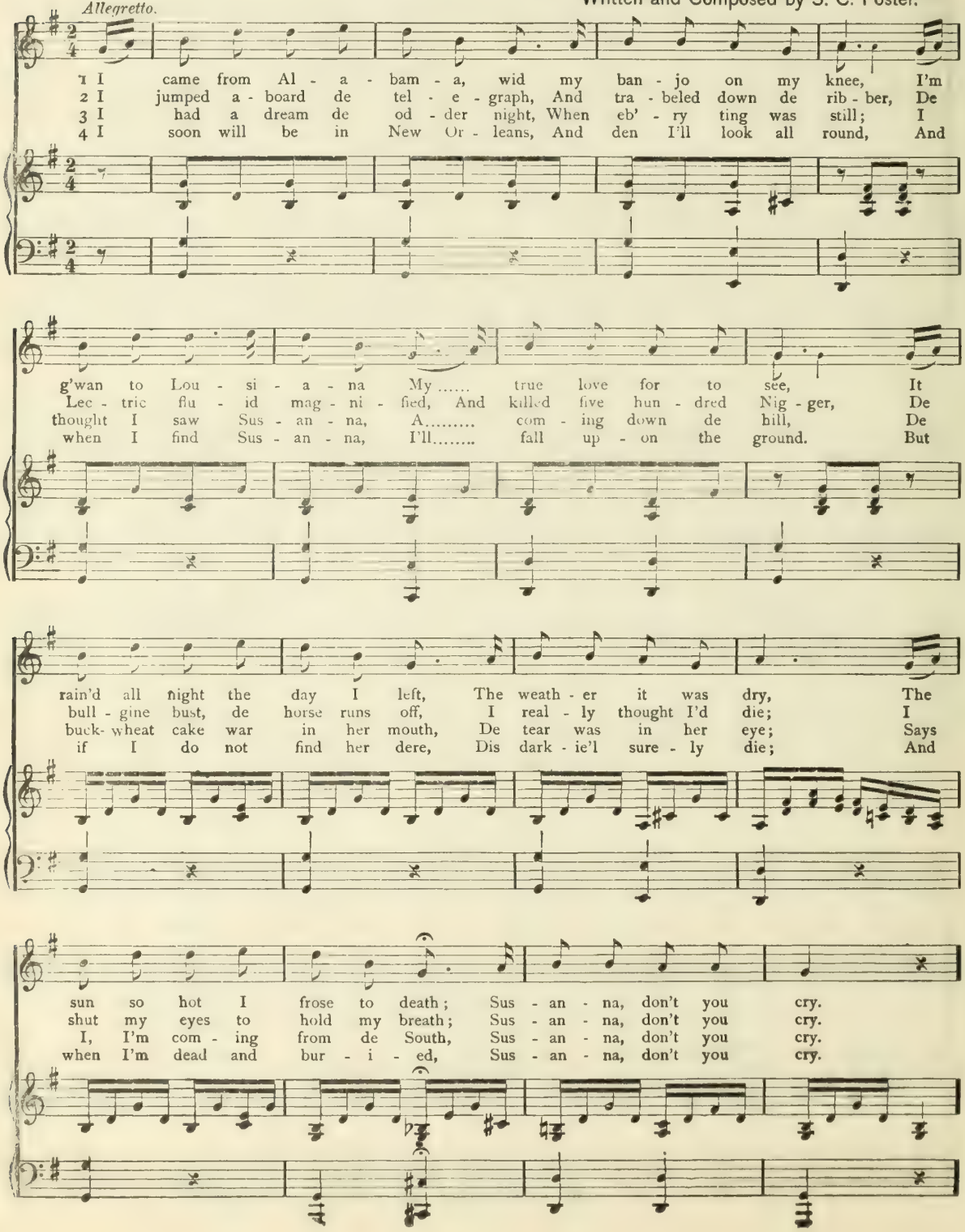


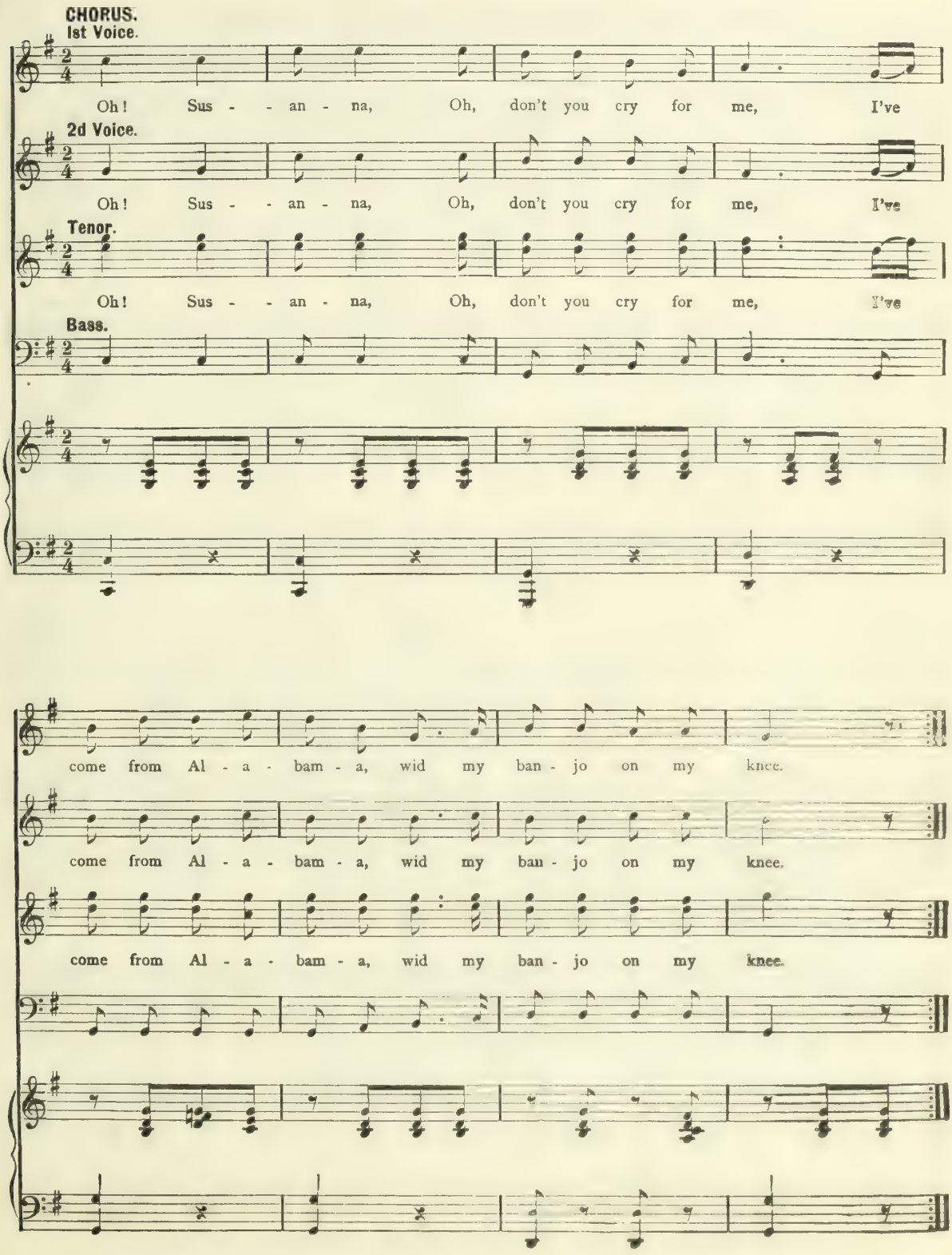

CHORUS.
Hang up de fid-dle and de bow;
Tenor or 1st Bass.
Bass.
lay down de shubble and de hoe,..... Hang up de fid-dle and de bow;
No more hard work for poor old Ned— He's gone whar de good Nig-gas go,
No more hard work for poor old Ned— He's gone whar de good Nig-gas go,
No more hard work for poor Old Ned— He's gone whar de good Nig-gas go.
No more hard work for poor Old Ned - He's gone whar de good Nig-gas go.

OH! SUSANNA.

Written and Composed by S. C. Foster.

Allegretto.



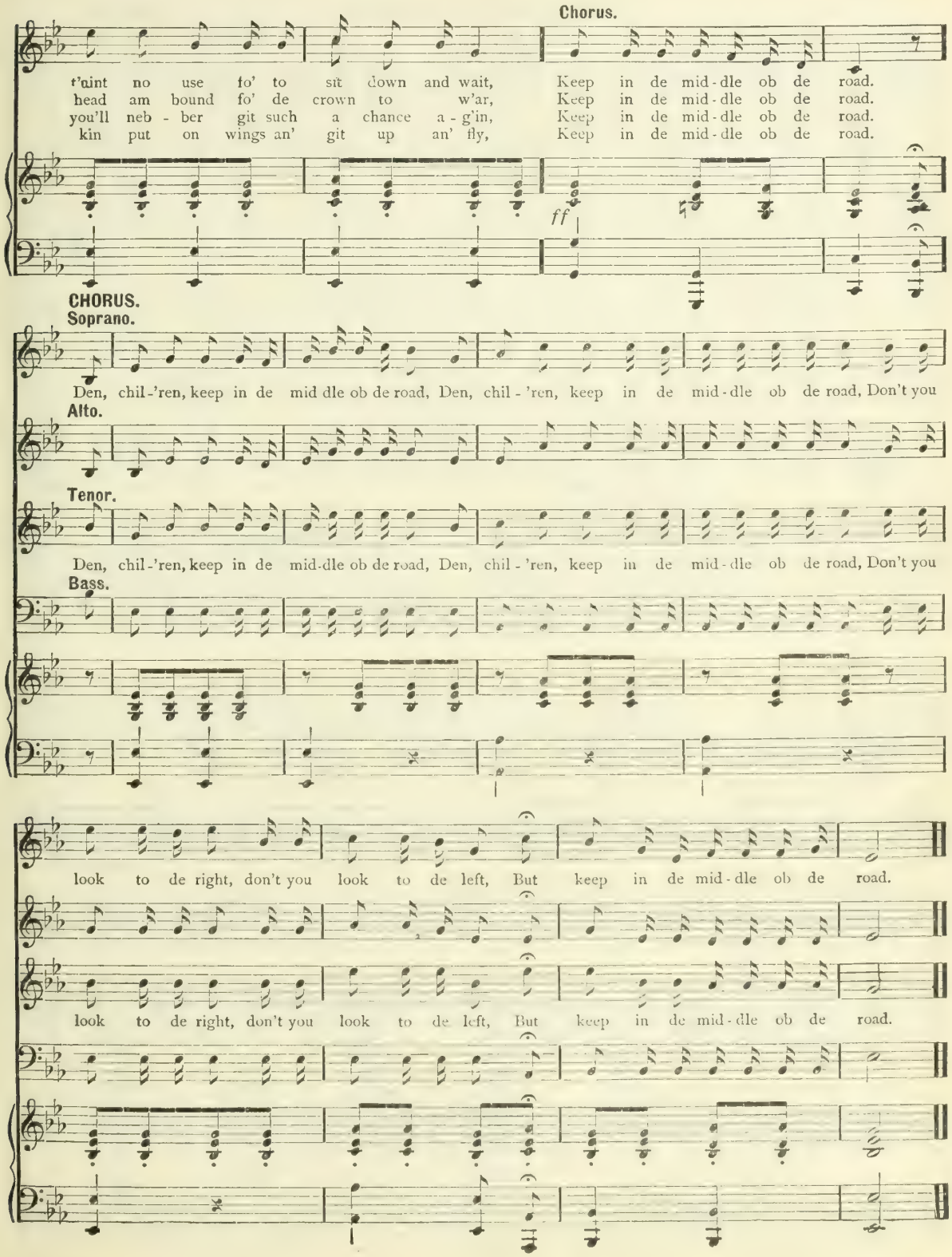

CHORUS.
1st Voice.
Oh! Sus - - an - na, Oh, don't you cry for me, I've
2d Voice.
Oh! Sus - - an - na, Oh, don't you cry for me, I've
Tenor.
Oh! Sus - - an - na, Oh, don't you cry for me, I've
Bass.
come from Al - a - bam - a, wid my ban - jo on my knee.
come from Al - a - bam - a, wid my ban - jo on my knee.
come from Al - a - bam - a, wid my ban - jo on my knee.

KEEP IN DE MIDDLE OB DE ROAD.*

Words and Music by Will S. Hays.

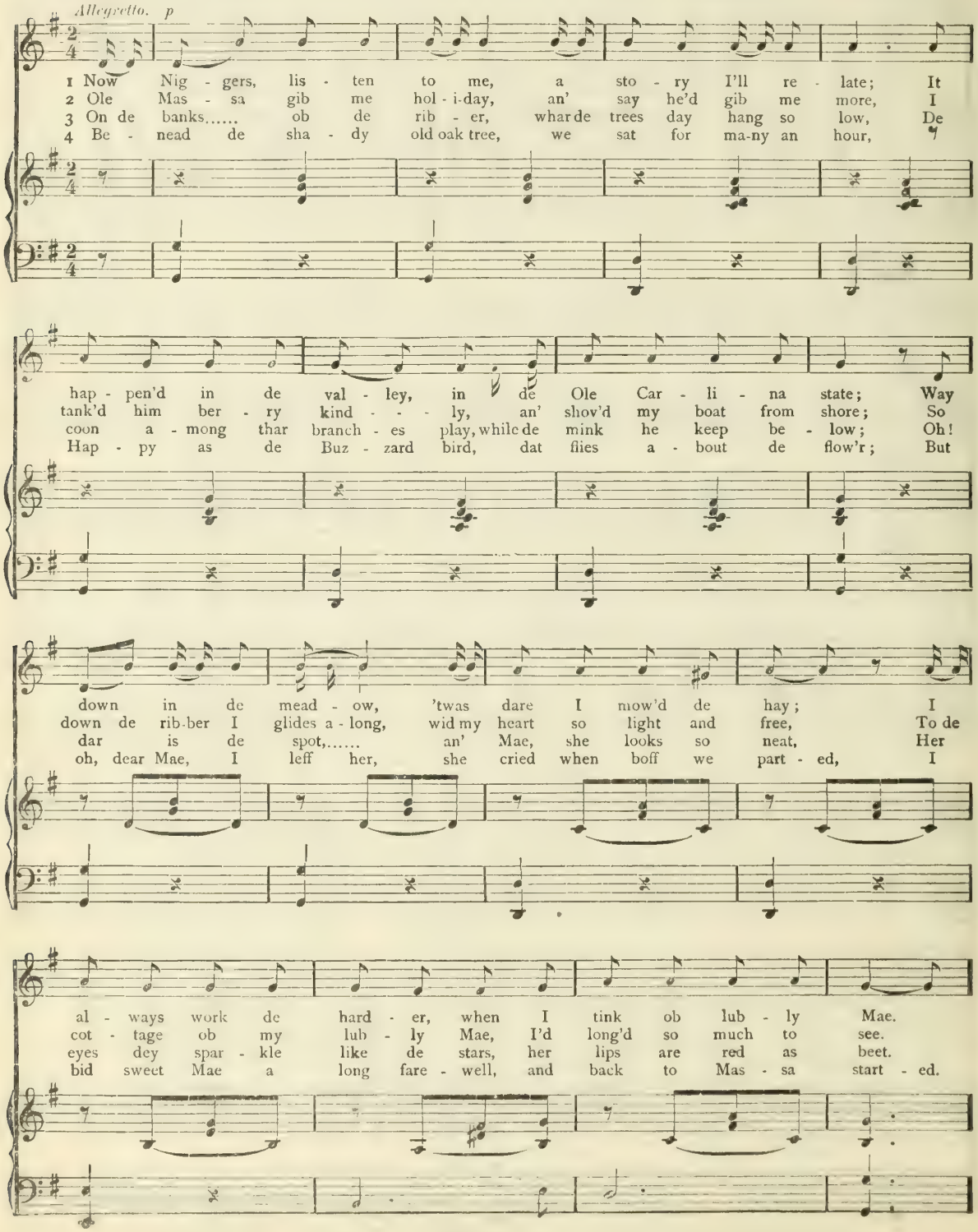


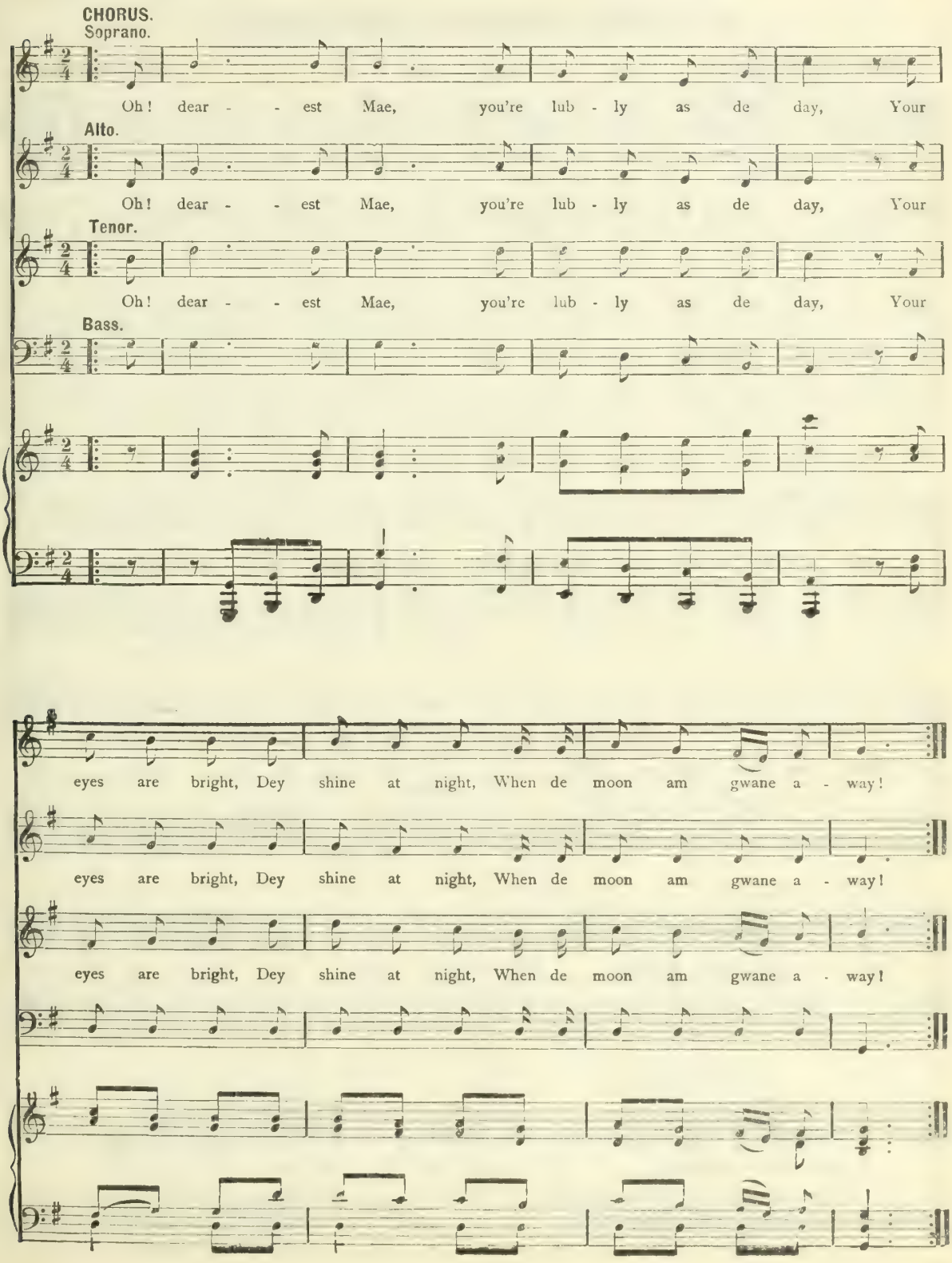
* Published by Geo. D. Newhall & Co., in sheet form, and used for this work by special permission.


Chorus.
t'aint no use fo' to sit down and wait, Keep in de mid-dle ob de road.
head am bound fo' de crown to w'ar, Keep in de mid-dle ob de road.
you'll neb-ber git such a chance a-g'in, Keep in de mid-dle ob de road.
kin put on wings an' git up an' fly, Keep in de mid-dle ob de road.
ff
CHORUS.
Soprano.
Den, chil-'ren, keep in de mid dle ob de road, Den, chil-'ren, keep in de mid-dle ob de road, Don't you
Alto.
Tenor.
Den, chil-'ren, keep in de mid-dle ob de road, Den, chil-'ren, keep in de mid-dle ob de road, Don't you
Bass.
look to de right, don't you look to de left, But keep in de mid-dle ob de road.
look to de right, don't you look to de left, But keep in de mid-dle ob de road.

DEAREST MAE.

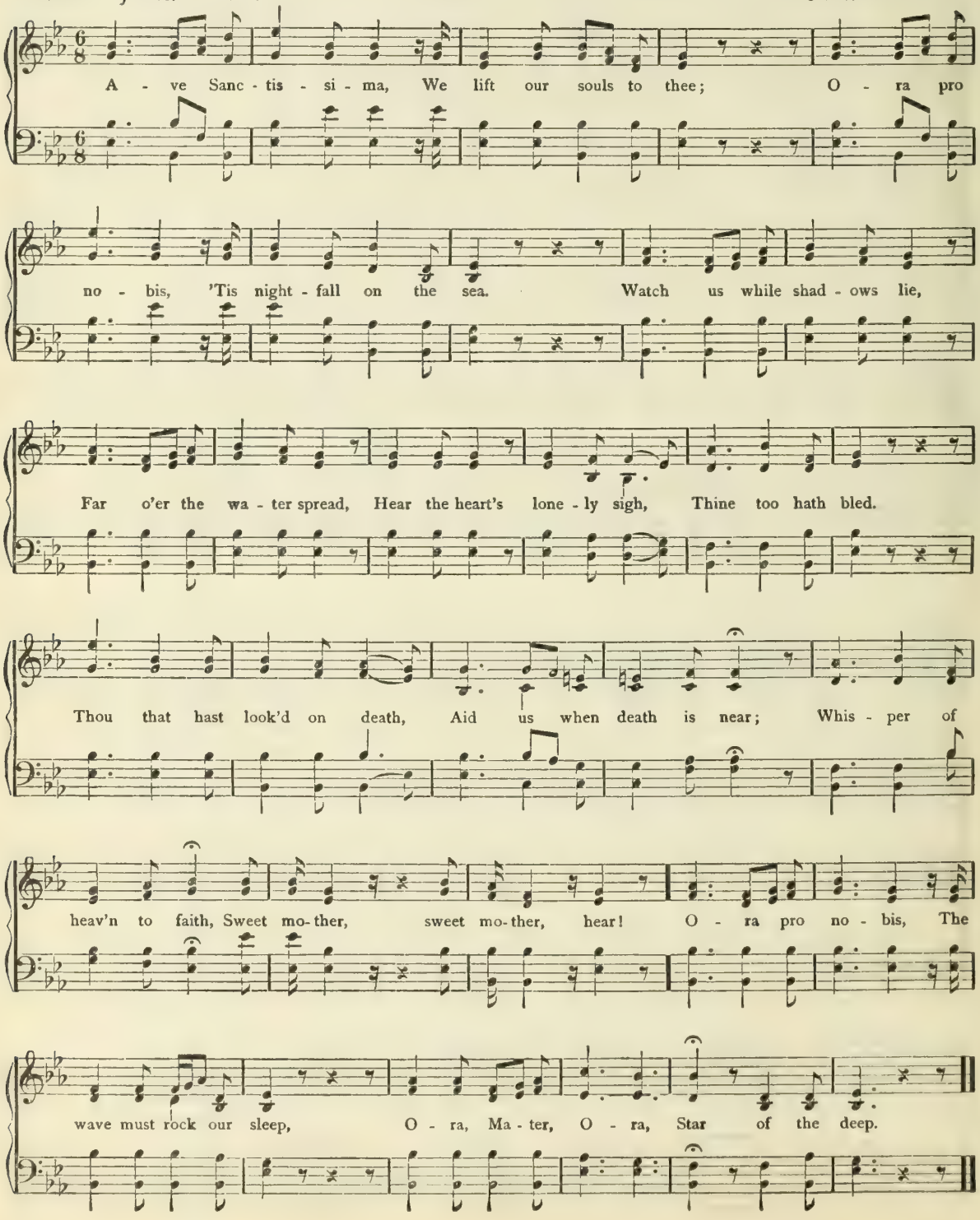
Words by Francis Lynch. Music by L. V. H. Crosby.




CHORUS.
Soprano.
Oh! dear - - est Mae, you're lub - ly as de day, Your
Alto.
Oh! dear - - est Mae, you're lub - ly as de day, Your
Tenor.
Oh! dear - - est Mae, you're lub - ly as de day, Your
Bass.
eyes are bright, Dey shine at night, When de moon am gwane a - way!
eyes are bright, Dey shine at night, When de moon am gwane a - way!
eyes are bright, Dey shine at night, When de moon am gwane a - way!

EVENING SONG TO THE VIRGIN.

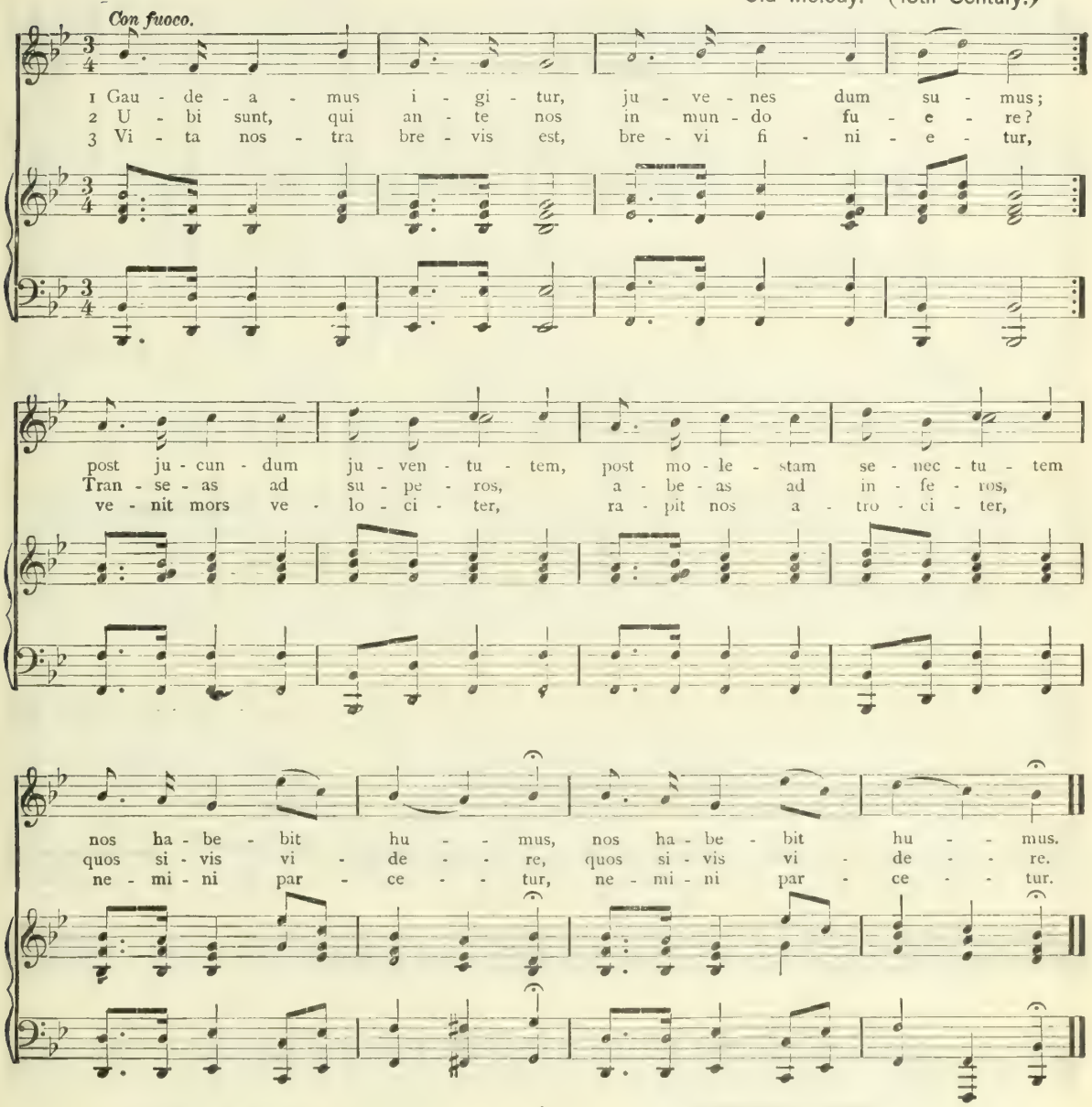
Words by Mrs. Hemans. Old Italian Air.



UNIVERSITY SONG.

(GAUDEAMUS.)

Old Melody. (16th Century.)



4. Vivat academia,
Vivant professores,
Vivat membrum quodlibet,
Vivant membra quælibet,
Semper sint in flore.

5. Vivant omnes virgines
Faciles, formosæ!
Vivant et mulieres,
Teneræ, amabiles,
Bonæ laboriosæ.

6. Vivat et respublica
Et qui illam regit,
Vivat nostra civitas,
Mæcenatum caritas,
Quæ nos hic protegit.

7. Pereat tristitia,
Pereant osores,
Pereat diabolus,
Quivis antiburschius,
Atque irrisores.

WITHIN A MILE OF EDINBURGH TOWN.

Words by T. D'Urfey. Music by James Hook.

Moderato.

1 'Twas with - in a mile of E - din - bu - rgh town, In the ro - sy time of the year, Sweet
2 Jockie was a wag that nev - er wad wed, Tho' lang he had fol - lowed the lass; Con -
3 But when he vow'd he wad make her his bride, Tho' his flocks and herds were not few, She

p

flow - ers bloom'd and the grass was down, And each shepherd woo'd his dear.
- tent-ed she earned and ate her brown bread, And mer-ri - ly turned up the grass.
gi'ed him her hand and a kiss be - side, And vow'd she'd for ev - er be true.

Bon - nie Jock-ie, blythe and gay, Kiss'd young Jen - ny mak - ing hay; The las - sie blush'd, and frowning cried: "Na,
Bon - nie Jock-ie, blythe and free, Won her heart right mer - ri - ly; Yet still she blush'd, and frowning cried: "Na,
Bon - nie Jock-ie, blythe and free, Won her heart right mer - ri - ly; At kirk she no more frowning cried: "Na,

na, it win-na do; I can-na, can-na, win-na, win-na, maun-na buck-le to."
na, it win-na do; I can-na, can-na, win-na, win-na, maun-na buck-le to."
na, it win-na do; I can-na, can-na, win-na, win-na, maun-na buck-le to."

f

CHARLIE IS MY DARLING.

Words by the Baroness Nairne. Composer Unknown.



2.

As he cam' marchin' up the street,
The pipes play'd loud and clear;
And a' the folk cam' rinnin' out
To meet the Chevalier.
Oh! Charlie, *etc.*

3.

Wi' Hieland bonnets on their heads,
And claymores bright and clear,
They cam' to fight for Scotland's right,
And the young Chevalier.
Oh! Charlie, *etc.*

4.

They've left their bonnie Hieland hills,
Their wives and bairnies dear,
To draw the sword for Scotland's Lord,
The young Chevalier.
Oh! Charlie, *etc.*

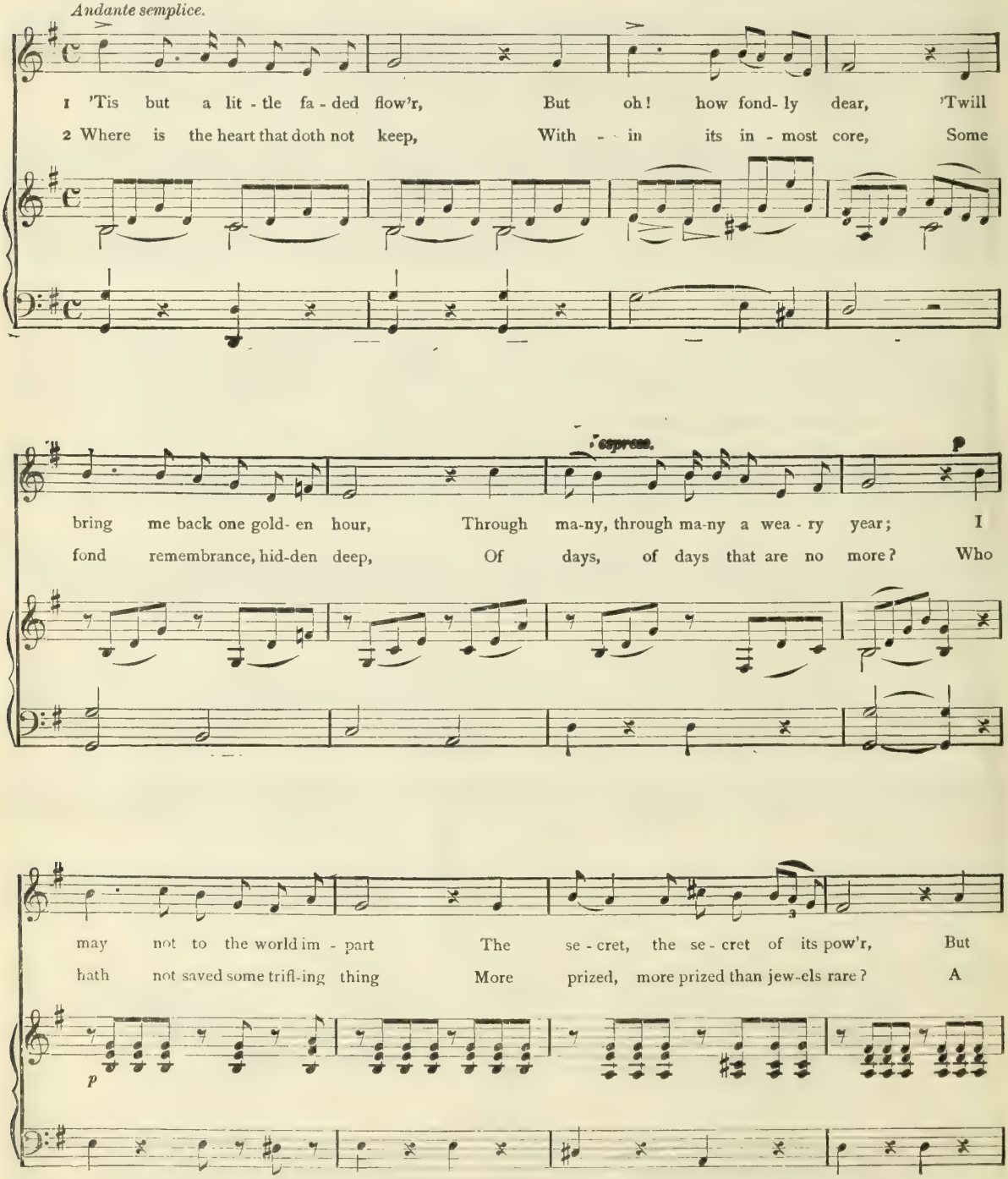
5.

Oh! there were mony beating hearts,
And mony a hope and fear;
And mony were the pray'rs put up
For the young Chevalier.
Oh! Charlie, *etc.*

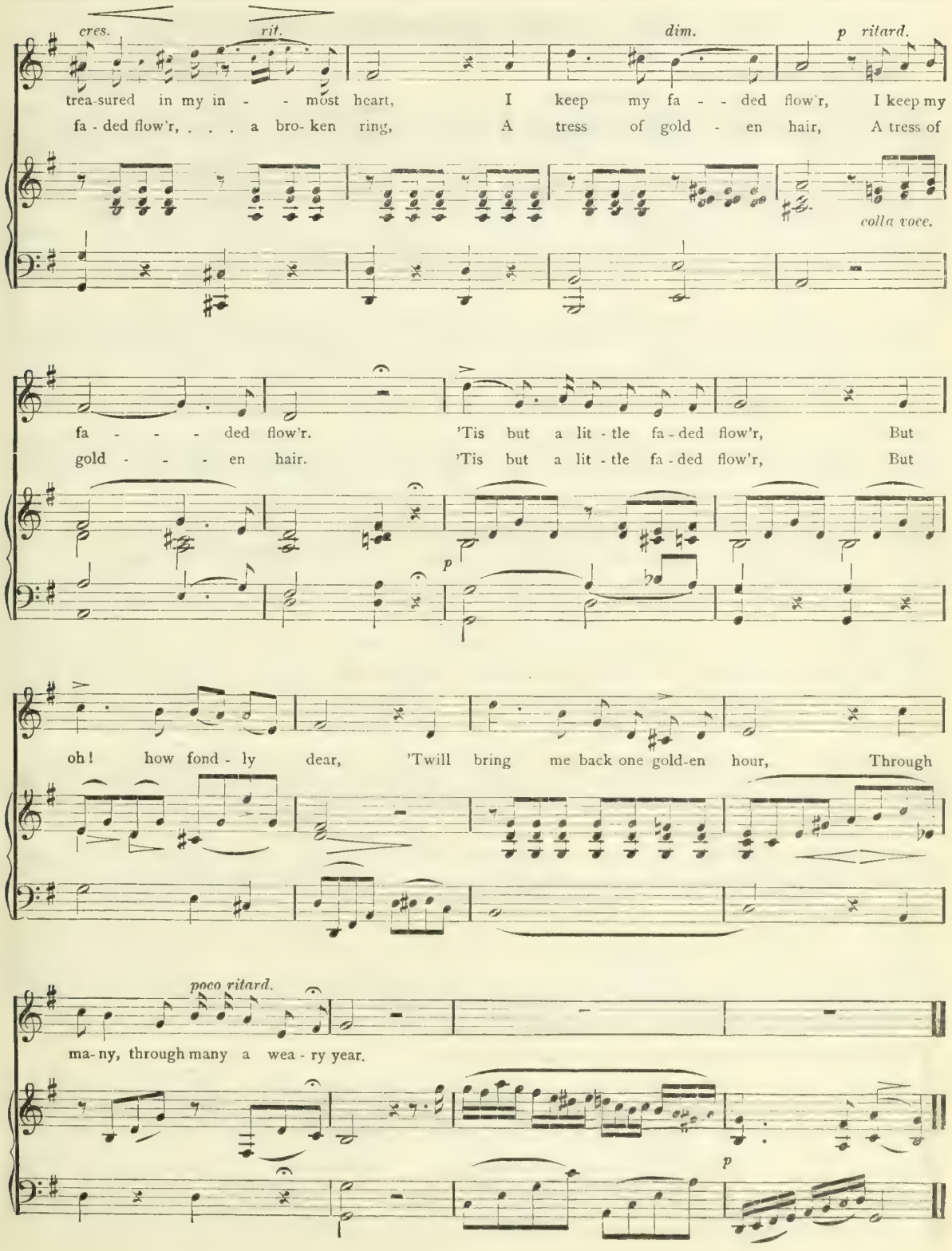
'TIS BUT A LITTLE FADED FLOWER.

Words by Mrs. E. C. Howarth, Music by J. R. Thomas.

Andante semplice.

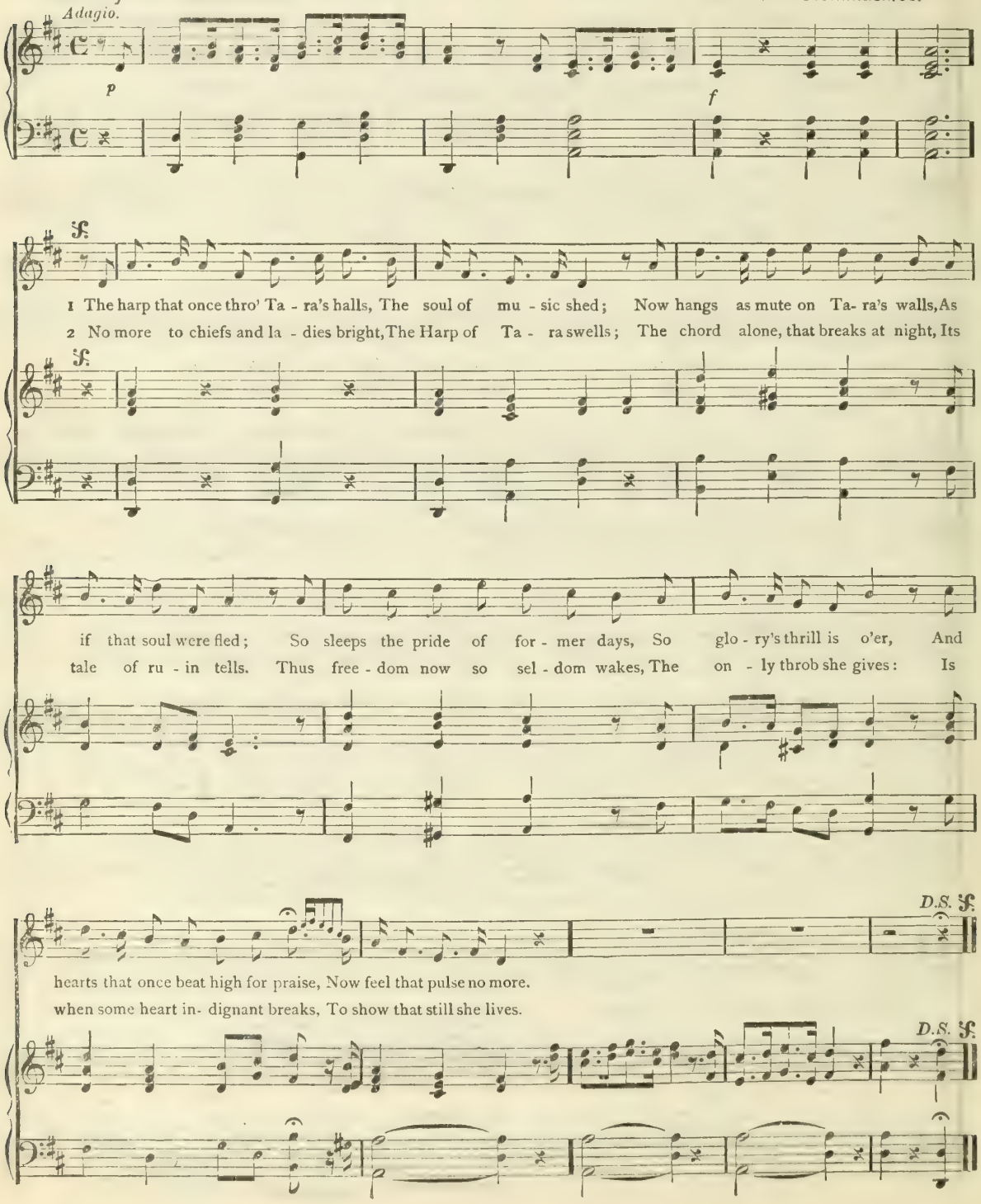


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cres.
rit.
dim.
p ritard.
trea-sured in my in - - most heart, I keep my fa - - ded flow'r, I keep my
fa - ded flow'r, . . . a bro- ken ring, A tress of gold - en hair, A tress of
colla voce.
fa - - - - ded flow'r. 'Tis but a lit - tle fa - ded flow'r, But
gold - - - - en hair. 'Tis but a lit - tle fa - ded flow'r, But
p
oh! how fond - ly dear, 'Twill bring me back one gold-en hour, Through
poco ritard.
ma- ny, through many a wea - ry year.
p

THE HARP THAT ONCE THROUGH TARA'S HALLS.

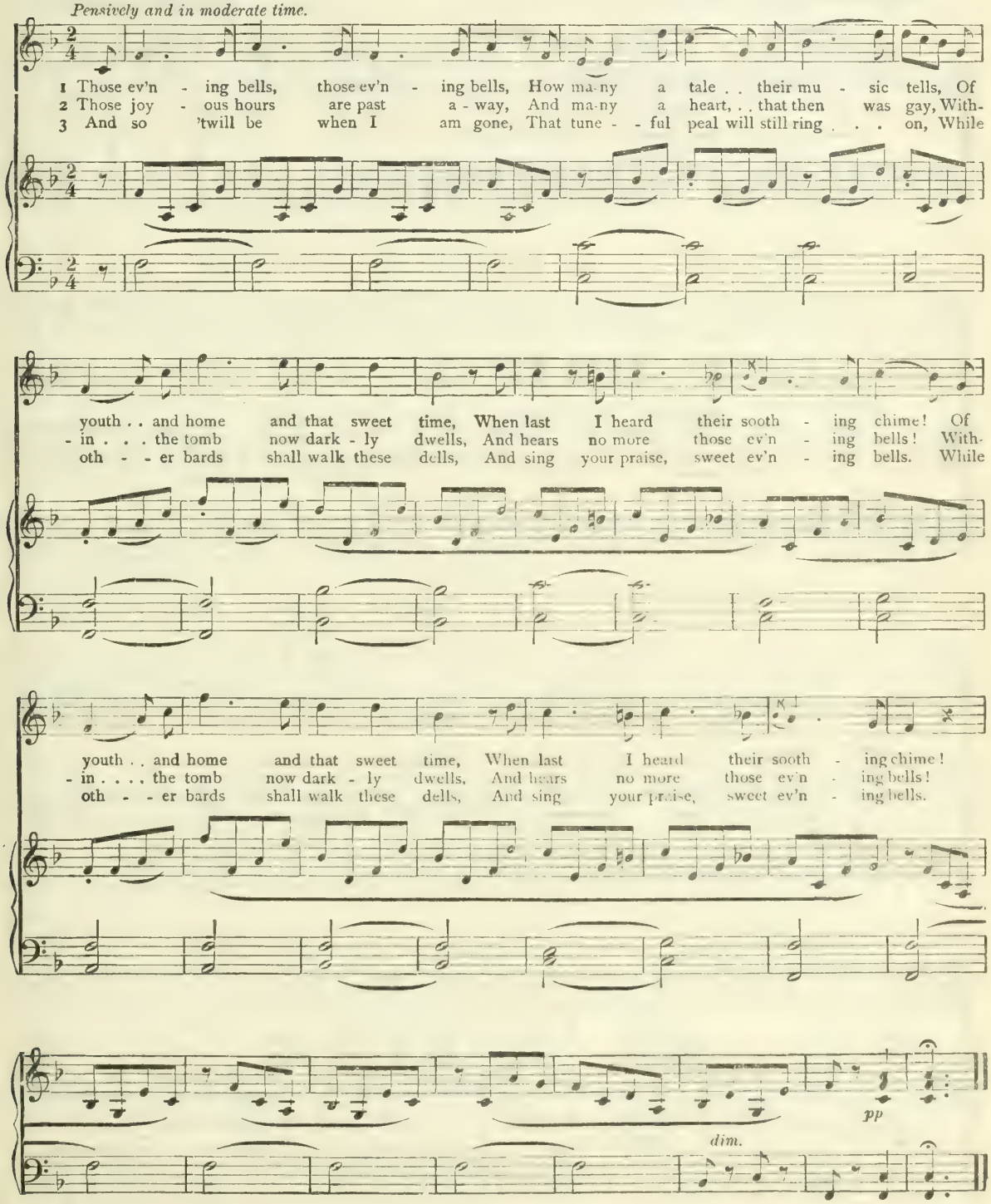
Words by Thomas Moore. Air.—"Grammachree."



THOSE EVENING BELLS.

Words by Thomas Moore. Music attributed to Beethoven

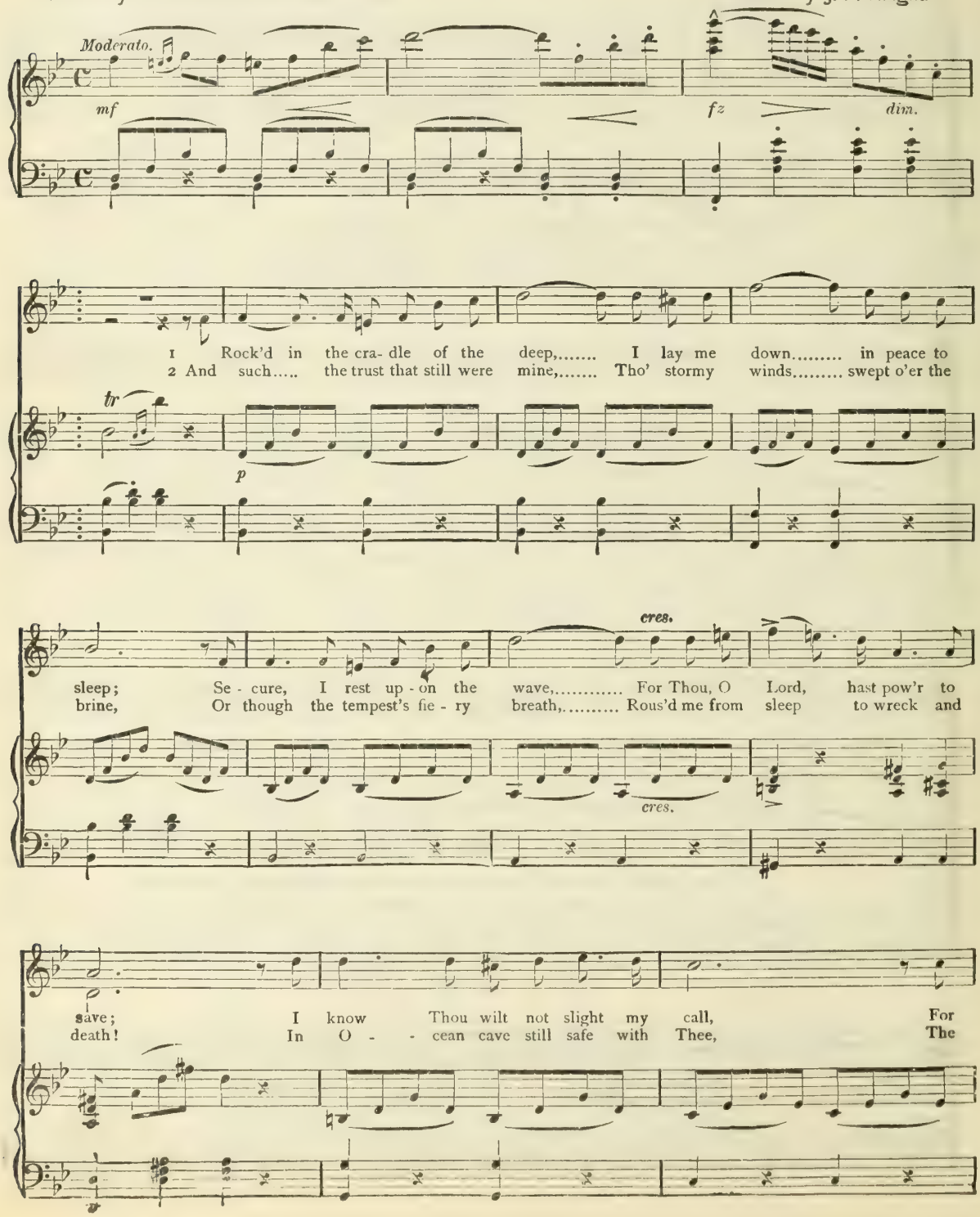
Pensively and in moderate time.

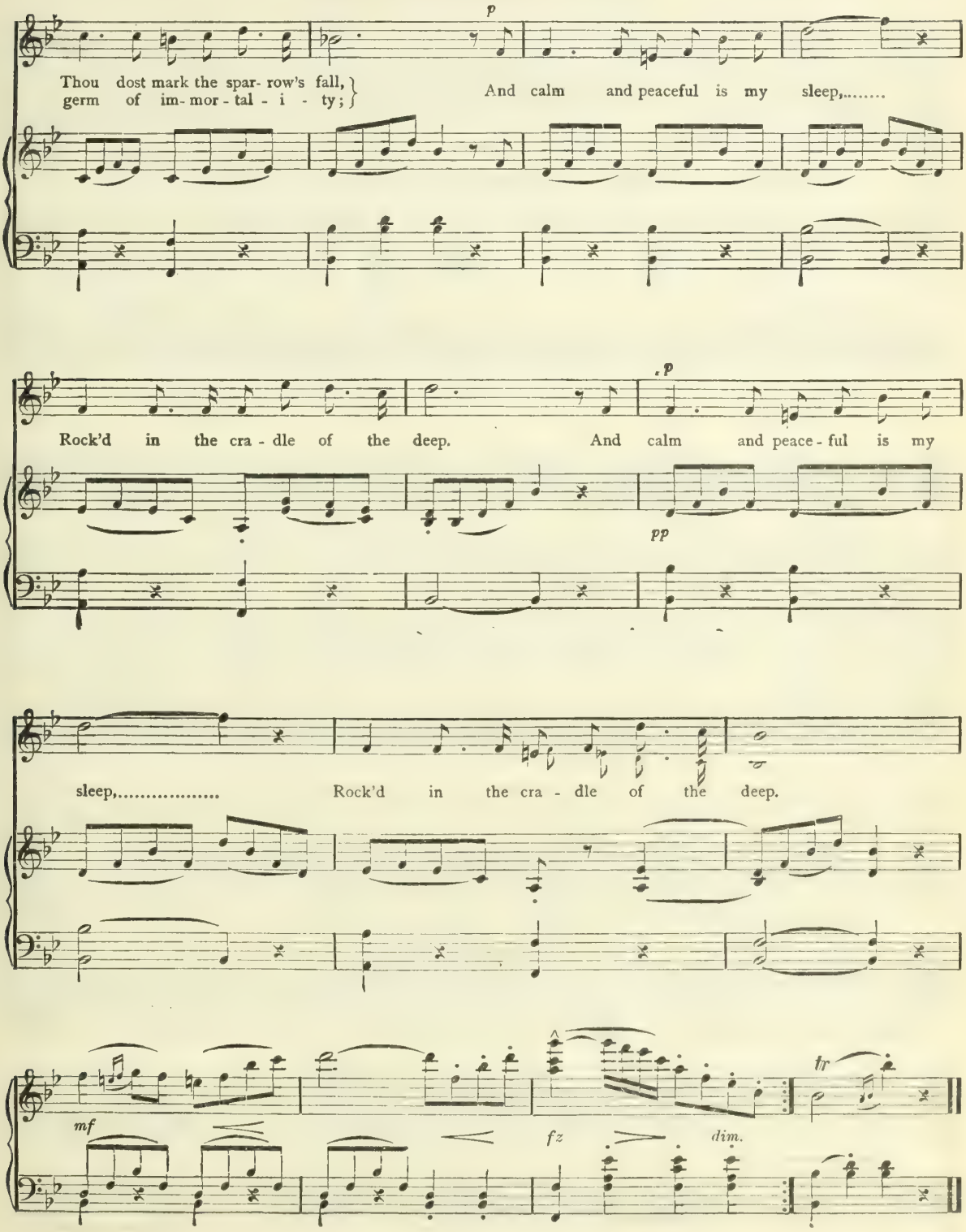


ROCKED IN THE CRADLE OF THE DEEP.

Words by Mrs. Emma Willard

Music by J. P. Knight.

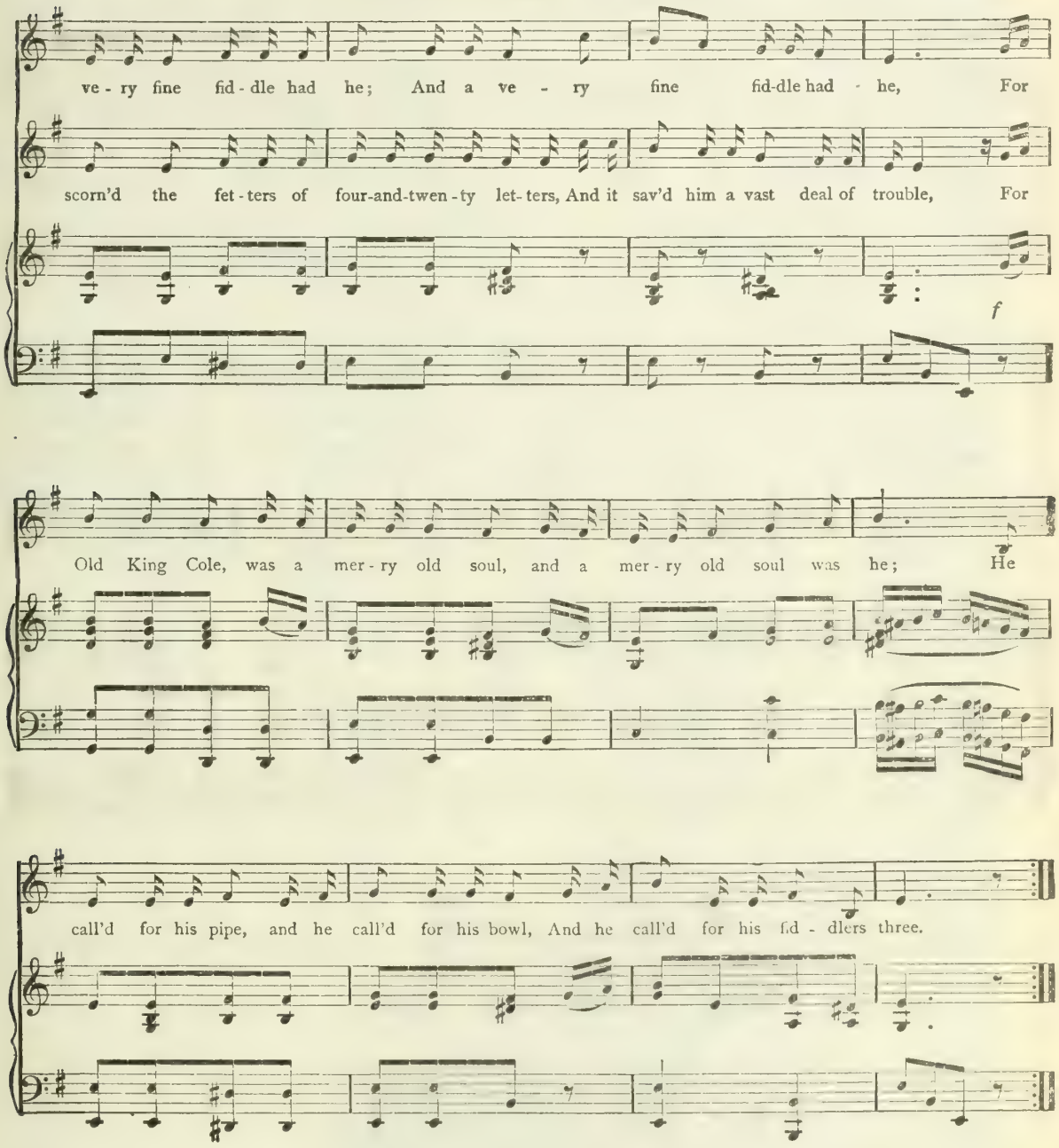



p
Thou dost mark the spar- row's fall,
germ of im- mor - tal - i - ty;
And calm and peaceful is my sleep,.....
Rock'd in the cra - dle of the deep.
p
And calm and peace - ful is my
pp
sleep,.....
Rock'd in the cra - dle of the deep.
mf
fz
dim.
tr

OLD KING COLE.

Author Unknown. Old Air.





3.

On Old King Cole's left cheek was a mole,
So he called for his secretary;
And he bade him look in a fortune-telling book,
And read him his destiny.
And the secretary said, when his fate he had read,
And cast his nativity,
A mole on the face boded something would take place,
But not what that something might be.
For Old King Cole, *etc.*

ROCK OF AGES.

Words by Rev. Augustus Montague Toplady. Music by R. Redhead.

1 Rock of a - ges, cleft for me, Let me hide my - self in Thee;
2 Noth - ing in my hand I bring, Sim - ply to Thy Cross I cling;
3 While I draw this fleet - ing breath, When mine eye - lids close in death,

Let the Wa - ter and the Blood, From Thy wound - ed Side which flow'd,
Could my tears for ev - er flow, Could my zeal no lan - guor know,
When I rise to worlds un - known, See Thee on Thy judg - ment throne.

Be of sin the dou - ble cure, Save from wrath and make me pure.
All for sin could not a - tone, Thou must save and Thou a - lone.
Rock of a - ges, cleft for me, Let me hide my - self in Thee. A - men.



MUSIC TYPOGRAPHY BY J. M. ARMSTRONG & CO., PHILADELPHIA



"AN AMUSING STORY."—FROM THE PAINTING BY FRITZ WERNER.



THE HISTORY OF ITS RISE AND PROGRESS.

WRITING is the art of expressing ideas by visible signs or characters inscribed on some material. It is either ideographic or phonetic. Ideographic writing may be either pictorial, representing objects by imitating their forms, or symbolic, by imitating their nature or proportions. Phonetic writing may be syllabic or alphabetic; in the former each character represents a syllable; in the latter, a single letter. Of the origin of this art nothing is positively known. The Egyptians ascribed it to Thoth; the Greeks, to Mercury or Cadmus; and the Scandinavians, to Odin.

The first step towards writing was probably the rude pictorial representation of objects, without any indication of the accessories of time or place; the next, the application of a symbolic signification to some of the figures, so that the picture of two legs, for example, represented not only two legs, but also the act of walking. Pictures, abbreviated for convenience, gradually became conventional signs, and in time these characters were made to stand for the sound of spoken language.

The various systems of writing of the ancient world had probably at least three different sources—the Egyptian, the Assyrian and the Chinese systems, all of which were originally hieroglyphic. The Egyptians practiced four distinct styles of writing—the hieroglyphic, hieratic, demotic or enchorial, and Coptic. Hieroglyphic writing, which was in use much earlier than 3,000 B.C., was probably at first ideographic; its symbols became gradually used to represent abstract ideas, and in time acquired a phonetic value. The phonetic characters are both syllabic and alphabetic. In the latter, pictoral figures are used to express the initial letters of the words which they represent; for example, the figure of an eagle, *ckhom*, stands for *a*, of an owl, *mulag*, for *m*, etc.

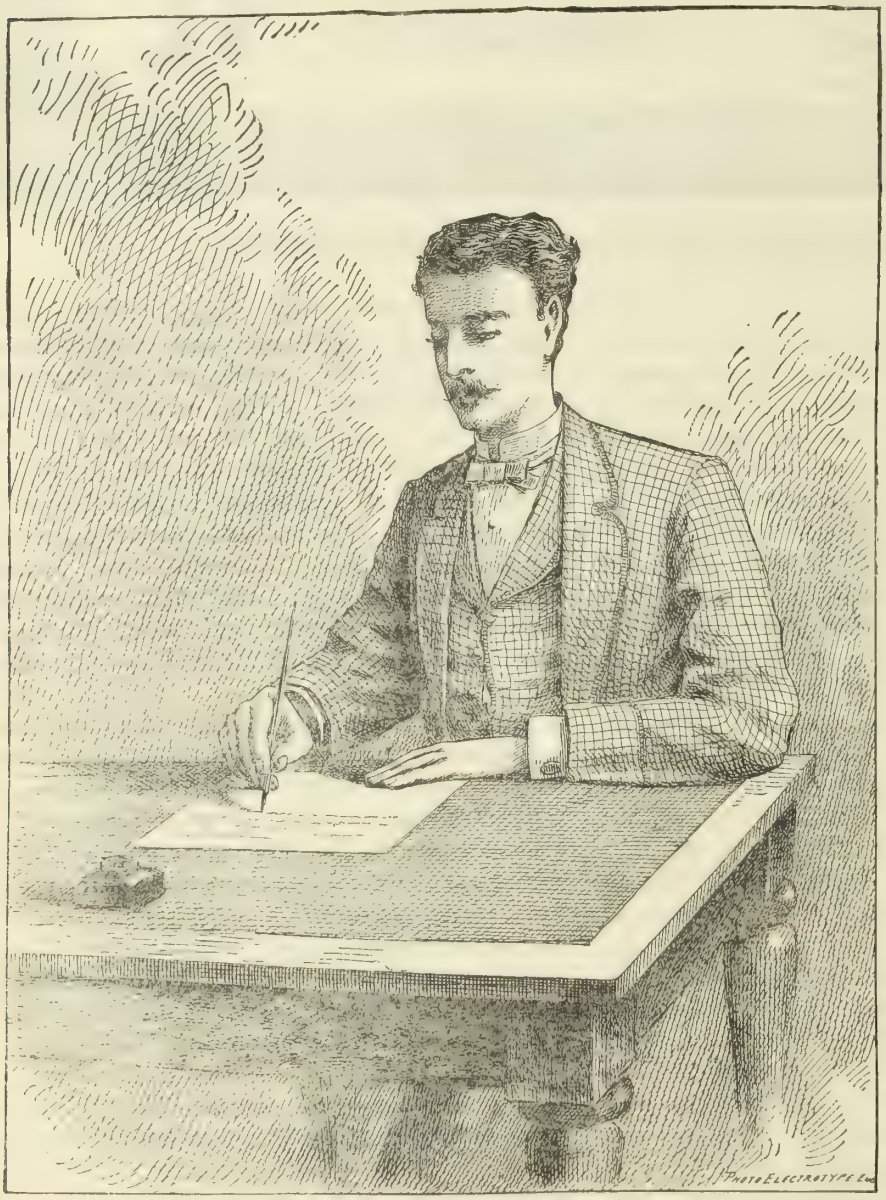
The hieratic writing, which probably came into use 2,000 B.C., was a simplified form of the hieroglyphic style, in which the pictorial symbols developed through a stage of linear hieroglyph into a kind of curious hand. The demotic or enchorial writing was of a still simpler form of the hieroglyphic, and a nearer approach to the alphabetic system. It was in use from about the 7th century B.C. till the 2d century A.D., when it was gradually superseded by the Coptic, which grew out of the hieratic and demotic under Greek influences.

The Ethiopians also used hieroglyphs similar to those of the Egyptians, and their current written language resembled the Egyptian demotic, but its alphabet had fewer symbols. At a later period a third graphic system, somewhat analogous to the Coptic, came into use, which may be called Ethiopic Greek With what people the Assyrian Cuneiform or Sphenographic styles of writing originated is not known, but it was originally without doubt a hieroglyphic system, and became gradually modified by the different

nations which occupied the Assyrian empire, until it assumed the form of the present known inscriptions.

There are three classes of Cuneiform characters—the Assyrian or Babylonian, the Scythian or Median, and the Persian. The first is the most complicated, containing from 600 to 700 symbols; the second is less complicated, but contains about 100 symbols, or three times as many as the third, which is almost purely alphabetic. Of these three original systems, the Egyptian is by far the most important, for from its hieratic symbols was probably derived the Phœnician alphabet, the parent of almost all the principal graphic systems of the world.

The Roman letters were used in Italy until the latter part of the 6th century, when the Lombardic style was introduced. This is also sometimes called Roman, because used by the Popes in their bulls; it continued in use until the 13th century.



The Visigothic style, carried into Spain by the Visigoths, was legally abolished in 1091, and Latin letters were adopted for all public instruments. In France the Merovingian style prevailed from the close of the 6th century to the end of the 8th. Charlemagne introduced the Caroline, which, having degenerated before the close of the 10th century, was restored by Hugh Capet, and was subsequently called the Capetian. It was in use in England, France, and Germany till the middle of the 12th century, when the modern Gothic spread all over Europe. The present German alphabet is a modification of this.

There are no traces of writing in Britain before the Roman conquest, when Latin letters were introduced. What is called the Roman-Saxon, resembling the Roman, prevailed until the middle of the 8th century; the set Saxon succeeded it, lasting until the middle of the 9th; this was followed by the running-hand Saxon of the time of Alfred; the mixed

Saxon, combining the Roman, Lombardic, and Saxon letters; and the elegant Saxon, which was introduced in the 10th century, and did not become obsolete until the middle of the 12th. The Norman style, quaint, illegible, affected, and composed of letters nearly Lombardic, came in with William the Conqueror.

The modern Gothic dates in England from the 12th century; the old English, from the middle of the 14th. The English court had a barbarous corruption of the Norman, which was contrived by the lawyers of the 16th century, and lasted till the reign of George II., when it was abolished by law.

The utmost diversity exists among different nations in the manner or direction of writing; but in general the Semitic races wrote from right to left, and the Aryan from left to right.

In form ancient manuscripts were either rolls, *volumnia*, or flat pages like our printed books, *codices*. The Egyptian papyri are usually in rolls of an indefinite length, according to the subject matter, but some of the smaller ones are flat.

The transcripts of manuscripts were committed by the Greeks and Romans principally to slaves, who were esteemed of great value when they excelled in the art. There were also at Rome professional copyists, some of whom were women. About the 5th century, associations of scribes, who worked under stringent rules, were formed. In the middle ages copying was almost exclusively in the hands of ecclesiastics, who were called clerks, *clerici*. In the Imperial library at Vienna is a Roman calendar executed in the first half of the 4th century. In the Vatican there is a fragment of a Virgil of the 4th century. The most ancient manuscripts extant are the papyrus rolls from the tombs of Egypt, where the dryness of the climate and of the sand beneath which they were buried preserved them in an almost perfect condition for thousands of years.



HOW TO LEARN TO WRITE.

BEGIN with good paper, good pens, good ink. In a good copy the letters should be of elegant form, and constructed on natural principles. Every letter should be as perfect as it is possible for human skill to execute, that wherever it occurs it may present an unvarying model to the pupil. The turns and slopes should be alike, the loops of the same length and width, the proper distances between the letters carefully observed, and shade duly distributed.

Curlicues, flourishes, and ornamental capitals, may delight an amateur in a show-case; a thorough business man detests them in his correspondence. In a lady's writing they are simply vulgar.

The course of instruction given in the copies should constitute a system, arranged in that order of progression which is indicated by a careful analysis of the forms of the letters and of the powers of the human hand, so that each advance may prepare the way for the next, and the steps not be farther apart than the necessities of the case compel. To this end, the simpler forms should precede the more complex; the short, the long. Those that have similar curves and turns and identical parts should be together. Words should precede sentences. The columns should be first narrow, then broader, to accustom the hand by degrees to move easily on the given rests across the longest word. These columnar sections, intended to be written down, are the gradual preparation for the sentences, which occupy the width of the page. The selection of the words for the columns should be in accordance with the same principle of progressiveness,—first the easier, then the more difficult combinations. In them the loops should so occur that when the copy is written they may be handsomely distributed, and the general appearance of the page be harmonious.

A good paper costs more, but it is indispensable. It should be tolerably thick, well laid, with a smooth surface, moderately glazed; so that the ink will not show through when dry, and that there may be no roughness or little hairs for the pen to pick up, and that the pen may glide along without jar on the muscles or nerves of the fingers and hand,—a very important consideration now that steel pens are used, as paralysis has in several instances resulted from their use, and their injurious effect must needs be greater on a rough surface. A white paper is generally to be preferred to a blue, indeed is almost invariably used.

The pen should be fine-pointed, so that a good hair-line can be made, and have a good springy nib, that the shades may be cleanly cut, and that the writing may not be rendered stiff, a result inevitably following the use of a "hard" pen. They should be of a uniform character as much as possible,—not one

very hard and another very soft. Slight differences cannot be avoided; those that vary least are the best, if they are right in other respects.

A new pen is often greasy, owing to a certain process in the manufacture, and will not retain the ink. Dip it and raise it from the ink slowly, then wipe it; repeat this two or three times and the trouble will be removed.

Good ink is a very difficult thing to procure. It should be sufficiently fluid to flow easily from the pen, dark enough to enable the pupil to see at the time what he is writing, and to judge of hair-strokes and shades. It must not evaporate rapidly from the inkstand, nor leave a layer of mud in it; neither should it mould. Frost should not affect it. Ink should stain the paper in order to be permanent. Its color when thoroughly dry should be a deep black, which neither time nor exposure to the sun can change.

Pupils will learn by experiment that, if they raise the pen from the ink suddenly, it will be too full, and apt to blot; if very slowly, the attraction of the fluid will leave none in the pen; and, therefore, a moderate motion must be used. One experiment is worth hours of talking. Attention to this will save many a blot. Cleanliness is as absolutely necessary for the well-being of the pen as for our own.

Pens should be carefully cleaned at the close of the exercise. Always dip and wipe a new pen two or three times before it is written with, or it will be very likely to make a blot. To avoid the same mishap, the pen should never be wiped on the outside of the pen-wiper, but always between the leaves of it. Should the pen-wiper then happen to get on the book, no damage will be done.

A stiff blotter will last the longest, but common blotting-paper, or a piece of newspaper, or any paper, will answer, not indeed for blotting, but for the use we now designate. The copy-book must be kept perfectly clean, and the blotter is to be used for that purpose. The right hand does not soil the book, for it rests on the nails of two fingers and only touches the page with them. It is the left hand that does the mischief. To obviate it, place the blotter so as to cover each column as soon as it is dry after being written, and rest the left hand on that, and not on the page.

Position, Rests, and Movements.

THE immediate human instrument in writing is the arm. It consists of three parts, the upper-arm, the fore-arm, and the hand. The two connections of these are the elbow and wrist. The arm is attached to the body by the shoulder-joint. The position of the body must, therefore, evidently depend upon the use we wish to make of the arm and hand. This use, then, must be determined first. Various ones have been advocated by different teachers. The three following are the most strongly distinguished; the others arise from combinations of two or more of them. First, considering the shoulder as a point of suspension, and moving the whole arm without any support and without any motion of the finger-joints. There are, however, very few who possess sufficient muscular strength and steadiness of nerve to write thus. It is the true movement for striking large capitals and flourishing. Secondly, resting the fore-arm near the elbow and on the nails of the third and fourth fingers, and forming the letters by its movement without any help from the pen-fingers. Thirdly, resting the fore-arm and hand as in the last, while the letters are formed by the movement of those fingers only which hold the pen. This generally leads to a feeble, constrained style.

There Must Be Freedom of Style.—This condition can only be fulfilled by keeping the arm free from all unnatural constraint. This precludes it from affording any support to the body. Again, the letters are to be written across the page on a horizontal line. A requirement of beauty is that this line should be straight. This is secured without much difficulty where the base is ruled. The only important thing is to keep on it. If, now, we take pen in hand, use the elbow, placed opposite the middle of the page, for a pivot, and move the hand across, we find that the arc of a circle is described, touching the base line in only two points. In the middle it rises a full half inch above the base line. This is a difficulty to be overcome. Once more, whilst mere form does not demand consideration here, because readiness in shaping letters can only be acquired by practice, yet uniformity of slope and similarity of turns, which are required, will evidently greatly depend upon the maintenance of the same relative position of the pen, hand, and fore-arm for each letter. If we now observe a little farther the movement above described, we find that in it the position of the hand in relation to each succeeding letter is changed, and assumes a new direction. How can this difficulty be overcome? Again, it is clear that we shall be able to write much faster, if the pen touches the paper lightly, than if it presses on it heavily: this also contributes greatly to freedom of style. Finally, in order to boldness of style, powerful muscles must, if possible, be brought into play in aid of the slight muscles of the fingers, while forming the letters. This would also help to prevent fatigue. To sum up, the essentials of the work to be done are: long continuance, freedom, forming the letters on a horizontal straight line across the page, uniformity of slope and similarity of turns, rapidity and boldness. The conditions we have found to be hereby imposed on the arm are: avoidance of unnatural constraint, relief of all unnecessary pressure, movement of the hand and fore-arm across the page with the same relative position to each letter, and counteraction of the curve arising from this movement, adequate support, and use of powerful muscles.

The Human Instrument.—A little in front of the elbow, at the thickest part of the fore-arm, we find a mass of muscle. If the arm is placed on the desk, suspended from the shoulder, and resting lightly on this mass as a support, we find an excellent ability for moving the fore-arm on it with freedom from left to right and back again, within a certain limited distance,

the muscle rolling under the arm. We will name this support the *rolling rest.* It is of the highest importance to observe the peculiar movement of the fore-arm on this rest. It is not to be so used as that, when the hand passes to the left, the elbow moves to the right, and *vice versa.* The fore-arm moves sideways as the muscle rolls under it, with sufficient play, when it is placed at right angles to the base line and opposite the middle of a word or short clause, to carry the hand across from one end of it to the other without changing its direction. Bending the wrist sideways to the right—a most cramping movement, and painful if frequently repeated—is thus rendered quite unnecessary, and should be carefully watched against.

By turning the third and fourth fingers under, so that the hand can rest on the corner of their nails, or, if preferred, on the little finger only, another support, like the runners of a sleigh, is provided, capable of moving freely over the paper. We name this the *sliding rest.* To avoid friction, the wrist should not touch the desk ; by means of the two rests, it may easily and comfortably be kept a little raised.

These, then, we conceive to be the natural positions and rests,—namely, the right hand and fore-arm in the same straight line, at right angles to the line of writing, and opposite the middle of a long word or a clause of moderate length. The fore-arm is supported on the rolling rest, the hand on the sliding rest, and the wrist slightly raised.

The left fore-arm and hand are placed at right angles to the right fore-arm, with the fingers on the blotter, which covers the part already written, to steady the book, and move it when necessary. The left fore-arm is therefore in the direction of the line of writing.

What now are the movements of the right fore-arm and hand? On the rolling rest the whole fore-arm moves, so as always to be parallel to its first position, and carries with it the hand supported on the sliding rest. The rolling rest is stationary ; the sliding rest glides along the paper on a horizontal line,—that is, parallel to the line of writing : this is its only movement. The whole fore-arm and hand move gradually to the right in this way, with a nearly continuous motion, for the formation of the successive letters, so that their relative position to every letter is the same. All stoppages of the nails and jerks to get the hand forward are to be absolutely forbidden. This movement of the hand is named the *sliding movement ;* the movement of the fore-arm we have named the *comital movement* (Lat. *comes*, a companion), because it *accompanies* the hand.

Since the comital movement is more or less limited, some further means must be found of keeping the fore-arm and hand in the right relative position to the letters. Two methods offer themselves to us for selection. One is, to draw the paper to the left as we write. The other, which we prefer, is, by means of a lift from the shoulder, to place the fore-arm and hand in a position farther to the right : this should be done only at the end of a word. To distinguish this movement, we have named it the *lateral movement.* In performing it, the hand slides as before. Experiment will now demonstrate that, by the adoption of the rolling rest and the lateral movement, the difficulty mentioned above, of the curve formed by the hand crossing the page, is entirely done away with.

For the attaining of Boldness of Style, the powerful muscles of the fore-arm must be brought into action by a slight play of the whole fore-arm forwards and backwards, in direction of the slope on the rolling rest, over the sliding rest,—a fixed point, so far as this movement is concerned. This gives a full heft, through the medium of the hand, to the fingers which move the pen, and, as a consequence, boldness of style ; just as a large and massive stone rolling down a hill maintains its course over considerable inequalities of surface, while the slightest obstacle diverts a small and light one. This play of the fore-arm we name the *muscular movement.* The resulting play of the hand, as the *medium* of its transmission to the pen-fingers, we name the *medial movement.*

We are now prepared to form a correct judgment as to the best position of the body for the accomplishing of these movements most naturally, and consequently with the least fatigue. It may be summed up in two words. **The body must be upright and self-supported.** Its relative position to the desk is a matter of comparative indifference ; only, all the pupils should conform to one plan. Each position has its advantages and inconveniences. The simplest division of positions is twofold ; the right side to the desk, and the face to the desk.

Where we adopt the former, we direct the pupil to turn on his seat, so that his right side may be directly to the desk without touching ; the body to be erect, and supported by the spinal column ; the left foot slightly advanced. The book is adjusted with the back to the front edge of the desk, and at a two-seated desk, the top edge of one at the outside edge of the desk, of the other in a line with the inkstand. When opened, the left side of the page to be written is to be placed at the edge of the desk. The left hand is brought across, and the fingers placed on the left side of the page to keep it steady. The right fore-arm is placed on the desk, parallel with the front edge. If necessary, from short-sightedness or bad adaptation of the height of the seats to the desks, the body may be inclined forward from the seat,—never by rounding the back and contracting the chest,—and the head may be bowed somewhat forward by bending the neck. **The advantages** of this plan of seating the scholars are : the perfectly natural position of the body ; the freedom of the right arm from all avoidable weight, and its ability to form the movements required ; the certainty that both rests are on the desk ; and the facility with which the teacher can look down the files and along the lines in large classes, and see that every pen is rightly held, and every movement correctly made. An objection to this position is made on the ground that, in business, when using large account-books, it is impossible. We reply, that we adopt this position for learners, because it is very convenient for the teacher. When the art is acquired, the position becomes comparatively a matter of indifference.

Where we adopt the second method of seating, namely, the body fronting the desk fairly, or with more or less inclination of the right or left side to it, we take care of these two points : that both rests of the right fore-arm shall be on and be kept on the desk, and that the book is at right angles to the right fore-arm. The following troubles are apt to arise : A tendency to sprawl over the desk, and, as a necessary consequence, to press the chest against it,—a practice most injuri-

ous. The book gets turned from its proper position at right angles to the right fore-arm. When writing down a column, a habit we strongly commend for learners, the book must be continually pushed up, or the back rest of the arm will get more and more off the desk. Indeed, pupils are sometimes found actually resting the wrist on the front edge of the desk. On the other hand, this is often the only position the seats admit of; it is the position that must be adopted, when writing in large account-books; and there is no necessity that the above faults should prevail. They certainly will not under the care of a faithful teacher. We conclude, then, that the position of the body at the desk is matter of indifference, provided it is upright and self-supported.

The next point which claims our attention is the manner of **holding the pen,** and the movement of the pen-fingers. We have seen that the hand is supported on the sides of the nails of the third and fourth fingers. Their ends, being bent under, are separated from the others, and there is room for the execution of the pen-finger movements. The fingers should touch one another at the second joints, as far as the shape of the hand permits: this gives unity and support.

The pen is held by means of the thumb and the first and second fingers. Place the right extremity of the holder against the left side of the second finger just below the nail; the end of the finger will thus be above the pen. Next, adjust the holder obliquely across the left side of the third portion of the first finger, just behind the second joint, the middle finger being at the same time slightly bent. The first two portions of the forefinger may now be closed down on the holder, which will be found to cross and touch them diagonally. The first and second fingers touch throughout. Next, let the upper corner of the fleshy part of the thumb, near the nail, be placed, by slightly bending the thumb, against the lower half of the left side of the holder, opposite the first joint of the middle finger, and the pen will be found in a secure and natural position, both for extension and retraction. It will be observed that we have given the medium position of the pen. The fingers and thumb with the joints slightly bent outwards, straightening them would extend the pen; bending them still more would retract it. The pen is really held between three points,—the side of the end of the second finger, the side of the third portion of the first finger behind the second joint in front of the knuckle, and the side of the end of the thumb. The first finger is like the lid of a box placed on it to keep the pen from jumping out; it is also the principal agent in effecting the pressure for the shades. As to movement, the thumb may be regarded as a spring. The first and second fingers, by contraction of their muscles, press against it; we relax its muscles, and it yields by bending: thus the downward strokes are made. By relaxing, in turn, the muscles of the fingers, and straightening the thumb by calling its muscles into action, it pushes back the fingers, and the up-strokes are formed. The movement is twofold and alternate, extending and retracting, to form oblique lines, ovals, or horizontals.

The pen must be held with the least possible grasp. It is to be at right angles to the base line, and thus in a line with the fore-arm. Great care must be taken to guard against a wrong position of the hand and pen. The pen must be so held that the right side is turned a little down, so that the right nib touches the paper first when the pen is put down. With this right nib the hair-strokes are made. The nibs, so to speak, are at right angles to the slope; not horizontal. By this means the shades can be made smooth. When it is neglected, the shades will be "scratchy," or rough on one side. A glance at the holder tells the teacher in a moment if the hand is right. With beginners, it will be found almost as variable as a weathercock. Now it is inclined to the right, showing that the hand is lying down,—a fault requiring constant watchfulness, and arising from neglect of the comital movement of the fore-arm; now to the left, showing that the hand is turned too far over in that direction. Now the end points outwards, showing the elbow has got away; again, it points inwards, showing that the wrist is bent to the right.

The body with the right side to the desk, or directly facing it, or with either side more or less turned to it. It is to be upright and self-supported.

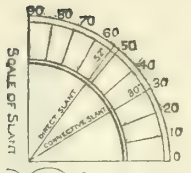
The fore-arms rest lightly on the desk at right angles to one another. The right is supported by the rolling rest, and the hand by the sliding rest. The left arm has the fingers on the left side of the book, to steady it and to move it when necessary. The copy-book is placed with its vertical lines in the direction of the right fore-arm, and its horizontal lines in that of the left. It must be kept far enough on the desk to allow the rests also to be on. This position of the book at right angles to the right fore-arm is invariable, whatever direction the arm may be in on the desk.

The rolling rest is the muscle in front of the elbow; the sliding rest, the corners of the nails of the third and fourth fingers bent under.

The movements of the fore-arm are three. The comital, which accompanies the sliding movement of the hand, and is made sidewise on the rolling rest. The muscular, which causes the medial movement of the hand, and gives heft to the pen-fingers. It is a play of the arm forwards and backwards on the rolling rest. The consequent medial movement of the hand is made over the sliding rest, of which the only movement is in a horizontal line. The lateral is the lifting and moving the whole fore-arm and hand to the right: it is rendered necessary by the limited scope of the comital.

The simplest movement for beginners is to form the letters by the motion of the fingers, moving the hand and arm along by the united sliding and comital movements, which should be nearly continuous. When thoroughly familiar with these, after considerable practice, the medial and muscular movements may be added to give freedom and boldness of style. The lateral will not be needed until sentences are written.

The movements of the pen fingers are in different directions, by extension and retraction: thus are written oblique straight lines; ovals, direct, inverted, and alternate; and horizontal lines. The shades are made by pressure. As to these, great care is needed. They must be made in ovals, with a gradual increase and diminution of pressure. The usual fault is to make them too abrupt, or with the greatest thickness too long continued. The moment the thickest point is reached, the pressure should begin to diminish. Special directions are given in the analysis of the letters, where needed.



1 1 1 1 100

Standard Hand.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M
N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0.

Ladies Hand.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M
N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

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Eighteen Hundred and seventy seven Dollars.

E PLURIBUS UNUM

The secret of happiness is in always having something to do
and in doing that something with zeal and cheerfulness of heart.

Elements and Principles.

WORDS are represented in writing by a single letter, or by a combination of letters. Letters are complex; they can be resolved into forms common to several of them: thus, the form repeated in *u* is found also in *i* and *w*; or, they are expressed by one such form as *j*, found in *g* and *y*. In some there are parts not found in any other.

In writing, the letters are placed on horizontal lines, either ruled or imaginary. Some of the letters and parts of others are longer than the rest. The letter *o*, which is the pure oval, is taken as the standard of size. We name the line on which the writing rests the Base Line. Suppose a line parallel to this to be drawn so as to touch the top of the *o*. This, whether ruled or imaginary, is named the Head Line. The distance between the base and head lines is called one space, and gives the height of the first four principles, wherever they enter into the formation of letters. The dot of the *r*, the point of the *s*, the top of the second part of the *k*, are one-third of a space higher.

Suppose, now, six lines parallel to the base line to be drawn, three above the head line, and three below the base line, at intervals equal to the first space. We shall have eight parallel lines bounding seven equal spaces in a vertical direction. We call the middle space the first; the next above and below, the second; the next, the third; and the last, the fourth One of these spaces is taken for the unit of measurement.

RULE.—Loop letters are four spaces, and double loops seven; *t* and *d* two and a half, *q* three and a half, *p* five, two above and two below the first space. All the rest are one space, except *r*, *s*, and the second part of *k*, which are one and a third.

The capitals are four spaces.

It will be observed that *f*, long *s*, and *p* extend as far above the first space as they do below; and that the top of *p* is a little higher than that of *t* and *d*, and the bottom of *q* a little lower than that of *p*.

The commencing and ending lines of the letters are always to begin and terminate at the base and head lines respectively.

There are two grammatical divisions of letters, distinguished by their forms: the small letters, which form the main body of writing, and the capitals, which are used on special occasions. We shall begin with the analysis of the small letters, because they occur oftenest and because their forms are simpler. We shall not take them up in their alphabetical order, but in that which gives the easiest first, and shows their similarity, arising from the possession of common principles. This is the method adopted in our copy-books, in order to render our system of teaching gradually progressive.

THE CAPITAL LETTERS.

General Rules.

The height of the capitals is four spaces, the same as the loop letters.

A. This letter has three parts. The first part is generally written upwards, the upper curve very slight. The second part is very slightly curved to one-third from the top, then it is a straight line, of which the shade gradually increases. The third part is the cross. It starts from the right foot, coincides for a half space, crosses to the left and forms a loop, the center of which is one-third the height of the letter, and on the double curve line. A line from the top through the center of the letter would be on the main slope; hence it will be seen that the second part, or down-stroke, has a little less than the main slope, the first part a little more. Observe that the width of the letter gradually increases from the top to the base, and regulate the first up-stroke accordingly.

N. This letter consists of three parts. The first two are the same as in *A*, except in slope; at the bottom of the second a very narrow turn is made, and and a curve carried up from it, parallel to the first up-stroke, four-fifths the height of the letter. The spaces on a horizontal line across the middle are equal. The shade begins as in *A*, and is heaviest just before the turn. A line drawn through the centre of the letter, dividing it into two equal lateral halves, would be on the main slope. Observe the gradual increase and diminution of width in the two sections. See the cautions on *A*.

M. This letter has four parts. The first three are the same as *N*, except that the third stroke is carried to the full height. The fourth part is curved from the top, and closes with the direct oval. Observe the shades carefully. A line through the centre, dividing the letter into equal lateral halves, would be on the main slope. The widths at the top and the two at the base are equal. On a horizontal line through the middle there are three equal spaces.

T has two parts. The strongest curve is in the lower section. There is no shade except in the third principle and dot.

F is *T* crossed in the middle by a small double curve placed horizontally, which is itself crossed by a small straight line on the main slope.

P. This letter has two parts, the stem and the cap. It is on the main slope. The cap begins with the inverted oval, two-thirds the height, on the main slope, crossing the stem at right angles, the highest point of the cap being in the middle of the line between the section of the oval and the stem; it is continued with the right curve, and terminates on the stem in a dot at half the height of the letter. On the short diameter of the first oval produced to the stem, there are four equal spaces; on a parallel line from the left curve of the oval crossing the stem to the other curve, two equal spaces. A line on the main slope through the oval would pass through the dot.

B. The stem and cap are like *P*, only that the right side is carried down one-third instead of a half, and the dot is omitted. The separation between the upper and lower sections of the right side is made by a horizontal loop. The lower curve ends with the inverted oval. A straight line drawn on the main slope, touching the right side of the upper curve, would pass through the center of the lower oval; the lower right curve, therefore, projects beyond the upper. Across the first oval to stem on its short diameter produced, there are four equal spaces similarly as to the last oval, three. On a parallel line from the right side of the first oval to the right side of the upper lobe, there are two equal spaces.

R is like *B* as far as the separating loop, which is here made at right angles to the main slope. After that the descending curve is turned back to finish with the direct oval. Across each of the two ovals to the stem on their short diameters produced, there are four equal spaces. On a parallel line from the right side of the first oval to the right side of the upper lobe there are two equal spaces. A line on the main slope through the oval would pass through the dot.

X. The capital-stem is made first, writing downwards. Then the inverted oval and direct oval joined by a straight line on the main slope The two parts of the letter coincide through half the height, commencing at one-fourth from the top. Across the ovals there are four equal spaces. The remark on the dot applies also.

S. Begin from base line with the right curve on the slope of the connecting lines to half the height of the letter, then form a loop on the main slope, half the height, complete a double curve, and end with a dot on the commencing line. The dot is half a space high, and on the main slope. The double curve is the essential part of this letter. Notice how the loop is formed on the upper part, and the greater intensity of curve is on the lower part. Let the shade begin just below the loop, and be nicely graduated. Give much attention to the lower turn and the dot. An oblique line through the loop lengthwise has similar curves formed on the double curve, on the upper left and lower right side.

L. This letter begins like *S*, but the double curve, instead of making a turn to end with the dot, is carried to the left to form a horizontal loop, which rests on the base line, and whose thickness is half a space; it descends on the right side to touch the base line at precisely the same distance from the crossing as on the left side, and ends with the direct oval incomplete. The lower curve of the stem is stronger than the upper. It will be observed that the upper curve of the horizontal loop, and the curve to the right which touches the base line, together form a double curve. The right section only of the direct oval is used. The shade begins as in the *S*, below the loop. The bottom of this letter, which may be termed the *L*-foot, occurs also in *D*, *Q* and one form of *Z*. Take care that the direct oval is made on the main slope.

I. Begin with the left curve at the height of one space from the base line, carry it round to the right to form a circular loop, and continue to curve to the height of the letter. The second part of the capital-stem and dot passing through the center of the circular loop, whose center is also in the middle of the stem. Take care that the upper part of the head is not made too broad. Modify the curve gently to accord with the upper part of the stem.

J. This letter begins as the *I*, but the circular loop is not so high; its lower curve is one space from the base line, and the double curve is carried down to form a loop, the same length as *j*, three spaces below the line. The left curve of the loop crosses at the base line. A line through the length of the loop should pass through the upper part of the letter. Notice the slight intensity of the curve in both parts of the stem. The heaviest shade is in the middle of the right side of the loop. The loop is one space wide.

H. The commencement is the third principle. Next, the double curve with a loop, the hair-stroke of which is carried across and upwards, on the same slope, to form another loop similar to the first; this side is finished with the direct oval. The first section is a little lower than the second, which is the full height. The middle of the hair-line between the two stems is half the height of the letter; hence each loop is a little less than half the height. An oblique line through the center, dividing the central space equally, would be on the main slope. The width between the down-strokes at the middle is one space. The second loop is longer than the first.

K. The first part is *T*. The second part consists of the left curve turned back to make a small separating loop, then continued symmetrically with the upper part, and closed with the direct oval. The separate curve is inclined as in *R*, and is one-third the height of the letter from the top. The slope is the same as in *H*.

V. Commencement. Next, down-stroke straight, shaded heaviest near the turn, which is narrow, like those of the small letters. Then, up-stroke parallel to previous one, branching off into the left curve, and terminated at the same height as the top of the introductory part. An oblique line through the centre, dividing the letter into two equal parts, would be on the main slope.

W. Commencement. Next, double curve down, ending on the base line; then, double curve up with more slope. The second down-stroke is like the second of *A*, very slightly curved one-third, and then straight. The final stroke is the left curve, as in *N*. The spaces on a horizontal line drawn through the middle of the letter are equal. A line from the middle point at the top through the center of the letter would be on the main slope.

Z. Commencement. The down-stroke and foot like *L*, except that the lower curve of the stem is a little less intense. It has the main slope.

D. This letter begins with the double curve, commenced at the height of the letter; its foot is like that of *L* until it touches the base line on the right side, whence it is carried up as the right side of an oval, crosses the stem near its top, and ends with the direct oval. The highest part of the letter is well in front of the stem.

Q. Begin with the inverted oval, and end like *L*. The oval is on the main slope.

C. Begin with the left curve from the base line to half the height; next, make a loop half the height; end with the direct oval. Take care that the loop does not pitch over too much. It necessarily has more than the main slope.

E. Begin with the left curve a little distance from the base line, carry it two-thirds high, and make a loop one-third; continue the curve to form a small separating, nearly horizontal, loop to the right, and close with the direct oval. The separating loop is a little inclined down to the right, to correspond to the lower oval.

G. Begin with the left curve; then, a loop two-thirds the height of the letter; continue the down-stroke as the bottom of an oval, whose width is twice that of the loop, the bottom of the turn being one-fourth from the base line. End with a double curve and dot: the double curve is half the height of the letter. Both parts of the letter are on the main slope. A line through the length of the loop would pass through the dot.

Y. This letter begins with the inverted oval, continues like third principle to one-fourth from the base line, but the lower turn much narrower than the upper, and ends with the double curve and dot; height, two-thirds.

U. Begin with the inverted oval; continue as *Y*, except that it rests on the base line. The second part is a straight line ending with a direct oval. The top of the second part lower than that of the first. Its width is two spaces.

Classification of Letters.

CLASSIFICATION relates to the arrangement of the letters in groups, according to their possession of common forms. Since every letter must have something peculiar to distinguish it from others which have a common principle, classification includes a description of this peculiarity, which is termed the characteristic.

CLASSES OF SMALL LETTERS.

The most natural and convenient division of the small letters seems to give four classes. Some letters will be found to belong to two of them. The reason of the position here assigned is obvious.

FIRST CLASS.—Those letters which consist chiefly of the first, second, and third principles, *i*, *u*, *n*, *m*, *v*, *w*, *x*.

SECOND CLASS.—Those formed from the oval, or the fourth principle, *o*, *a*, *c*, *e*.

These two classes contain all the short letters except two.

THIRD CLASS.—Those which have stems formed of the first element, *q*, *t*, *d*. These are called the Stem Letters.

FOURTH CLASS.—Those which have the fifth and sixth principles, *l*, *b*, *j*, *g*, *y*, *z*, *f*, long *s*. These are the Loop Letters.

Besides these, there are two letters whose forms are anomalous, *r*, *s*.

CHARACTERISTICS.

The characteristics of the letters are as follows:

In the First Class. Of *i*, *one* straight line with *turn* at the bottom and the dot above it;—of *u*, *two* straight lines with *turns* at the *bottom*;—of *n*, *two* straight lines with *turns* at the *top*;—of *m*, *three* straight lines with *turns* at the *top*;—of *v*, its *two* nearly parallel sides and the dot;—

of *w*, its alternately parallel sides and the dot; of *x*, the straight line forming the cross.

In the Second Class. Of *o*, the oval;—of *a*, the addition of the first principle;—of *c*, the dot;—of *e*, the loop.

In the Third Class. Of *p*, the third principle affixed;—of *q*, the fourth principle prefixed;—of *t*, the cross;—of *d*, the fourth principle prefixed to the *t*-stem without the cross.

In the Fourth Class. Of *k*, the third principle affixed;—of *k*, the knot or kink;—of *l*, the turn at the bottom;—of *b*, the parallel sides of the lower part and the dot;—of *j*, the dot;—of *g*, the fourth principle prefixed;—of *y*, the third principle prefixed;—of *z*, the second principle and shoulder; in the other form, the zig-zag;—of *f*, the knot.

In the anomalous letters. Of *r*, the dot and shoulder;—of *s*, the twist on the right side.

OF CAPITALS.

We give the Capitals in the order of their introduction. *O*,—*A*, *N*, *M*, —*P*, *F*,—*P*, *B*, *R*, *X*,—*S*, *L*,—*I*, *J*,—*H*, *K*,—*V*, *W*,—*Z*, *D*, *Q*,—*C*, *E*,—*G*, *Y*, *U*.

OCCURRENCE OF PRINCIPLES.

The capital-stem, or line of beauty, ending with a dot, occurs in fourteen letters, *A*, *N*, *M*, *T*, *F*, *P*, *B*, *R*, *X*, *S*, *I*, *K*, *G*, *Y*.

The capital-stem is written:—

Generally upwards and light, in three letters, *A*, *N*, *M*.

Downwards and light, in eleven letters, *T*, *F*, *P*, *B*, *R*, *X*, *H*, *K*, *W*, *Z*, *D*.

Downwards, light and short, in two letters, *G*, *Y*.

Downwards and shaded in the lower curve, in three letters, *I*, *L*, *S*.

Downwards, prolonged into a loop, shaded on the right side, in one letter, *J*.

The third principle of small letters is used for the commencement of seven letters, *T*, *G*, *H*, *K*, *V*, *W*, *Z*.

The direct oval, when of full size, forms the *O*.

Four-fifths of the vertical height, it is the end or front of *D*.

Half the height, it terminates eight letters, *M*, *R*, *X*, *H*, *K*, *C*, *E*, *U*.

One-third the height, it ends *L*, *Z*, *Q*.

The inverted oval, two-thirds the height, commences seven letters, *P*, *B*, *R*, *X*, *Q*, *U*, *Y*.

Half the height it ends one letter, *B*.

A curve and circular loop are used for the head of *I*, *J*.

The loop, half the height of the letter, is found in six letters, *S*, *L*, *J*, *H*, *C*, *G*; one-third the height, in *E*.

The knot, kink, or small separating loop, is found in three letters, *B*, *R*, *K*; turned in the opposite direction, in *E*.

The horizontal loop, or *L*-foot, is found in four letters, *L*, *D*, *Q*, *Z*.

The first element, very slightly curved to one-third from the top, is found in *A*, *N*, *M*, *W*; straight throughout, and closed by a turn, in *V*.

Combination of Letters.

COMBINATION treats of the arrangement of letters in words at proper distances. This is generally spoken of as Spacing. It is effected by the connecting lines of the two letters running into one another, and thus forming one line, which may be distinguished as the Combining Line.

Good taste requires that the letters in a word should look about the same distance apart; in other words, that the space on the line which the word occupies should be evenly filled. If this is neglected, the writing will look "patchy,"—crowded in one place, scattered in another. We propose, therefore, to give rules for these distances, and to point out the reasons on which they depend.

Every letter ends with a straight line, having a diagonal connecting line with a turn, as *u*, or without a turn, as *j*, *q*; or is an oval with a horizontal connecting line; or is open on the right side, as *c* and *e*. Every letter begins with a straight line, having a diagonal connecting line without a turn, as *u*, *h*, *p*, or with a turn, as *n*, *y*; or is an oval, as, *o*, *a*; or is open on the left side, as *s*, in which the up-stroke is merely the connecting line. The combinations of these different classes of letters may be determined by the following rules:

RULE 1.—When two straight lines, or a straight line and an oval, are united by one turn and a combining line, or by a combining line only, the distance between them is one space, the height of *o*; as *ii*, *ni*, *it*, *ih*, *ip*; *io*, *ie*; *gi*, *go*, *qu*, etc. Between *is*, *us*, etc., the distance is really the same, because the width of *s* equals that of *o*; but since we have to measure to the right side, it is a space and a half.

REMARK.—In *it*, *ih*, *ip*, where the combining line joins the straight line at one-half, one-third, and the top, respectively, the distance is kept by giving less slope to the combining line. In *gi*, *qu*, etc., the same means are used.

RULE 2.—When two straight lines are united by two turns and a combining line, the distance is one space and a half; as, *in*, *ir*, *nu*, *my*, *pn*, etc.

REMARK.—This gives room enough to make the turns properly, and the line crossing diagonally prevents the distance from seeming too wide.

RULE 3.—When two ovals, or an oval and a straight line, are united by a combining line only, or by a combining line and turn, the distance is three-quarters of a space; as, *oo*, *oc*, *od*, *ba*, *ve*, *wo*; *oi*, *ot*, *oh*, *op*, *vi*; *on*, *vn*, etc. The last part of *b*, *v*, *w*, is equivalent to the oval. In *os* the distance is really the same, since *s* is the width of *o*; but as we measure to the right side, it is a little more than one space.

REMARK.—A full space for the distance mentioned in the first part of this rule would be too much, because, as the connecting line is horizontal, there is nothing to disguise it. We have, therefore, to bring the main lines nearer.

RULE 4.—When *c* or *e* precedes a letter beginning like *u*, or an oval, the distance is one space and a half; as, *ci*, *ei*, *cl*, *el*, *cp*; *co*, *eo*, *ce*, *ee*, etc.

REMARK.—The distance in this case is measured from the left side of the *c* and *e*, and is crossed by the combining line diagonally.

GENERAL REMARK.—The combining line does not have an invariable slope, but is determined by the necessities arising from the rules of combination.

RULE 5.—Words are written about one space apart. This, however, depends very much on whether we wish to give the writing a free or a condensed appearance.



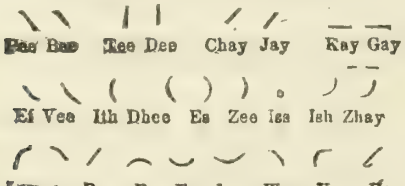
AN EASY LESSON IN Phonography, or Short-Hand

WE need not dwell on the value and advantages of short-hand. Every boy who learns it has a twofold advantage over those who do not, whether he goes to college or at once enters into business-life. The collegian can take down a full report of his professor's lecture, while his fellow-students have only rough and often unintelligible notes.

The young man who goes to learn a business, whether mechanical or commercial, takes down in a moment instructions given, conversations, examinations, details of any machine, method of working, etc. There is no walk in life in which it does not come into play.

It looks difficult to many, but is really easy to acquire.

The following is the phonographic alphabet :



The *letters* for which the above signs stand are:

P	B	T	D	Ch	J	K	G
F	V	Th	*Th*	S	Z	*S*	Sh	Zh
L	R	*R*	M	N	Ng	W	Y	H

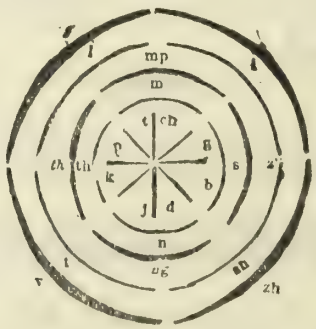
Observe the double consonants, ch, th, *th*, sh, zh, ng.

Th is used in words like *think*, *thought*, *youth* ; *th* in words like *thou*, *they*, *them*. One is a light the other a heavy sound. Sh, in words like *hush*, *cash* ; zh, as in *pleasure*, *measure*. Curved *R* is used in words *ending* in *R* ; straight line *R* when commencing a word, and a vowel follows after. The circle *S* begins or ends a word.

The printed names, Pee, Bee, etc., under the signs, are the *sounds* of the letters, for convenience in talking and writing about them. The naming of signs is called the *nomenclature* ; and it is very necessary to attend to that, as well as to the letters for which the signs stand. The great value of the nomenclature in *describing* the Phonography will appear as we proceed with the lessons.

Remember each one of these signs is a part either of a circle, or a straight line, perpendicular, horizontal, or diagonal. Imitate the cut as near as you can, in length and in depth of pressure on the heavy letters. The use of heavy letters simplifies the alphabet, making a few directions answer double purpose. Continue to *repeat* your copying or reading of the signs, sounds, and letters (it is best to read aloud as you write), until you can skip about, and by covering up the signs, write them from the print from memory, or covering the print, read the signs. All the *heavy* signs, perpendicular or diagonal, must be written from top to bottom ; all the horizontal lines, heavy and light, from left to right,

Learn this alphabet thoroughly before you go on. If you learn it in a week, you will do as well as many of the smartest reporters did when they began to learn it. So get around your center-table and see who learn it first.

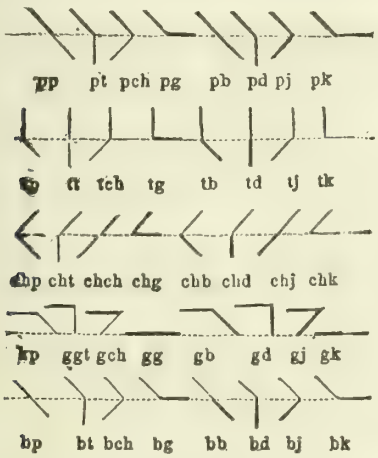


Above we give you the Phonographic alphabet, condensed—in fact, all the consonants in the language in a "nutshell." You will find it handy for easy reference. (Patent *not* applied for.) If you have not mastered the letters as presented, by all means continue your study and practice by reading, writing, and sounding them, until you can call them one by one, not only in regular order, but by skipping, and immediately on sight.

This cut represents the *shape*, but not the relative *length*.

All the letters, light and heavy, should at first be written of the same length—that is, about one-quarter of an inch long. You will notice the letters which are of the same form or direction, but which differ in depth and name, are placed opposite each other, so that you can compare the single and double letters more easily. It can also be studied upside down, or sidewise, or two students may study it at the same time while sitting opposite one another. The cut might be made a little more complete by placing the circle letter *s* in the center. The rest is composed of four circles.

Supposing, now, that you have learned the single letters, we proceed to give you a few examples of joining letters:



In like manner take some ruled paper and pen (which is better than pencil), and write the following, which you will see is a continuance of the order in the second cut, commencing with p, etc., joining the next letter on the right, until we come around to the letter from which we started. Let the first perpendicular letter come down to the line, and the rest follow. If horizontal, let the *second* letter rest on the line. Write:

dp, dt, dch, dg, db, dd, dj, dk,
jp, jt, jch, jg, jb, jd, jj, jk,
kp, kt, kch, kg, kb, kd, kj, kk,
pm, tm, chm, km, bm, dm, jm,
pn, tn, chn, kn, bn, dn, jn,
pth, tth, chth, kth, bth, dth, jth,
ps, ts, chs, ks, bs, ds, js, etc.

It would be easier, perhaps, if a hyphen (-) were placed between the single and the double letters, but if you are familiar with the alphabet you need not make a mistake, and try to write *three* letters in the above instead of two.

Now, let us skip a little, and write three letters together:

kmt, mnt, mlt, ltn, ntl, tln,
tkk, mkt, nkt, kpl, itl, rnt,
vnt, snp, shrp, lrn, hng, etc.

The proper place for using the two kinds of R, sh, and circle *S*, will be fully explained in our next. A good long drill on the letters will do you immense service before you take up the vowels to make words. So take the examples above, and practice, practice, until you can read the letters at sight, and write them from dictation.

If you have had any difficulty in making any of the single or joined letters, so far, let us know, and we will answer as soon after as possible.

Ish (sh) is generally written downward; Shay (*sh*) upward; Ar (r) is written downward; Ray (*r*) upward; Lay (l) upward, and commences a word; but if the vowel comes before it in the spelling, El (*l*) is written instead, and downward. The circle S (iss) may either commence, occur in the middle, or at the end of a word. It also stands for Z. The words in which it happens will not be confounded, as there is but little difference in the sound. Ch (ay) is always written downward, and a little more straight up than R (ay), which is always written upward and slanting to the right. If you try it you will notice how natural it is for you to make the distinction. G (ay) is the only letter that does not come under the rule that all the heavy letters are to be written downward, and that, of course, like all other horizontal letters, is to be written from left to right. Make your heavy signs heavy enough to show the difference between the light and heavy ones, and let them *taper* from and to a fine point gradually. Do not take off your pen or pencil between the letters in joining them. Double straight strokes should be made the full length of two single ones, as tt, kg, etc.

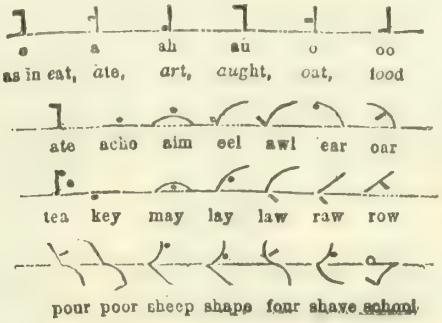
In reading the joined signs, commence with the letter on the left and top, thus: t-ch, not rt. H (ay) is always written upward. S-h (not sh) is made with the hook part of H changed into a circle,

We trust you may understand the remarks without giving you engraved examples in all cases. H (ay) and R (ay) are both written in the same direction.

Now we give you a Vowel Scale, which you must learn before you begin to make up words. The straight up t sign in this table has no value as a letter, and is used only to show the *place* of putting the vowel, *first*, *second* and *third* place.

The regular vowels, a, e, i, o, u, are not sufficient for all the sounds of the language, so they are left out in the cold for the present, and the following, with the rest that will appear in our two next, are substituted:

LONG VOWELS.



In like manner, write, and read aloud as you write: Ape,

ope, pa, paw, ate, ought or aught, oat, taw, to or toe, too, age, jay, jaw, Joe, Jew, ache, oak, key, caw, coo, be or bee, bay, bow or beau, each, chaw, chew, choose, me, ma, maw, mow, own, oath, ace, ail or ale, all, lo, lieu, foe, she, Shae, shawl, shoe, eve, we, way, woe, woo, ye, yea, you.

This cut shows the vowels that occur in many words of the language, and are called the *long* vowels. Study the *power* of each vowel sign, by reference to the word underneath it, until you can detect the long vowels in any other word you may read. The exercise will improve your pronunciation of words.

The long sound of *e* is placed in the beginning of every letter, in the *first* place, either *before* or *after* the letter; the *a* sound is put in the middle, or *second* place, before or after the letter; and the *ah* sound in the *third* place, before or after. So with the *au, o, oo.* Placed before the letter or letters, the vowel is read first; placed after, it is read after; placed *above* a horizontal letter, the vowel is read first; placed *under* the letter, it is read after.

If you commence the making of the letters from the top down, you begin to place the vowels from the top; if the letter is slanting and upward, you reckon the positions from the bottom, or where you commenced.

The stroke vowel signs must be written at right angles to the letter to which it belongs.

The double vowel letters must be pronounced together, as *au* (awe), not a-u,oo (as in food), not double oo.

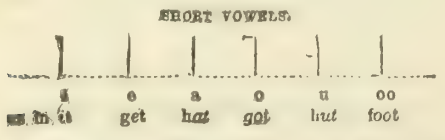
The letters must be made first, and vowels put in afterward.

Take all the consonants you can beginning with p or t, *one at a time*, and write the first place vowel e *before* it, until you go all round the circle. Then take the same consonants, one by one, and place the same first vowel e *after* it, until you complete the circle again. Then take the *second* vowel sound *a* and use it in the same manner. In every case be sure to *sound* the letter and vowel together, whether it happens to make a *word* or not. This will give you plenty of exercise, interesting and instructive. If necessary, get some one to show you how to commence.

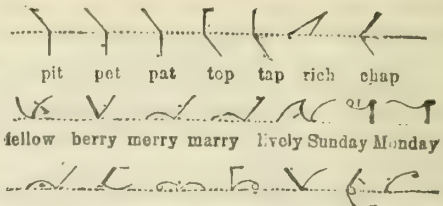
Then pick out all the words you can in this reading matter which contain one or more long vowel sounds, and if they have no sound different from those in the words under the above scale, write them on paper, first the English word, and under it the Phonographic consonant outline, with the vowel properly placed.

Don't be alarmed at the task. The first principles are always the hardest, but the art becomes easier as you learn to understand it.

Taking it for granted that you have learned the rules for writing the long vowels according to the scale, in proper position, first, second, or third place, heavy dot or heavy dash, before or after the letters, we proceed to give you the scale of



or, more simply, without reference to words, but sounds: it, et, at, ot ut, oot.



Mary, Johnnie, Sammy, Thomas, Billy, Joseph, Ella.

You will see the short vowels follow the same arrangements of the long vowels in position, are somewhat alike in make and sound, only the short vowels are more quickly and more lightly spoken.

Study this table also until you can pick out the words in the reading matter of any paragraph or column, whether the words contain long or short vowels, or *both*, and by the aid of your acquaintance with the full Alphabet, and vowels of both kinds, write them all in correct phonographic (short-hand) characters and without much time to study over it.

The t sign before which the short vowels in the table are placed, has no value as a letter, but is to show the relative positions of the vowels to *any* consonant, whether written before or after, at the beginning, in the middle, or end of a letter or letters.

Referring to the table when necessary, copy, and read as you write, the above exercise with the short vowels.

In like manner write, and read aloud as you do so, the following words: Pick, peck, pack, peak, peach, poach, putty, tick, tack, tuck, took, touch, tip, top, tug, chick, check, cup, kept, cage, catch, cut, cud, bit, bid, biddy, budge, back, book, jot, jet, map, met, Mat, Mattie, mud, muddy, mint, meant, among, nothing, fish, ship, shape, shop. Some of these words you must write with three letters.

Take the reading matter in this lesson, or any other print on this page, pick out all the words you can that have either or both sets of vowels, and write them out, first the consonant outline, then fill in the proper vowels. A great many words you will find have a kind of double vowel sound. These you can skip until a more convenient season.

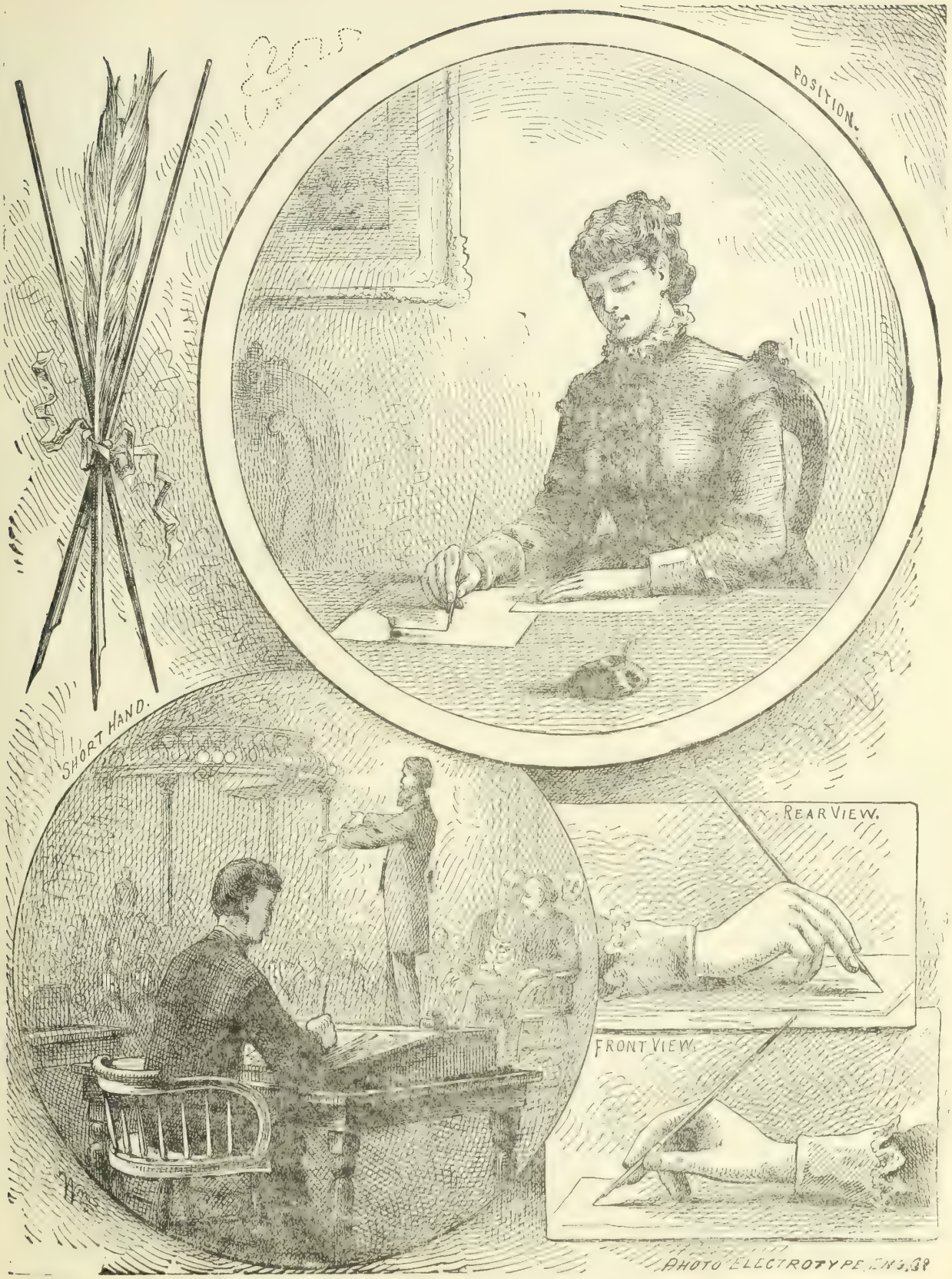
Now we conclude this lesson with the rule for placing the vowels, in writing words.

First position vowels (long or short) are written after the *first* consonant.

Second position vowels (*long*) are written after the *first* consonant; if *short*, before the *second* consonant.

Third position vowels (long or short) are written before the *second* consonant.

You have a first-rate chance for practice in your every-day schools, public and private: that is, you can use the big blackboard and chalk during recess, or before or after school hours. Besides, the beautiful, mysterious, puzzling signs will excite the curiosity and admiration of your fellow schoolmates, and perhaps induce your teachers to inquire into the subject, and to order the necessary books, and introduce short-hand into their schoolrooms as a regular branch of study. Practice in this way all the time you can spare, on the alphabet, then the joined letters, then the joined letters with the long vowels,

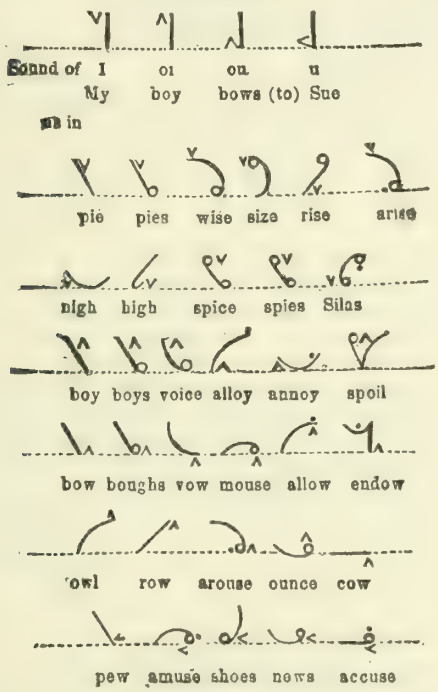

POSITION.
SHORT HAND.
REAR VIEW.
FRONT VIEW.
PHOTO ELECTROTYPE CO. 38

then with both long and short vowels, then make up new words as fast as you can until you can write what you have been over without stopping to think much of how you must write.

You had also better review every week the previous week's lesson before you take up the new one. Be thorough—familiar—well acquainted—with your short-hand company as you go along together.

Supposing that you have learned all the past lessons, we now give you the

DIPHTHONGS.



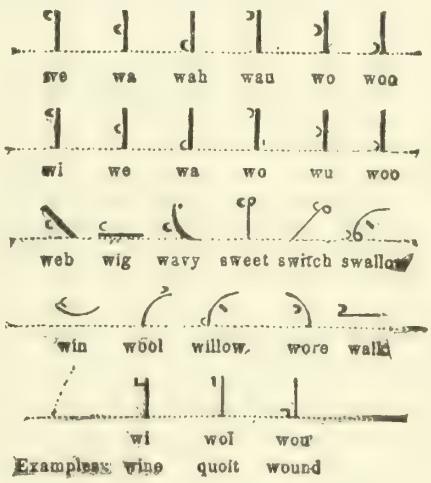
In like manner write the following words (from Graham's list): Vie, vice, vices, mice, tie, ties, entice, entices, die, dye, dies, sigh, sighs, ally, rye, arises, nice, spy, spices, sky, sly, slice, slices, eyes (i-zee), ice (i-es), sight, side, sign. Annoys, noises, choices. Bough, dow, allows, rouse, rouses, arouses, ounces, cows, house, houses, south, sour. Abuse, abuses, fuse, mew, amuses, dew, due (same), adieu, adduce, chews and choose, juices, Jews, hew, suit (Iss [not Es] Tee), stew. It is easier to memorize the sounds of the diphthongs by the sentence above than by different and disconnected words.

These signs have a place, like the single vowels, either first, second, or third, whether placed before, or after, at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a letter. Copy, and read aloud as you write, the above examples; but do not simply copy them without you know how and why the signs mean what they read. Observe closely the angles of the diphthong signs, whether downward, upward, to the left, at the top or bottom. We might give you, in this lesson, much more to study, but it is best not to try to do too much all at once. If you learn these perfectly, you can exercise yourself in making other words like them from your school-books.

You will notice a difference is made between the S and Z sign, by making the Z circle a little heavier than the S circle. Two short-hand signs may be written entirely alike with this exception, and have different meanings.

The double Iss adds another S to a single S, and is called sis, ses, sus, or sez, according to the sound of the word you are writing, oftener ses, and is made twice the size of the single S circle, as in rise (Ray Iss), rises (Ray Sis), vices (Vee Ses), entices (En Tee Ses), arises (Ar [not Ray] Ses), spices (Is Pee Ses), slices (Iss Lay Ses), voices (Vee Ses), noises (En Ses), and as in some of the above words.

If you have forgotten what we have called the nomenclature, or describing of the letters (as just given in parenthesis), refer to the first of the alphabet. By using this *naming*, you see, we avoid all the drawing and engraving of examples, which yo can understand just as well as from the print.



From the above tables you will notice that the sounds, in their order and power, resemble the ordinary long or short vowels, and also the diphthongs, *only* with the addition of W before them. Instead of e, a, ah, au, o, oo, it is we, wa, wah, wau, wo, woo, etc. It would be well for you to repeat these sounds of the long and short vowels, and this table with the *W*, constantly in succession, until you have the sounds familiar and in order, just like your common alphabet. Most scholars have some trouble in learning the difference between the third place long vowel and the first place vowel of the last half of the vowel scale; this is, in forming words, they have some difficulty in distinguishing the sound of Ah from the sound Au. Be careful of this.

You can simplify these tables by dividing them into threes; that is, separate the first three sounds a little wider apart from the second three, and so relieving the eye, you can memorize the different sounds and forms by sets of threes—twelve sounds in all. The first six are heavy—the first three open on one side, and the next three open on the opposite side; the last six are light, and open in contrary ways, to be easily distinguished.

The next little cut represents sounds that do not occur very often, especially the *woi*. Wi and wou are more frequent.

Now, in same manner as recommended in previous lesson, take the letter p as a starting point, write all the above vowels preceded by *W*, before each letter of the round alphabet cut, going round from left to right, both with the long and short sounds above. This will give you plenty of exercise. In many cases you may not be able to make words or sense, but persevere in the sounds.

In like manner, write the following words several times. Repetition gives you confidence and speed.

Weep, warp, wait, wart, wit, wet, wot, watch, wag, weed, wade, wooed, wage, week, weak, wake, walk, woke, ween, wane, wan, weal, wail, wall, waif, woof, weave, wave, wove, wash, wish, wing, etc.

The following suggestions are recommended for trial by students and reporters. Position according to accented syllable:

Make *all* half-lengths of word-signs express it, and in the same position as the full lengths; as, Blet ² for *believe it*; Dlet ², *deliver it.*

Write words ending in *er* same as the primitive, with the addition of downward R; as *pardoner*, Par-Den-Ar, instead of Per-Dee-Ner; *Dinner*, Den-Ar, instead of Dee-Ner; *Tinner*, *Tenor*, Ten-ar, instead of Tee-Ner.

Make all words ending with R, with downward R; and all words with a final vowel following the R, with upward R: but R before J is always Ray. This is an established rule, yet often departed from with perplexing frequency; but it is suggested as a standing and *unexceptional* rule. So also with Ret and Ard, down or up, as followed or not by a vowel. So also with Lay and El, Let and Eld. As *disposal*, Dees-Pees-El; *retail*, Ret-El; down-hearted, Den-Art: retained, Ret-End; ordained, Ard-End, and numerous others. This rule thus provides a distinction between words ending in *er*, *ry*, *el*, and *ly*, which, in many cases, according to the standard dictionary, are written alike.

Retain the Pitman Ler sign for *lr*, instead of Lay-Ar, which is longer, especially in compound words, as *Chandler*, Chent-Ler, instead of Chay-End, Lay-Ar.

Write all words ending in *tionist* with the Steh loop inside the shon hook; as *abolitionist*, Bee-Layshonst; *protectionist*, Pret-Kayshonst; *prohibitionist*, Per-Beeshonst: and as in *revolutionist*, *resurrectionist*, *secessionist*, *rationalist.*

In advanced writing, *ing* may be omitted both in nouns and participles, increasing the opportunity for phrasing; as in *seeing*, *doing*; loving us, Lay-Vees; doing his, Dees; doing it, Det.

Write half the "I" sign in all phrases and compound words; *my idea*, *eye-sight*, *thine eyes*, eyelid, eyelet.

If in writing word-signs or phrases, the single sign or second word of the phrase is out of position, throw it into position by striking a line either above, through, or below such sign, for first, second, or third position, as the case may be.

Simplify the pronunciation of the syllable *oid*, signifying *like*, by ly substituting *ty*; as petty, betty, tetty, detty, chetty, jetty, ketty, petty, pretty, etc., instead of pet-oid, bed-oid, etc.

Write *Ther* joined, and *of* understood, instead of double length Veether ², to express *of their*; except when *of* is emphasized.

Write *Retty* for *on*, before p, b, t, d, ch, j, b, v, n, ng, s, z, sh, zh, el, th *th*, and y; *Chetty* before k, g, Lay, Ar, Ray, w and m.

Write *Retty* for *I*, above the line, before p, b, t, d, ch, j, k, g, s, and th; *Chetty* before Ar, and Ray; *Petty* before m, and mp.

He, *should*, and *the* on the line, by *Retty* before p, b, d, t, ch, j; *Chetty* before k, g, m.

How same as the preceding, below the line.

When *new* and *now* commence a phrase, write them below the line without the tick; as *nowadays*, En-Dees; *knew-there-were*, Enther-weh.

Write the sounds of *ar* and *er* after m without the Ray; as in *March*, *merchant.*

Write "society" by S through the preceding word in all possible cases; in a few other instances, join the S, as in "good society," "modern society," etc.

"I should" may be joined to the rest of the verb, before Ray or Lay, by Retty-Chetty. As, I should rather, I should like.

Emphasis and grammar usually suggest and should determinate whether you write "therefore" with a double-length and an Ef hook, or with a *Ther* tick with a hook. It always comes between commas, and therefore is better distinct. "There," also, whether by double-length or the Ther sign, is best determined by the force of the emphasis. As, "do, therefore," Dee-Jefty instead Deetherf; it should *have*, Tee-Retty Vee; it *should* have, Tee-Chefty; there is, *therefore*, Thers Befty; there *is*, therefore, Ther-Zeetherf.

An *an*-tick (not antic) and *to* tick on the line, and the rest near and below, may express *an con-*, to *con* or *com-*, as, and conform; to confer; and combat. This when the article is not joined, and the *con* implied.

A *dot* on the line may be used for a *period*, if the *ticks* are used for the articles, *a*, *a-nd*, and *the.*

Ing thr may omit the disjointed heavy tick, and be expressed by a joined *ther* tick, or a double-length, omitting the *ing*, as, doing there, Deether; having there, Vee-Jetty. See Rule 6.

Ing between other words may be omitted, or expressed by writing the following word immediately after, disjoined.

Write *else* always downward, and *less* upward, for distinction, and according to Rule 3, as, any-body else, nothing-less.

If desired, short forms as well as double-lengths of Lay may determine a vowel before it or not, by its inclination to perpendicularity, as in alone, alien, Len nearly vertical; lone, lane, learn, Len, usual, incline.

"Never have" may be written with Nef I—*i. e.*, En an Vee hook.

"Being," if written alone, should be Bee-Ing; but in phrases simply Bee—as "for the time being," Ef-Tee-Bee.

Write *half-lengths* to express *ality*, *idity*, *bility*, *ility*, *inity*—as Frugality, Fer-Gelt; principality, Per-Pelt; timidity, Tee-Med; fluidity, Fel-Det; stability, Stee-Belt; possibility, Pees-Blet; facility, Efs-Elt; futility, Fet-Elt; vicinity, Vees-Net. But after N hook, write Bee, or omit the hook, as in trainable.

Having given the student a good start, we now send him on his way, assuring him that if he is diligent he will have no reason to regret having taken to the study of Phonography.

LANGUAGES.

The number of languages and dialects, ancient and modern, has been computed by Adelung to be 3,064, namely:—

Belonging to Asia	987
" " Europe	587
" " Africa	276
" " America	1,214
Total	3,064

It would take more space than our limits permit to give a tabular view of all languages: the following summary contains the principal families, and the classes in which they are generally placed: —

I. *Monosyllabic Class.*—Chinese, Siamese, Avanese, Japanese.

II. *Shemetic* or *Semetic Class.*—Aræmean (Chaldee Syriac), Hebrew, Phœnician, Arabic.

III. *Indo-European* or *Indo-Germanic Class.*—Sanscrit, Celtic, Teutonic or Gothic, Pelasgic or Greco-Latin, Sclavonic, Hungarian, Tartarian or Turkish.

IV. The *Polynesian Class,* consisting of the dialects spoken in the Indian archipelago and islands of the South Seas.

V. The *African Class.*—Remains of the ancient Libyan in the north; Soosoo and Foulah (between the rivers Senegal and Gambia); Ashantee; Amaaric, spoken in parts of Abyssinia; Hottentot, in the south; Caffre, extending from the south along the east coast as far as Delagoa Bay.

VI. *Polysynthetic Class,* extending from north to south of both continents of America, and comprising Chilian, Peruvian, Brazilian, Mexican, Western dialects of North America, Boreal dialects of North America, etc.

The contrast between the first and the last of these classes presents an apparent anomaly. The Chinese languages have existed among a polished people from very remote antiquity, and yet are as rude and simple as if they had been just devised for the use of a nation but recently emerged from barbarism; whereas the languages in common use among the wild tribes of America are complex and difficult in their structure, and seem as if they had been invented by a people who had made great advances in civilization. It has consequently been surmised that America was at one time the residence of a civilized people, of whom the Indian tribes are the degenerated remains.

SPECIMENS OF LANGUAGES.

With the view of affording the unlearned reader an idea of the appearance of some of the principal languages, dead and living, we append the passages from the New Testament composing the Lord's Prayer, in Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, German, Dutch, and English—for the sake of clearness the Greek is printed in the Roman alphabet, the aspirate at the beginning of certain words being represented by the letter *h.* The reader is called on to observe the difference between the Greek and Latin words, and how evidently the Latin is the parent of the Italian, Spanish, and French, the latter, however, possessing the least resemblance in orthography and arrangement to its original. He will also have an opportunity of comparing the German with its kindred tongue, the Dutch, and both with their relation to the Anglo-Saxon or English.

GREEK.

PATER HEMŌN ho en tois ouranois, hagiastheto to onoma sou. Eltheto he Basileia sou. Genetheto to thelema sou, hōs en ouranō, kai epi tes ges. Ton arton hemōn ton epiousion dos hemin semeron. Kai aphes hemin ta opheilemata hemōn, hōs kai hemeis aphiemen tois opheiletais hemōn. Kai me eisenengkes hemas eis peirasmon, alla rusai hemas apo tou ponerou

hoti sou estin he Basileia, kai he dunamis kai he doxa, eis tous aiōnas. Amen.

LATIN.

Pater noster, qui es in cœlis, sanctificetur nomen tuum. Adveniat regnum tuum. Fiat voluntas tua, sicut in cœlo, et in terra. Panem nostrum quotidianum da nobis hodie. Et remitte nobis debita nostra, sicut et nos remittimus debitoribus nostris. Et ne nos inducas in tentationem, sed libera nos a malo. Tibi enim est regnum, et potentia, et gloria, in sempiternum. Amen.

ITALIAN.

Padre nostro, che sei ne' cieli, sia santificato i' tuo nome. Il tuo regno venga. La tua volontà sia fatta in terra come in cielo. Dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano. E rimettici i nostri debiti, come noi ancora gli rimettiamo a' nostri debitori. E non indurci in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno. Perciochè tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria, in sempiterno. Amen.

SPANISH.

Padre nuestro, que estás en los cielos, sea sanctificado tu nombre. Véga tu reyno; sea hecha tua volontad como en el cielo, ansí tambien en la tierra. Danos oy nuestro pan quotidiano. Y sueltanos nuestras deudas, como tambien nosotros soltamos a nuestros deudores. Y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libranos de mal. Porque tuyo es el reyno, y la potécia, y la gloria, por todos los siglos. Amen.

FRENCH.

Notre Pere qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifie. Ton règne vienne; ta volonté soit faite sur la terre, comme au ciel. Donne-nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne-nous nos péchés, comme aussi nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous abandonne point à la tentation, mais délivre nous du malin. Car à toi appartient le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, à jamais. Amen.

GERMAN.

Unser Vater in dem Himmel, dien Name werde geheiliget. Dein Reich komme. Dien Wille geschehe auf Erden wie im Himmel. Unser tägliches Brod gieb uns heute. Und vergieb uns unsere Schulden, wie wir unsern Schuldigern vergaben. Und führe uns nicht in Versuchung, sondern erlese uns von dem Uebel. Denn dein ist das Reich, und die Kraft, und die Herrlichkeit, in Ewigkeit. Amen.

DUTCH.

Onze Vader, die in de Hemelen zijt, uw naam worde geherligd. Uw Koningrijk kome. Uw wil gerchlede, Gelijk in den hemel. Zoo ook op de aarde. Geef ons heden ons dagelijksch brood. En vergeef ons onze schulden, Gelijk ook wij vergeven onzen schuldenaren. En lied ons nict in verzoeking, Maar verlos ons van den booze. Want Uw is het koningrijk, En de kracht, en de heerlijkheid, In de eeuwigheid. Amen.

ENGLISH.

Our Father who art in heaven, hallowed be thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth, as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread. And forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil. For thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory, for ever and ever. Amen.

Language, in the largest sense of the term, may be defined as the means by which thought is expressed. Thought, as is well known, may be expressed by means of mute signs, as frowns, sighs, kind looks, gestures of the body, or by inarticulate sounds, as groans, cries, sobs, laughter. The first are usually called *natural language*, and the second *inarticulate language*; and these means of expression partly belong to the lower animals. Finally, there is *articulate language*, peculiar to man alone, and consisting of a multitude of sounds, each of which represents a distinct idea. To this last mode of expression, generally known by the simple term *language*, our attention is for the present to be directed.

ORIGINAL FORMATION OF LANGUAGE.

It is sufficiently clear that the vocal organs of man are constituted with a view to his expressing himself by speech. The larynx, epiglottis, pharynx, tongue, palate, and lips, are all of them framed in such a manner as to show incontestably that they were designed for producing such sounds as we employ in articulate language.

The first language of a child is that of inarticulate sounds; it cries when it is hungry, screams when it is angry, and moans when it is in pain. The strong resemblance which subsists between the words in different languages expressive of the first social ties, is worthy of observation. Thus the word mother is

Em and *am* in Hebrew and Arabic.	*Modor* in Anglo-Saxon.
Madr ..Persian	*Moder* ..Swedish.
Matr ..Sanscrit.	*Moder* ..Danish.
Mētēr ..Greek.	*Moeder* ..Dutch.
Mater ..Latin.	*Mutter* ..German.
Madre ..Italian.	*Mater* ..Russian.
Mère ..French.	*Mathair*..Celtic.

When the *primitive men*, advancing from early necessities and simple tangible ideas, found it necessary to have words to represent the abstractions of the mind, they still proceeded according to the dictates and analogies of nature.

In all languages, every term expressive of mental operations is borrowed from the material world. Some of the terms thus applied are signally appropriate.

In the present stage of language we have become so habitu ated to the use of terms applied metaphorically, that we seldom reflect on their original import. There are many instances in which the metaphorical word remains, when its primary signification has been forgotten. For instance, the word *capricious* does not suggest the idea of a goat, although it is derived from the Latin *caper*, a goat, to denote the character of a person who bounds from subject to subject, without paying due attention to any , like a goat, which bounds from rock to rock, without settling long in any one spot.

The Letter Writer.

EVERY position in life demands letter writing. A letter is the great link between parents and children, between lovers, between friends; while in business relations it makes fortunes, or mars them. A good letter must, firstly, be absolutely correct in every mechanical detail; then style comes into question; then the matter, which must be intelligible to the meanest as well as the highest understanding. The great art of letter-writing is to be able to write gracefully and with ease, and no letter should wear the appearance of having been laboriously studied.

The first point to be observed in your letter is that you write in a clear, legible hand, a hand that anybody and everybody can read. You may fill your pages with the most exquisite and sparkling ideas, but if they cannot be read except to the torture of the peruser, your diamond thoughts lose all their glitter, and people to whom you write, instead of being anxious to receive a letter from you, will mentally groan at the very idea of its receipt, knowing the toil and trouble that awaits them in its perusal.

Be patient, then, and plod on steadily until you write a bold, clear, clean hand, and never let a scrap of your writing pass from you that is not carefully executed.

Never erase. It is much better, though wearying the task, to commence all over again. An erasure is a sore to the eye.

Orthography is next to be considered. Bad spelling is disgraceful, and many people spell badly from simple carelessness. Read carefully the works of the best authors. Write extracts from these works, and you will intuitively spell correctly. Your sense will become offended at a misspelt word. Use the simplest language. Always have a dictionary (pocket) beside you, but never consult it unless you are in doubt. Once consulted, you should remember the word ever afterward. Never divide your words into syllables at the end of the line unless you cannot help it. If you have space for the first syllable, let your hyphen be bold. Thus:

It is sometimes a great consolation to me that, etc., etc.

A word of one syllable must not be divided. Bring it bodily over to the next line.

Compound words must be divided into the simple words composing them. Thus: War-whoop, not warw-hoop; bread-stuff, not breadst-uff.

GRAMMAR.

Place your verbs correctly at all hazards. Never use the adverb for the adjective, or the adjective for the adverb. Never take liberties with the relative pronouns, or mingle in dire confusion tenses and moods. A careful study of the admirable grammar in this cyclopedia will keep the letter writer in the straight path.

PUNCTUATION.

In order to have the meaning of words readily understood, it becomes necessary to divide those words into paragraphs, sentences and clauses, by means of punctuation. As an instance of the absence of punctuation and the farcical result, just read this:

Lost on Broadway on Thursday evening last an umbrella by an elderly gentleman with a carved ivory head.

Take the following rules and mark them well :

Put a comma wherever you would make a trifling pause, were you speaking; as, "He came, he saw, he conquered."

A semicolon makes a longer pause, and an incomplete sentence; as, "Julia is handsome; Agnes is beautiful." The semicolon separates the sentence more distinctly than the comma.

The colon marks a sentence which is complete in itself, but is followed by some additional remark; as, "Shun vice: it will lead to ruin." The colon is also used to precede a quotation, and point it off from the rest of the sentence; as, Shakespeare says: "Assume a virtue, if you have it not."

A period is used to denote that a sentence is complete; as, "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush."

The dash is used to denote a sudden pause, or abrupt change of sense; as, "I have loved her madly, wildly—but why speak of her?"

The interrogation point is used only after a question; as, "Why did you say so?"

The interjection point is used only to denote an exclamation; as, "Alas! all my joys have flown!"

The parenthesis is used to enclose a portion of a sentence which if left out would not destroy the sense; as, "I value this flower (a faded flower) very highly."

The apostrophe is used to mark the possessive case, and also the omission of a letter or letters in a word; as, "Frederick's hair is black," or, "Gen'l Grant is getting old."

The caret is used to mark an omitted word, which word must be written immediately above it; as,

"What a wet day!"

The hyphen is used to connect compound words, and at the end of a line shows that more syllables are carried over to the next line.

Quotation marks are used before and after every quotation, to separate and define it; as, "Many are called, but few are chosen."

CAPITAL LETTERS.

The capital letters only set apart the sentences and paragraphs, but while their proper use adds greatly to the beauty of an epistle, their omission or improper use will make the pages present a perfectly absurd appearance.

Begin every paragraph with a capital letter.

Begin every sentence following a period with a capital letter.

Begin all proper names with a capital letter.

Begin all titles, as President, Vice-President, General, Doctor or Captain, with a capital letter.

Begin all names of places, as Chicago, Long Branch, Niagara, with a capital letter.

Begin the words, North, South, East, West, and their compounds and abbreviations, as North-east, S. W., with a capital letter.

Begin the names of the Deity and Heaven, or the pronoun used for the former, as, in His mercy—Thou, Father, with a capital letter.

Begin all adjectives formed from the names of places or points of the compass, as English, Northern, with a capital letter.

Begin every line of poetry with a capital letter.

Begin all quotations with a capital letter.

Begin all titles of books, and usually each important word of the title, as, Bancroft's History of the United States.

Begin the name of any historical event, as the Civil War, with a capital letter.

The pronoun I and the interjection O must invariably be written with a capital letter.

Begin all the names of the months, as June, April, with a capital letter.

Begin all addresses, as, Dear Sir—Dear Madam, with a capital letter.

Capital letters must never be placed in the middle of a word; never, except in accordance with the foregoing rules, in the middle of a sentence.

STYLE.

You cannot blindly follow any rules as regards style, as your style will ever be your own. Quote as little as possible, and be niggardly with your adjectives. Avoid long sentences, and florid language. Parenthesis should be carefully punctuated; as, "John (who is, as you are aware, a confirmed toper) is considerably better."

Be very careful not to repeat the same word. Tautology is a crime in writing. Read this and see how you like it:

"Willie has *come*. Johnny will *come* to-morrow. Will you *come* and spend a day with us? Make Susie *come*. Summer has *come* at last."

This is tautology. Do not underline unless in very extreme cases.

"You know, darling, how *intensely* I *love* you," is perhaps excusable.

Never abbreviate except in business. Dates should be given in figures, and money, in parentheses, thus ($10,000). Date carefully.

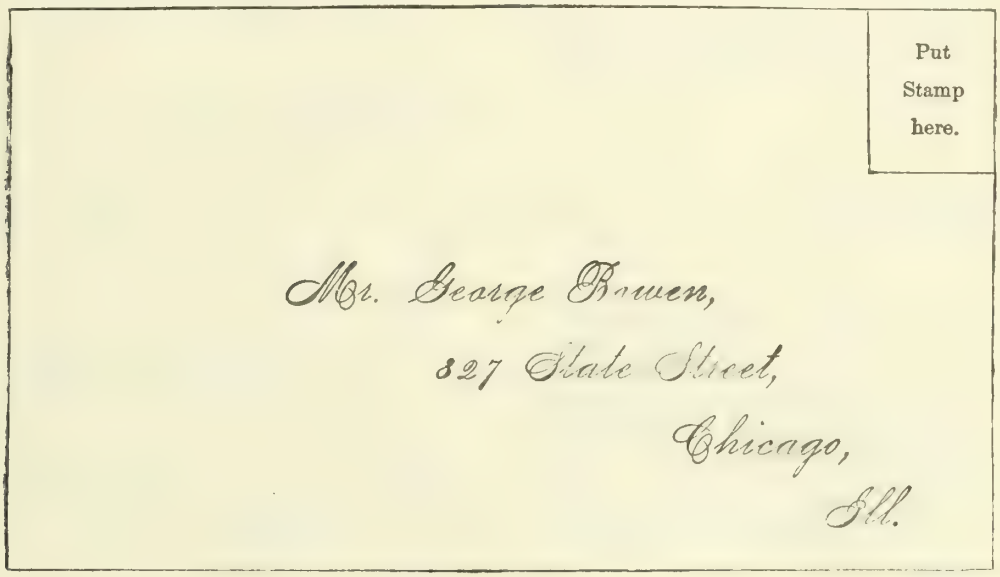
Begin a letter this way:

RICHMOND, VA.,
June 1st, 1882.

or

NEW YORK, Sept. 7th, 1882.

Avoid postscripts. They are only embarrassing. Take your envelope, and having neatly folded your letter, place it in the envelope, close the envelope and write in the most legible manner:



Abbreviate the names of the States in the following fashion:

Maine, Me.; New Hampshire, N. H.; Vermont, Vt.; Massachusetts, Mass.; Rhode Island, R. I.; Connecticut, Conn.; New York, N. Y.; New Jersey, N. J.; Pennsylvania, Penn. or Pa.; Delaware, Del.; Maryland, Md.; Virginia, Va.; North Carolina, N. C.; South Carolina, S. C.; Georgia, Ga. or Geo.; Alabama, Ala.; Mississippi, Miss.; Missouri, Mo.; Louisiana, La., Tennessee, Tenn.; Kentucky, Ky.; Indiana, Ind.; Ohio, O.; Michigan, Mich.; Illinois, Ill.; Wisconsin, Wis.; Arkansas, Ark.; Texas, Tex.; Iowa, Io.; Florida, Fla.; Oregon, On.; California, Cal.; Minnesota, Minn.; District of Columbia, D. C.

REPLIES.

There is no greater mark of good-breeding and politeness, than the prompt reply to a letter. Never lose a moment, if possible, in replying to one. If the reply requires delay, write to acknowledge receipt of the letter. Never reply by proxy if you are able to write yourself.

Never write on a half sheet of paper.

Avoid pedantry.

Never write a congratulatory letter upon mourning-paper, even if you are in mourning.

Never try to patch an ill-formed letter.

If you add your own address to a letter, put it under your signature, thus:

Very respectfully,
ROBERT R. WHITE,
154 R—— St.,
New Orleans, La.

Never write an anonymous letter. Treat it with silent contempt.

Never gossip. Friendly intelligence, if you are certain it is true, may be communicated.

Date every letter clearly and carefully. It is often of the utmost importance to know when a letter was written.

Sit erect when writing, as, if you write constantly, a stoop will surely injure your figure and your health.

If you want to be stylish, send your letter of introduction, with your card, by the servant at the private residence of the person to whom you are introduced. Send a letter with your card if you present it at a merchant's office.

Henry Blachford, Esq.,
70 West 50th Street,
New York.

Introducing
Charles Kendrick, of Louisville, Ky.

We give examples of the forms of letters in general use. These will act as guides to the inexperienced.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

Never seal a letter of introduction. Mention the business in which the party whom you are introducing is or was engaged. Write the name of the party introduced in the left-hand corner of the envelope containing the introduction. Thus: you wish to introduce Mr. Charles Kendrick, of Louisville, Ky, to Mr. Henry Blachford, of New York. Direct your letter as above.



INTRODUCING ONE LADY TO ANOTHER.

Chicago, June 1, 1882.

Dear Emily,

This letter will introduce my dear friend Mrs. Thomas Frost, of whom you have heard me speak so much. I feel assured that this introduction will prove of considerable pleasure to both of you.

Any attention you show her during her stay in Gotham will be appreciated by,

Your affectionate friend,
Julia M. Hans.

Mrs. Joseph M. Menturne

INTRODUCING A YOUNG LADY SEEKING EMPLOYMENT.

POUGHKEEPSIE, June 1, 1882.

DEAR MR. JONES:—

The young lady whom this letter will make known to you is desirous of obtaining employment in your city, and I use our old acquaintanceship as the bridge to your good offices in her behalf. She has received a very liberal education and would prove of immense value to a family whose young children need careful and judicious teaching. She is gentle, amiable, and willing. I trust you may be able to serve her.

I am, etc.,

Dear Mr. Jones,

Your sincere friend,

R. A. APPLETON.

MR. W. F. JONES.

INTRODUCING A GENTLEMAN SEEKING A POSITION IN A COUNTING-HOUSE.

ALBANY, *June* 1, 1882.

MY DEAR SIR:

Recognizing your well-merited and extensive influence in the commercial circles in your city, I beg to introduce to you W. James Farms, who is desirous of obtaining a clerkship in a counting-house. He is a gentleman of capacity and ability. His character stands A 1, and he is as industrious as he is energetic. He considers New York a better field than this place, and prefers to try his chances there to remaining here. He can refer to me. Trusting that you will lend him a helping hand, I am,

Yours, very truly,

JACOB HILL.

JOSEPH LYNCH, Esq.

INTRODUCING A SISTER TO A SCHOOLMATE.

WILKESBARRE, *June* 8, 1882.

DEAR ROSIE:

This letter will introduce my sister Polly. I do not think that I need say another word. I love you both. You will love both of us. I will write a long letter very soon.

Yours, as ever,

MARY.

Miss ROSIE IRWIN.

INTRODUCING A YOUNG MARRIED LADY TO A FRIEND IN HER NEW HOME.

STANFORD, CONN., *June* 1, 1882.

MY DEAR MAMIE:

Mrs. Holcroft will present this note, and when I tell you that she is a bride, and is about to settle in your town, I feel that I have secured her a pleasant friendship, and that she will find in you an old *new* friend in the midst of strangers. I know that you will pay her all the attention that lies in your power for the sake of auld lang syne.

Your loving friend,

BLOSSIE.

Mrs. W. T. MARSDEN.

INTRODUCING A DAUGHTER ABOUT TO MAKE A VISIT.

CLEVELAND, O., *June* 1, 1882.

MY DEAR MRS. BECKER:

My daughter Ellen will present this in person, as her introduction to her mother's old friend, whose kind invitation to spend a few weeks she accepts, *con amore*. That she will have a delightful time is amongst the few certainties in this very uncertain life. You may find her a little shy and reserved, but under your care she will soon feel herself as much at home as in Euclid Avenue, Cleveland. With warmest regards to your husband, and lots of love to yourself, I am,

Your sincere friend,

CATHERINE E. LAWSON.

Mrs. JOSEPH BECKER.

INTRODUCING A GENTLEMAN TO A LADY FRIEND.

WARRENPORT, ME., *June* 1, 1882.

MY DEAR MISS TENTINE:

My friend Mr. Robert George Balfin by whom this letter will be presented, is about to settle in Dayton. As your hospitality is proverbial, may I hope for a little slice of it for him? And I look forward to good reports from both of you as to the ripening of a friendship the seed of which is now sown by

Your very sincere friend,

JOHN G. SHEAR.

LETTERS ON BUSINESS.

Letters on business should be brief, to the point, and clearly and cleanly written. No flourishes either in diction or penmanship. There is no time for such ornamentation in business.

ORDERING A SUPPLY OF GOODS FOR A STORE IN THE COUNTRY.

SPIKE, THOMPSON COUNTY, KY., *June* 1, 1882.

MESSRS. PARK & TILFORD, NEW YORK:

GENTLEMEN—I have just opened a large grocery store in this place, and the prospects of success seem assured. I should be happy to deal with your firm. I can refer you to Robinson & Charles, of 270 Broadway, New York. This being our first transaction, I shall be prepared to pay the express co. upon delivery of goods, if you will forward me your ac. with the usual cash discount by a previous mail.

Enclosed please find order, which I should wish filled as promptly as is consistent with your convenience.

Very respectfully,

R. M. MACARTEY.

REPLY.

BROADWAY, NEW YORK, 3 *June*, 1882.

MR. R. M. MACARTHY:

DEAR SIR—Your favor of the 1st to hand. We shall be pleased to open an account with you, Messrs. Robinson & Charles having spoken very highly of you.

We have this day forwarded to your address the goods according to your invoice, but being desirous of obtaining your approval of their quality and value, will await your examination for the enclosed bill, which is subject to 5 per cent. discount for prompt cash. A post-office order or draft on one of our city banks will suit our convenience equally well as collection by Dodd's Express.

Hoping to receive further orders, we are,

Yours respectfully,

PARK & TILFORD.

LETTER OFFERING THE MS. OF A BOOK TO A PUBLISHER.

WILMINGTON, N. C., *April* 2, 1882.

MESSRS. PROVOST & CO.,

Publishers, Tremont St., Boston, Mass.:

GENTLEMEN—I have just written a society novel of the present day, and wish to have it put upon the market as soon as practicable. Please inform me if you are willing to publish it, and at what terms

This is my first novel, but under the name of "Daisy Dean" I have contributed quite a number of short stories to Frank Leslie's and other popular publications. I may mention that my style is what is termed "breezy;" that is, bright and crisp.

Awaiting an early reply, I am, gentlemen,

Very truly yours,

MRS. J. F. MURRAY.

REPLY.

292 TRENTON ST., BOSTON, MASS., *April* 4, 1882.

MRS. J. F. MURRAY:

DEAR MADAM—Having made all our arrangements for publications

for the year, we are compelled to decline the offer of your MS., and trust that you may be successful elsewhere.

We are, dear madam,

Your obedient servants,

PROVOST & Co.,
Per W. F.

LETTER PROPOSING TO SELL GOODS ON COMMISSION.

DRAKEVILLE, YOUNG Co., MD.,
January 28, 1882.

MESSRS. SHORT & STELT:

GENTLEMEN—I have been in business in this town for over twelve years, and refer to the National Bank, and to Mr. James E. Townsend, ex-Mayor and a prominent citizen. I see a good opening for increasing my sales, and am desirous of a supply of your goods to sell on commission. If required I will give you full security against any loss.

Should this proposition meet your views, please fill the accompanying order, and give me the benefit of your most favorable terms.

Respectfully,

JOHN RILEY.

REPLY.

BALTIMORE, *Feby.* 2, '82.

MR. JOHN RILEY—

DEAR SIR—We have to-day forwarded by Dodd's Express the goods ordered per your letter of the 28th *ult.*; the inquiries about you, as suggested by you, having proved most satisfactory. The commission is 10 per cent. The bill of sale accompanies each package.

Trusting that opening will lead to a long connection of mutual benefit,

We are yours respectfully,

SHORT & STELT.

REQUESTING THE SETTLEMENT OF AN ACCOUNT.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., *July* 30, 1882.

MR. T. W. INGRAM:

DEAR SIR—As we have a large payment to make at the end of next week, and as your account remains unsettled, we must beg of you to send us a check for same by Tuesday next. We are reluctant to press you, but we are pressed ourselves.

Very respectfully,

SMITH & BROWN.

REQUESTING PAYMENT OF RENT.

E. 29TH ST., NEW YORK,
March 27, 1882.

MR. PATRICK K. CHISELHURST:

DEAR SIR—I must call your attention to the fact that, although your agreement for the house rented by you from me stipulates monthly payments in advance, you have failed to pay for three months and are now in arrears $206.

If you fail to pay the account within six days I shall be reluctantly compelled to place the matter in the hands of my lawyer for collection.

Very respectfully,

THOMAS VOSBURG.

FROM A LADY IN THE COUNTRY ORDERING GOODS.

MAIDA VALE, TEWKESBURY Co., MASS.,
Jan. 18, 1882.

MESSRS. CALICE & TWIST,
Washington Street, Boston:

GENTLEMEN—Please send me by Dodd's Express the following goods:

12 yards of green gauze.
24 yards gingham.
2 pair of six-button gloves, lavender color, size 6¼, Dent's make.
6 pocket handkerchiefs, plain white, with broad hem-stitched border.

Also please send pattern of black satin of a good quality, price marked.

The goods must be sent to Warrington by rail, and to Mr. William Snipe, 240 State Street, who will pay C. O. D.

Direct as follows:

MRS. WILSON TOFT,
Warrington Station,
Tewkesbury Co., Mass.

FROM A FARMER IN IRELAND, PROPOSING TO EMIGRATE.

BALLINKILL, Co. MAYO,
August 1st, 1882.

To
MR. JOHN MURPHY,
Tippins Cove,
Burke County, Montana.

SIR—Pat Lynch, of Coolamore, tells me that you could give me all the information I want about that part of the county you are now in.

I have been farming about 60 acres for the last fifteen years, and have saved up £500.

I want to know what sort of a county you are in; climate, soil, water, and all that, and what I could get for my £500; also, if any inducements are held out to men of my class. I have a wife and seven children—4 boys and 3 girls. The boys, thanks be to God, are all able to take a hand at farm work.

Pat Lynch will answer for me.

Yours obediently,

MURTY JOYCE.

REPLY.

TIPPINS COVE,
BURKE CO., MONTANA.

To
MR. MURPHY JOYCE:

MY DEAR FRIEND—If Pat Lynch, my old friend, advised you to emigrate here he did well. I have been here now for five years, and no inducement would tempt me to leave it. For half of your £500 you can buy as many acres as you wish to farm, and our little settlement is growing so rapidly that in a short time your land will be worth double what you pay for it. Come to me straight, and stop with me, all of you, till your log hut is built.

The climate here is healthy and invigorating; the soil fine, and a little river of good water is close by, while the woods give us all the fuel we require. You can come to within fifty miles of me by rail, but I'll have horses and wagons at the station to take you and your family here. Let me hear full details of your starting, and give my warmest regards to Pat Lynch. I wish he was coming too with all my heart.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN MURPHY.

TO THE FATHER OF A YOUNG LADY, ASKING HER HAND IN MARRIAGE.

WASHINGTON AVENUE, BROOKLYN,
Mar. 12, '82.

SIR—I venture to hope that you will call all your friendly feelings to my assistance, in considering a proposal I am about to lay before you, in which my happiness is completely concerned.

For a long time past your daughter, Effie, has held a strong hold over my affections, and I have reason to believe that I am not indifferent to her. My position is such as to warrant my belief that I could support her in the style of comfort which she so well deserves, and which it has been your constant aim to provide for your children. As regards my character and disposition, I trust they are sufficiently well known to you to give you confidence in the prospect of your child's happiness.

I have not, however, ventured on any express declaration of my feelings, without first consulting you on the subject, as I feel persuaded that the straightforward course is always the best, and that a parent's sanction will never be wanting when the circumstances of the case justify its being accorded.

Anxiously awaiting the result of your consideration on this important and interesting subject,

I remain, sir.

Your most faithful and obedient servant,

EDWARD L. SPRING.

To
W. PARSONS, Esq.

FAVORABLE.

MEADOW BANK,
March 13, 1882.

MY DEAR EDWARD SPRING:

I thank you very much for the manly and honorable way in which you have addressed me in reference to my daughter's hand. I have long since perceived that your attentions to her were of a marked character, and that they appeared to give her much pleasure. I know no reason whatever to oppose your wishes, and, if I may judge from the manner in which she received the communication from myself, *you* will find a by no means unwilling listener.

Dine with us to-morrow at six o'clock, if you are not engaged, and you will then have an opportunity of pleading your own cause. Meanwhile, believe me, with every confidence in your integrity and good feeling,

Yours most sincerely,
WILLIAM PARSONS.

To
E. L. SPRING, Esq.

UNFAVORABLE.

MEADOW BANK,
March 13, 1882.

DEAR SIR:

It is always painful to return an unfavorable answer, but such is unfortunately my task on the present occasion.

My daughter has for a long time been engaged to a gentleman whose character and position give her no cause to regret the engagement. At the same time she duly appreciates the compliment implied by your preference, and unites with me in the sincere wish that, as an esteemed friend, you may meet with a companion in every way calculated to ensure your happiness.

Believe me, dear sir,
Your sincere friend,
WILLIAM PARSONS.

To
E. L. SPRING, Esq.

A GENTLEMAN, AFTER MEETING A LADY AT A PARTY, ASKING PERMISSION TO PAY HIS ADDRESSES.

18 W. 26TH ST., N. Y.,
July 27, 1882.

DEAR MISS WINSLOW:

I must crave your pardon for the somewhat bold address I am about to make, trusting that its apparent presumption may be excused by the consideration that my feelings are deeply enlisted in its success. The marked attentions paid you at Mrs. Burke's party could not, I flatter myself, have failed to attract your notice, nor have been wholly disagreeable to yourself. Cherishing this pleasing belief, I am encouraged to crave the privilege of being permitted to improve my acquaintance with a lady for whom I entertain so high an esteem.

The company in which we met will, I trust, be considered a sufficient guarantee of my character and position to warrant me in looking forward to an early renewal of the happy hours spent in your company. Your kind permission once granted, I shall lose no time in seeking, for my addresses, the sanction of your parents; but I do not feel at liberty to take such a step until well assured that it will be agreeable to your wishes.

May I entreat the favor of an early reply? which, dear Miss Winslow, will be anxiously awaited by

Your devoted admirer,
WILLIAM THROPCAKE.

TO A WIDOW FROM A WIDOWER.

120TH ST., NEW YORK, *Nov.* 19, 1882.

MY DEAR MADAM—I am emboldened to lay open to you the present state of my feelings, being so convinced of your good sense and amiable disposition, that I feel assured you will deal candidly with me in your reply.

Like yourself, I have been deprived of the partner of my earlier life, and, as I approach the middle state of existence, I feel more and more the want of some kindred spirit to share with me whatever years are reserved to me by Providence. My fortune is such as to enable me to support a lady in the manner which I feel to be due to your accomplishments and position, and I sincerely hope that you will think carefully over my proposal; and, if you can make up your mind to share my fortune and affections, I trust that no efforts will be wanting on my part to ensure you the happiness you so well deserve.

I need scarcely say that an early answer, on a matter so much connected with my future happiness, will be a great favor to,

My dear madam,
Your devoted friend and admirer,
ARTHUR BORSTOP.

To MRS. WADLOW.

A GENTLEMAN ASKING HIS BETROTHED TO NAME THE DAY.

2 ALLEN'S FORD,
ST. LOUIS, *July* 8, 1882.

MY OWN DARLING WIFE THAT IS TO BE:—

Let me implore of you to name the day that will make us one—that day which is to bring us together for all time. You blushed last night when I urged the question, and put me off with some pretty, but pitiful excuse. For once, darling, let *me* dictate and say Wednesday. Won't you, my precious pet?

Yours,
TED.

A YOUNG MAN IN COLORADO TO HIS BETROTHED IN NEW YORK.

LEADVILLE, *Dec.* 13, 18—.

DEAREST ELIZABETH—You have doubtless received letters from me lately, describing my situation here, and stating the projects that I had under consideration. In one of those letters, allusion is made to a speculation in land in the neighborhood of this place, with the remark that, if it were successful, I should be able to make good my promise, and claim you as the partner of my joys and sorrows for life. My most sanguine expectations have been more than realized.

Herewith you will receive a draft on the National Park Bank, in New York, for $500, of which I pray you to make use in providing such articles as may be necessary to replenish your wardrobe, in anticipation of our speedy marriage, after my return home. Pray present your dear mother with my affectionate regards, and say that I can never forget, now that I have the power, that it is my duty to assist and cherish her declining years. I also send some few trinkets, made of Leadville gold, which you will please present on my behalf to your sisters, as tokens of my brotherly regard; for such I now consider my relations toward them.

With my kindest respects to all, and trusting that I may soon be permitted to embrace my dearest, I remain

Her devoted
MARK TAPLEY.

COMPLAINTS OF A LADY'S COOLNESS.

CEDAR ST., PHILADELPHIA, *March* 1.

DEAR SUSAN—The change in your behavior toward me—from the kindness of an attached friend to the cool indifference of a distant acquaintance—indicates but too plainly that, by some means, I have had the misfortune to excite your displeasure; though how or when I cannot imagine. Recently, I have several times attempted to seek an explanation, but, in every instance, my courage failed me at the critical moment, and, as a last resort, intrusting to my pen the duty which my lips should have performed, I now write to you, to ask wherein I have offended. Whatever may be your reply, rest assured that my feelings toward yourself cannot be changed, and that your beloved image will ever be enshrined in the breast of

Your affectionate friend,
E. L. DWYER.

EXPLAINING AN APPARENT SLIGHT.

BOSTON, *March* 8, 1882.

DEAREST JULIA—How could you consider me capable of inflicting a slight upon yourself, in whom are centered all my hopes of happiness? Nothing more than ordinary courtesy was intended by my attentions to Miss Frith. That she was a comparative stranger to the Stanleys, induced me to pay her those attentions which have occasioned you so much annoyance, but which otherwise I would not have considered myself justified in tendering.

I regret from my soul that anything should have occurred to originate in your mind a doubt of my sincerity.

Your truly affectionate,

GEORGE ROGERS.

TO MISS JULIA TILGHMAN,
No. — N. Fifteenth St., Philadelphia.

ON RECEIVING A FAVORABLE REPLY TO A PROPOSAL.

NEWTON, N. Y., *March* 20, 1882.

DARLING ... .—Words cannot express my rapture on finding your note on my table last night. How delightful was it to find a letter—and *such* a letter!—from one whom I may now hope to hail as the companion of my whole future life! The weight taken off my mind by the candid and gentle confession of one whose love seemed too great a happiness to hope for is beyond description. To-morrow I shall hasten to the presence of her from whom I hope I may never henceforth be parted; but I could not retire to rest without making one feeble attempt to express my ecstasy at finding that hopes so flattering have not been in vain.

Believe me, darling,
Your devoted and happy

TOM.

COMPLAINING OF NOT RECEIVING A LETTER.

CLIFTON, *January* 7, 1882.

DEAR AGNES—Four days have passed without my receiving a letter from you, and I am in painful anxiety lest illness should be the cause. Pray write quickly, or I shall really feel inclined to quarrel with you as an idle girl; nay, I shall absolutely grow jealous, and fancy that some more favored suitor is undermining the affections of my dear girl.

But I have no fears. I too well know that your innate goodness of heart would prevent your trifling with the feelings of any one; so, hoping you will take this little scolding in good part, and relieve the offense by a very long letter as speedily as your dainty fingers can write, believe me,

Dear Agnes,
Your affectionate

ED.

ON A BIRTHDAY.

NEW LONDON, *June* 1, 1882.

MY DEAREST FANNIE—How sad it is that I am hindered from being with you on this dearest of all days of the year.

Accept, dearest, the enclosed portrait. I feel that its original is too deeply stamped on your heart to require any effigy to remind you of him. It is, however, the most appropriate present I could offer to the cause of my happiness on this brightest of all days.

God grant that every succeeding year may see you increase in all that is charming in body and mind, and believe me,

My dearest Fannie,
Your own

JOHN.

A COMPLAINT.

July 10, 1882.

DEAR MAUDIE:

It is with pain I write to you in aught that can seem like a strain of reproach, but I confess that your conduct last night both surprised and vexed me. You received Mr. Watson's attentions in so marked a way that I feel it due to yourself to comment on your conduct. Believe me, I am in no way given to idle jealousy; still less am I selfish or unmanly enough to wish to deprive any girl on whom I have so firmly fixed my affections of any pleasure to be obtained in good society. But my peace of mind would be lost forever, did I believe that I had lost one atom of your affection.

Pray write, and assure me that you still preserve your undivided affection for

Your devoted but grieved

FRED.

CONGRATULATING A FRIEND ON HIS MARRIAGE.

OMAHA, *August* 20, 18—.

MY DEAR TOM:

As you have entered the enviable state of wedlock, and are no longer the merry bachelor formerly the butt of my crude jests, I must address you in a tone of greater gravity than has been my custom. My dear friend, I sincerely congratulate you upon this desirable change; for in your choice of a partner you have given evidence of the possession of a sound judgment and much good taste. If my beneficent wishes were the only requisite to insure your happiness in the married state, you would never have occasion to regret the step you have recently taken; for there is no one whom I more ardently desire to see surrounded with all the blessings of this life.

Have the kindness to present my respectful compliments to Mrs. Armitage, and believe me ever to remain

Your sincere well-wisher and friend,

EDWARD KEOGH.

CONGRATULATING A GENTLEMAN UPON HIS MARRIAGE.

YANKTON, *June* 1, 1882

DEAR BILL

I have just received the welcome message that informs me of your new happiness. I hasten to offer you my most sincere congratulations and hearty good wishes. May every year of your married life find you happier than the last, and may Mrs. Chiffins find you as loyal a husband as you have been a friend.

From my inmost heart, dear Bill, I say, God bless you and your bride with His choicest blessings.

Ever your friend,

GEORGE MEYERS.

WILLIAM CHIFFINS, Esq.

CONGRATULATING A LADY UPON HER MARRIAGE.

K ST., WASHINGTON, D. C., *August* 3, 1882.

DEAR JOSIE:

Your cards have just reached me, and I write at once to try to express my heartfelt pleasure at your happy prospects. It is a great pleasure to your loving friends to be able to feel so much esteem and affection for the gentleman to whom you have confided your life's happiness, and to hope, as I do, that every year will unite your hearts more closely.

That heaven may bless you both, dear Josie, is the earnest prayer of

Your loving

JULIA ROBINSON

MRS. CLIFFORD DOYLE.

CONGRATULATING A FRIEND ON THE BIRTH OF A SON.

BATAVIA, N. Y., *July* 5, 1882.

MY DEAR JOE:

What luck! A son born on the great 4th. May he prove as good, as pure, and as honest a man and patriot as George Washington. What more can I say, old fellow, except to add that I earnestly trust that Mrs. Clithroe and George W. are doing well?

Yours, always sincerely,

A. D. HERVY.

JOSEPH CLITHROE, Esq.

CONGRATULATING A FRIEND ON THE BIRTH OF A DAUGHTER.

PEGASUS, WESTCHESTER CO., N. Y.,
April 10, '82.

DEAR MILLIE:

I congratulate you most heartily on your new acquaintance, and if "missy" only grows up like "mamma," the boys will be around pretty lively. I suppose your husband is two feet taller. Take great care of yourself and the wee little lady. I hope very soon to come round to congratulate you in person.

Your very sincere friend,

JAMES TODHUNTER.

Mrs. E. F. EVERLIGH.

SEEKING A CLERKSHIP.

TROY, *May* 4, 1882.

GENTLEMEN—Perceiving by your advertisement in the N. Y. *Herald* that you are in want of a clerk, I beg to inclose testimonials, and venture to hope that from my previous experience in the line of business you pursue I should be of some use in your establishment. My habits of life are such as to assure regularity in the discharge of my duties, and I can only assure you that, should you honor me with your confidence, I shall spare no pains to acquit myself to your satisfaction.

I remain, gentlemen,

Your obedient servant,

HARRY SANDERSON.

To Messrs. GRIFFITHS & Co.

APPLICATION FOR SUBSCRIPTION TO A CHARITY.

MIDGEVILLE, TENN., *October* 8, 1882.

SIR [or MADAM]:—I take the liberty of inclosing a prospectus of an institution which is likely to have a most beneficial effect upon the poor in our neighborhood. [*Here state particulars.*] From your well-known liberality, I trust you will excuse this appeal from a stranger in furtherance of an act of benevolence, and remain,

Sir [or Madam],

Your most obedient servant,

JULIA [or JOHN] SMITH.

DECLINING.

30 WEST 27TH ST., NEW YORK,
29th *October*, 1882.

Mr. Thomas Jones regrets exceedingly that the numerous applications for kindred purposes near home render it impossible for him to comply with the request contained in Mr. [or Mrs.] ——'s letter of the 18th October.

A FRIEND IN THE COUNTRY ASKING A CITY FRIEND ABOUT BOARD.

ERIE, PA., *August* 14, '82.

DEAR WILLIAM—In a few days I will have occasion to visit New York, and, being a comparative stranger, I wish to be as near the business center as possible, though located in a private boarding-house, as I have a strong aversion to hotel life. My object in writing is to ask you to recommend me to some private boarding-house, and to engage rooms in advance of my arrival, so that I may proceed thither at once on landing from the cars. Leaving the selection entirely to yourself, and hoping to hear from you soon, I remain

Yours faithfully,

ISAAC JENKINS.

APPLICATION FOR A LOAN.

STATE ST., CHICAGO, *July* 27, '82.

DEAR SIR—I am temporarily embarrassed through the failure of my New York correspondent to remit. The sum of $2,000 would relieve my present necessities, but I dislike borrowing money of professional lenders, and would rather solicit the aid of some one of my numerous friends. My first thought was of yourself; and, therefore, my object in writing is to ask if you can spare me the required sum without in any way interfering with your business arrangements? You may rely upon having it returned to you on the 15th prox., and perhaps before that time. Pray reply at your earliest convenience, and oblige

Your obedient servant,

GEORGE WHITE

To PHILIP DUKE, ESQ.

REPLY IN THE AFFIRMATIVE.

GROVE ST., CINCINNATI, *July* 30, '82.

DEAR SIR—Your letter of yesterday was duly received, and it gratifies me to be able to say that you can have the loan asked for. Inclosed you will find a check for the amount, which you will return at the date named and oblige,

Yours, very sincerely,

P. DUKE.

To GEO. WHITE, ESQ.

DECLINING TO LEND MONEY.

BOSTON, *April* 8th, 1882.

MY DEAR SIR—I have always made it a principle in life never to borrow or lend money, not even when members of my own family have been concerned. As Shakespeare says:

"Neither a borrower nor a lender be,
For loan oft loses both itself and friend."

I therefore trust you will excuse conduct which may seem harsh and uncourteous on my part, but which I have ever found to be the safest, and, in the long run, the kindest course for all parties.

I remain, my dear sir,

Yours very faithfully,

JOSEPH JOHNSON.

To HOWARD WELLS, ESQ.

SOLICITING RENEWAL OF A PROMISSORY NOTE.

ARK ST., MOBILE, *May* 7, '82

GENTLEMEN—You have in your possession my note for $1,000, payable May 14, which I am sorry to say I cannot meet at maturity, owing to a combination of circumstances adverse to my interests, and not anticipated. If you will do me the favor to renew it for ninety days, with interest added, I do not doubt my ability to redeem it when due. A compliance with this request will confer an obligation upon, and oblige,

Your obedient servant,

THOMAS MORAN.

To MESSRS. SADLIER & Co.,
30 William St., N. Y.

TO A FIRM, WITH AN INSTALLMENT.

DEAN ST., SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.,
May 20, 1882.

GENTLEMEN—Inclosed please find $500, in notes of San Francisco banks, which I will thank you to place to my credit, as the first installment upon my bill, now overdue nearly two months. The balance will be remitted during the second week in June, if not before that time. I regret the inconvenience caused you by my delay, which is a result of our system of long credits, and entirely beyond my power to control.

I remain, gentlemen,

Your obliged and faithful servant,

WILLIAM DEMPSEY.

MESSRS. HATCH, WIGHT & Co.,
333 Broadway, New York.

OFFERING A LOAN OF MONEY FOR BUSINESS PURPOSES.

ELIZABETH, N. J., *Dec.* 15, '82.

DEAR ROBERT—Knowing that you are desirous of starting in business for yourself, I write to say that it is in my power to offer you a loan of two thousand dollars ($2,000) without interfering in any way with my

own business or expenditures. I trust that you will let me have a friend's privilege, and accept the money on such terms as will best suit you.

With best wishes for your success,

I am your friend,

AUSTIN KEEP.

ROBERT ROWE, Esq.

Letters of condolence, though a necessity between friends, are very difficult to compose, since the more earnestly and touchingly they are written, the more deeply will they probe the wounds still bleeding under the stab of affliction. The shorter such letters are, the better. Let them be short and sincere, and always wind up with a hope that Providence will assuage the grief with which it has pleased Him in His far-seeing wisdom to afflict your friend.

ON THE DEATH OF A HUSBAND.

FORDHAM, N. Y., *Nov.* 29, 1882.

MY DEAR MRS. MANNING:

Words fail to convey my feelings of sorrow on receipt of the intelligence of the death of my old and esteemed friend, your late husband. My own grief at the loss of a true friend teaches me how crushing must be your affliction. May the Almighty in his goodness console you in this dark hour of your tribulation.

Believe me always your true and sincere friend,

JOSEPH BUTLER.

ON THE DEATH OF A WIFE.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., *November* 8, 1882.

MY DEAR GEORGE

I know how futile it is to address words, idle words, to you in this moment of supreme anguish, with which it has pleased God to visit you, and shall not say more than that the loss of your pure, good, and beautiful wife is a source of deep sorrow to the numerous friends who had the privilege of knowing her, and to none more than

Yours, in deep sympathy and affection,

TERRENCE BARKER.

ON THE DEATH OF A SON.

NORWALK, CONN., *June* 3, 1882.

MY DEAR JULIA:

If God has plucked the bright blossom from your home it is for a purpose none of us dare divine. He alone can pour balm upon your crushed heart. The holy joy is yours of knowing that angel eyes now watch for your coming, and that your beautiful boy will receive you when "life's dark day is done."

If the tenderest or much-loving sympathy could soothe you, dear Julia, learn that you have it from your

Friend,

LAURA.

ON THE DEATH OF A MOTHER.

TEWKESBURY, MASS., *Nov.* 8, 1882.

MY DEAR CHARLES:

You have lost your mother. There is a very wail in the words. She may never be replaced. The dear good lady has passed away to a better land, cheered by the knowledge of your love and affectionate tenderness, consoled by the thought that her teaching, when you were a little boy at her knee, has not been in vain, and that she leaves behind her for a little while a son who treads the path of rectitude and of honor. Dear Charles, ever remember that your darling mother watches you from on high and as she was devoted to you in life, so is she devoted to you in death.

God sustain you under this heavy affliction.

Your true friend,

JOHN TRAVER.

REPLIES TO ADVERTISEMENTS.

In replying to advertisements never omit to mention the name of the paper in which the advertisement appeared, also its date, and a brief allusion to the matter in the advertisement.

Be as concise as possible, covering the ground in a few well chosen sentences.

BOOKKEEPER.

28 WASHINGTON ST., BOSTON, MASS., *October* 20, 1882.

TO MESSRS. WINSOLE, BIRD & CO.:

GENTLEMEN—In reply to your advertisement in this day's *Transcript* for a competent bookkeeper, I respectfully beg to offer myself as candidate for that position. I have been in the employment of Mr. Thomas Lepy, 19 Tremont Street, in this city, the large dry-goods store—in the capacity of bookkeeper for the last three years, and am about to leave on the 1st *proximo*, as Mr. Lepy is about to retire from business.

Mr. Lepy has authorized me to refer to him in reference to character and ability. I can also refer to Messrs. Bose & Pickwick, 17 Remsen Street, with whom I clerked for a year and a half.

Hoping to be fortunate enough to suit your requirements,

I am, gentlemen,

Respectfully,

JOSEPH SUTCLIFF.

GENERAL EMPLOYMENT.

NEWBURG, *11th Sept.*, '82.

SIR—I hasten to reply to your advertisement in the N.Y. *Sun* of to-day. I am most desirous of obtaining employment, and would not consider present emolument so much an object as the prospect of a permanent and respectable situation.

I am a young man (age 21), and single. I have received a good commercial education, and am versed in bookkeeping and accounts generally. In other respects I am willing to render myself generally useful, and, although I have not hitherto filled a situation, I doubt not but that in a short time I shall be able to fulfill any duties assigned to me.

In the event of your doing me the honor to select me for the proffered employment, I could furnish you with satisfactory testimonials as to character, and could, if necessary, provide guarantees for fidelity.

Trusting that I may have the honor of hearing from you in reply,

I remain, sir,

Your obedient servant,

JOSEPH L'ESTRANGE.

To

W. HENRY CULLINAN,

27 Wand St., N. Y.

FROM A YOUNG MAN TO A FRIEND SOLICITING A SITUATION.

MOHAWK, *March* 28, 1882.

DEAR EDWARD:

When you left Galveston, you were kind enough to promise that should it be in your power to forward my interest in any manner you would feel a pleasure in so doing. I am now in want of a position, my former employer having sold his business, and his successor having, as he informs me, a sufficient number of hands for all the work he is likely to have. If, therefore, you should hear of any situation or employment which you consider likely to suit me, either in my own business, that of a clerk, or in any other in which I can make myself useful, your recommendation would greatly oblige, and be of material service to,

Dear Edward,

Yours very truly,

JOHN JAMES.

ASKING PERMISSION TO REFER TO A PERSON.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., *July* 7, '82.

DEAR SIR:

As I have had the honor of being known to you for some years, due

ing which period I trust my conduct has impressed you favorably, I take the liberty of soliciting at your hand the following favor:

Messrs. Sebthorp, of Beaver Street, New York, are in want of a correspondent at London, and as I am about to proceed there on some affairs of my own, and shall probably take up my residence in that capital for some years, I am anxious to secure a post which appears to me in every way eligible, and accords with my views exactly.

As a matter of course, Messrs. Sebthorp desire testimonials as to my capacity and integrity, and as you are in a position to speak positively on these points, I have written to ask you whether I may so far trespass on your kindness as to mention your name by way of reference.

Should you kindly grant this request, I need scarcely assure you that my endeavor will be to prove both to Messrs. Sebthorp and yourself that you have not been mistaken in your opinion of me, while I shall ever feel grateful for this further instance of the interest evinced by you in the welfare of

Your truly obliged,
WALTER MOTT.

To
Mr. GEORGE FOUKE,
7th St., Cincinnati, O.

CLERK.

29 GROVE ST., ST. LOUIS, MO.,
November 16, 1882.

MR. ISAAC WATERS:

SIR—I see by this day's *Chronicle* that you are in want of a competent Clerk, and I respectfully beg to apply for the position. Owing to the financial difficulties of my late employers, Messrs. Kendrick & Warts, with whom I was Clerk for eight years, I am out of employment. I can refer to either of these gentlemen for a testimonial as to my industry, good conduct and ability. I may add that I am a teetotaler.

Hoping to receive a favorable reply,

I am,
Respectfully,
RUDOLPH MEYER.

COOK.

100 WEST 28th ST., NEW YORK,
March 18, 1882.

MRS. WILLIAM HOWARD:

RESPECTED MADAM—Having seen your advertisement for a plain Cook in this day's *Herald*, I respectfully apply for the place.

I can cook plain joints and do all manner of plain cooking, as my present employer, Mrs. James Posnett, is willing to testify. As Mrs Posnett is going to Europe on the 1st of April, I will be out of place on that day. A line to Mrs. Posnett will satisfy all inquiries in regard to my character and capacity.

Respectfully,
JANE MATTHEWS.

GOVERNESS.

19 BLEECKER ST., BOSTON,
July 27, '82.

MRS. E. F. SLOCUM:

MADAM—In reply to your advertisement in to-day's *Courier* for a Governess to teach three little girls French, German and English, I hasten to inform you that I am graduate of Vassar Class '80; that I have resided one year in Paris and five months in Vienna, sojourning in both capitals for the purpose of completing my knowledge of French and German.

I have been Governess in the family of Mr. George F. Witmore, but owing to the death of my dear little pupil, their only daughter, Ada, I have been thrown out of employment. In addition to my College and Academy testimonials, I beg to refer to Mrs. Witmore, Holly Park, Brookline, and to the Rev. Mr. Brooks, St. Matthew's Church.

Hoping to be favored by your selection,

I am, madam,
Yours respectfully,
MIRIAM J. PACKARD.

A FEW LINES ACCOMPANYING A GIFT.

A WEDDING GIFT.

200 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK,
18th April.

Nelly Suter sends her best love, and best wishes, to Susie Lorimer, and a little bracelet as a souvenir of an event that Nelly trusts will ever prove as happy and auspicious as she wishes it to be.

CHRISTENING GIFT.

HEATH HOUSE,
June 18, '82.

God-papa sends little Mamie a coral; to enable her to cut her teeth, but not the acquaintance of

JOSEPH CHAMBERS.

FLOWERS.

15 MADISON AVENUE,
19 *July.*

Roses become Miss Irwin so much, that Mr. Harnett earnestly hopes to see the accompanying bunch in Miss Irwin's corsage this evening at Wallack's.

MUSIC.

13 CHESTNUT ST. PHILADELPHIA,
28*th November*, '82.

Mr. John St. Ruth presents his compliments to Miss Delamore and begs to send her a few selections from the operas, her singing last night at Mr. Hamlyn's having reminded him of the most celebrated *prima donnas.*

EUROPEAN ETIQUETTE IN ADDRESSING LETTERS.

LETTERS TO THE QUEEN; TO THE PRINCE AND PRINCESS OF WALES, TO RELATIVES OF THE QUEEN; TO DUKES, DUCHESSES, MARQUISES; EARLS, COUNTESSES, ETC., ETC.; TO JUDGES; MEMBERS OF THE PRIVY COUNCIL, CLERGYMEN, ETC.

Letters for her Majesty the Queen are sent under cover, either to the Prime Minister, or to whomsoever has charge for the time being of her Majesty's private correspondence. The inclosure is directed "To her Majesty the Queen." Official communications are ordinarily addressed, "To the Queen's most excellent Majesty." Letters to the Queen should be commenced, "Madam," or "Most gracious Sovereign," or "May it please your Majesty," according to the nature of the communication; and should be concluded, "I have the honor to remain, with the profoundest respect, madam, your Majesty's most faithful and dutiful subject."

Letters for the Prince and Princess of Wales should be sent under cover to Lieut.-Col. Knollys, and the inclosure directed to "His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales," or, "Her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales."

The sons and daughters, brothers and sisters, and uncles and aunts of the Queen, are all addressed as "Royal Highness," but her Majesty's nephews

and cousins are addressed simply as "Your Highness."

Letters to members of the Royal Family should begin, "Sir," or "Madam," and end, "I have the honor to remain, sir (or madam), your Royal Highness's most dutiful and most obedient servant."

A letter to a Duke or Duchess, not members of the Royal Family, should be addressed, "To His Grace, the Duke of ——;" "To Her Grace, the Duchess of ——." It should begin with "My Lord Duke;" but a duchess, in common with all other ladies, from the Queen downwards, is addressed as "Madam."

In writing to a marquis, address the letter, "To the Most Hon. the Marquis of ——;" and to a marchioness, "To the Most Hon. the Marchioness of ——." Begin, "My Lord Marquis."

In writing to an earl or countess, address, "To the Right Hon. the Earl (or Countess) of ——." Begin letters to earls, viscounts, or barons, with "My Lord." A letter to a viscount or viscountess should be addressed, "To the Right Hon. the Viscount (or Lady Viscountess) ——." A letter to a baron should be addressed, "To the Right Hon."

The younger sons of earls, and all the sons of viscounts and barons, are addressed, "The Hon. ——, Esquire;" and the daughters, and sons' wives, "The Hon. Mrs. ——, or Miss ——." Letters should begin, "Sir," or "Madam."

In addressing embassadors, begin, "My Lord," and use the title "Your Excellency" throughout, wherever the pronoun "you" would ordinarily be used. The same title is used in addressing the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and the Governor of Western Australia. The Governor-General of Canada and the Governor of Dover Castle are addressed as "Right Honorable."

A letter to a baronet is addressed to "Sir William ——, Bart.;" one to a knight, "Sir William ——." Begin letters to baronets, knights, or their wives, "Sir," or "Madam," except, of course, in cases where acquaintanceship exists, when formality ceases, and letters are begun, "Dear Sir William ——;" "Dear Lady ——."

Though the word "Esquire" means, in these days, little or nothing, yet it is considered more polite, when addressing persons of position, to write the word in full. In addressing a French gentleman, also, it is impolite to use the initial of "Monsieur" only. The word must be written in full, and it is very frequently written twice, thus:

"À Monsieur.

"Monsieur ——."

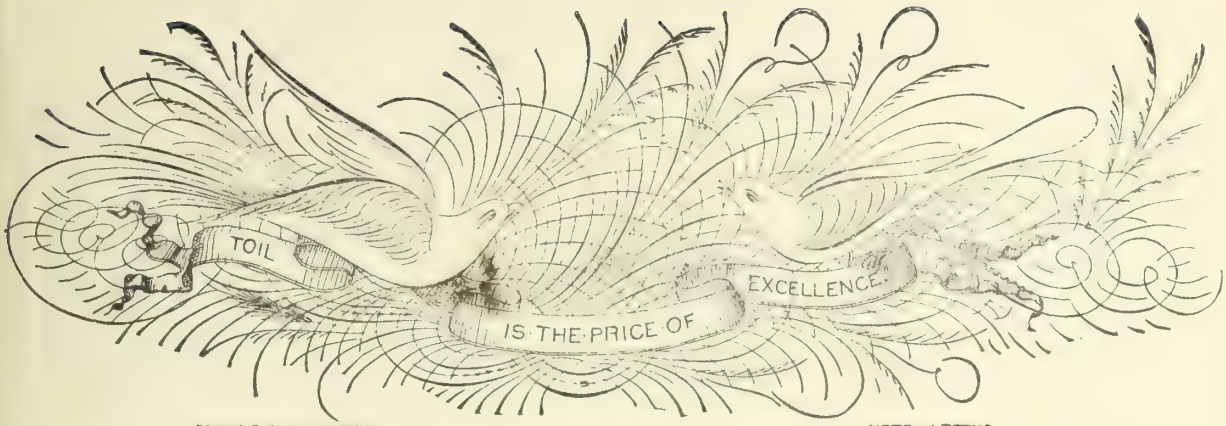
Judges are addressed as "Right Honorable." In addressing a consul, write, "To A. B., Esq., Consul to Her Britannic Majesty, at ——."

In directing a letter to any member of the Privy Council, prefix "Right Hon." to the name, and add after it the title of the office held. Observe the same rules in addressing members of the Royal Household. Letters or addresses to the House of Peers as a body are addressed, "To the Right Hon. the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament assembled;" and to the House of Commons, "To the Honorable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

The Speaker of the House is addressed as "The Right Hon. ——, Esquire, Speaker of the House of Commons." Individual members, who have no title, are addressed by their Christian and surname, followed by "Esq., M.P.," except, of course, in those cases where they have a title.

When clergymen have titles, these should be inserted after the word Rev., in addressing a letter. The following are the forms for addressing our Church dignitaries: "To His Grace the Archbishop of ——." "To the Right Rev. the Bishop of ——." "The Rev. John Smith, D.D." "The Very Rev. the Dean of ——." "The Very Rev. John Smith, D.D., Dean of ——." "The Ven. Archdeacon ——." Rectors and curates are addressed as "The Rev. John Smith;" "The Rev. William Jones."

Holders of the higher appointments in the Army and Navy are addressed as follows: "To Lieut.-General the Duke of ——, K.C.B., Commander-in-Chief of Her Majesty's Forces," etc. "To Field-Marshal the Viscount ——, K.G., Master-General of the Ordnance," etc. "To the Right Hon. Lord ——, Commander of Her Majesty's Forces," etc. "To Colonel the Hon. A. ——." "To Sir —— ——, K.C.B., Admiral and Commander of the Channel Fleet," etc. "To Sir —— ——, Captain of Her Majesty's ship *Black Prince*." In addressing majors, captains, or lieutenants, add the names of the regiments to which they belong. In the Navy, address, "Lieutenant Brown, R.N., on board H.M.S. *Resistance*." "Mr. Smith, Midshipman of H.M.S. *Devastation*."



NOTE OF INVITATION.

Mr. W. H. Hamilton presents his respects to Miss Minnie Moore and begs that he may be allowed to wait on her to-morrow evening to the Italian Opera.

Temple Place, Nov. 26th

NOTE IN REPLY.

Miss Minnie Moore presents her compliments to Mr. [illegible] and regrets that a previous engagement prevents the acceptance of his kind invitation for this evening.

248 Fifth Ave, Nov. 27th

Elmira, N.Y. June 12. 1882

Dear Sir.

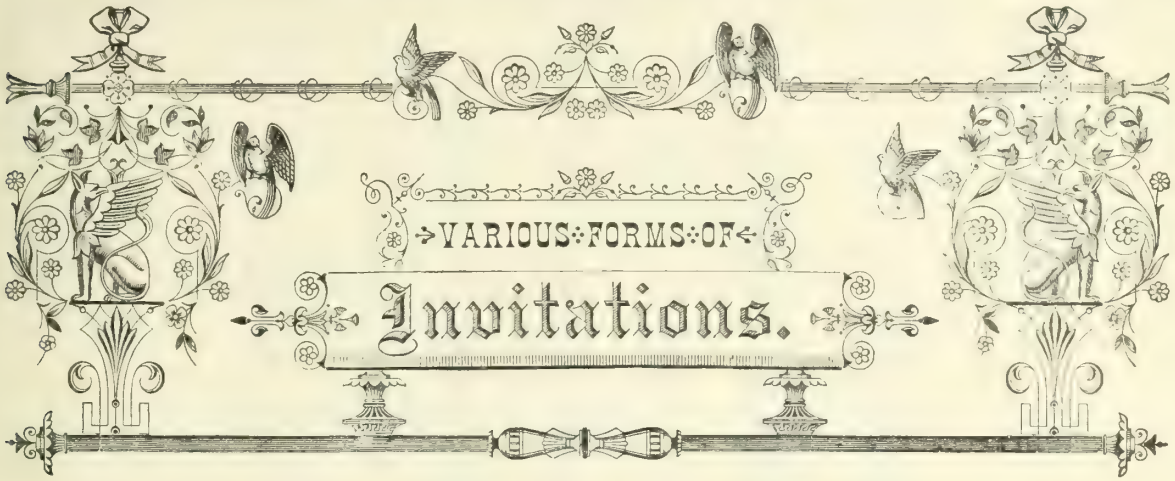
Allow me to introduce to you my friend Mr. William H. Compton who visits New York for educational purposes in connection with his position as Superintendent of our Public Instruction in this City.

Any favor you may show him will be highly appreciated by him and

Yours very truly

Samuel G. Williams.

John M. Hudson
392 Broadway, New York



Mr. and Mrs. Henry A. Bogert

At Home

Saturday, November 5th, from

3 to 6 o'clock, P. M.

Wednesdays,
Nov. 16th and 30th,
Dec. 14th and 28th.
} *from 8 to 11 P.M.*

Flushing.

Mr. and Mrs. James Parker

request the pleasure of your company at "The Castle," Perth Amboy, N. J., on Thursday, November 15th, 1882, at 8 P. M., to celebrate the 25th Anniversary of their marriage and his 50th Birthday. Also to meet Mr. and Mrs. James Parker, Jr.

POLITICAL.

Mr. Chas. Pratt

requests the pleasure of your company at No. 232 Clinton Avenue, on Thursday evening, March 10th, at 9.30 o'clock, to meet

Hon. Seth Low

immediately after his address at the Adelphi Academy.

In Memoriam.

Arthur G. Coler,

Died June 15th, 1880,

At Springfield, Ill.,

Aged 15 Years and 5 Months.

Brooklyn, June 26th, 1880.

Mr. & Mrs. Henry M. Alexander
request the honour of your presence
on
Tuesday evening, November fifteenth,
from eight until eleven o'clock,
to meet the
Rev. Professor Patton
of
Princeton Theological Seminary.
16 West 25th St.

R. S. V. P.

The Officers
of the
Naval Station, New York,
request the pleasure of your company
at a
Farewell Reception
given to
Admiral & Mrs. Cooper,
on Tuesday, March 21st, 1882,
from 2 to 5 P. M.
Navy Yard, Brooklyn.

Dancing.

1877. 1880.

Woolen Wedding.

Mr. & Mrs. Jacob Flint

At Home

Thursday evening, Dec. 30, 1882,

at half past eight o'clock.

232 East_____ St.

The Dancing Class

request the pleasure of your company

Wednesday evening _____ 18__

at Eight o'clock, at the residence of

Mr. _____

Compliments of _____

R. S. V. P.

Mrs. E. D. Phyfe

requests the pleasure of your company

Monday evening, February twelfth,

at eight o'clock

Masquerade

155 East 36th St

R. S. V. P.

Mrs. Charles A. Talbott

Saenger Hall,

Wednesday evening, February second,

half past eight o'clock

German

26 W._____St

Mr. & Mrs. Wm. H. Bonnett
request the pleasure of your company
at the marriage of their daughter
Louise Earle
to
Henry Whitney Bates,
on Thursday, June first,
at half past three o'clock, P. M.,
from the residence of her uncle,
S. S. Marvin, Esq.,
Emsworth, Pennsylvania.
1882.

Your presence is requested at the
marriage ceremony of
Miss Anna Ward Crawford
and
Mr. George De Witt Thornton,
Wednesday afternoon,
October twelfth, at half past three
o'clock,
St. Paul's Church,
Norwalk, Conn.
1881.
18 West..... St.



A SPEECH should be *short* and to the *point*. Remember that brevity is the soul of—a speech. A long speech, unless the speaker be exceptionally eloquent, or the occasion exceptionally mandatory, is one of the greatest of possible inflictions. Some men love to hear themselves talk, and, quite oblivious of the feelings of their listeners, continue to drone out labored sentences and weary platitudes until politely coughed or buzzed down. These men ought to be indicted as nuisances.

The specimen speeches which we present in this Cyclopædia, are merely meant to act as guides. They show the form of speech most popular, and give the length that is likely to be received with approval. Of course there are occasions when a long speech is absolutely necessary. The toasts and sentiments embrace all subjects, and are suited to occasions of a festive character.

A PUBLIC OFFICER, ON RETIRING, IS PRESENTED WITH A SOUVENIR.

SIR—Your friends—and their name is legion—cannot permit you to retire into private life without a direct expression of their esteem and regard. I am desired on their part to present you with the accompanying .. .... as a very slight token indeed of their appreciation of so admirable an officer, so good a citizen, and so perfect a gentleman.

REPLY.

SIR—To have won your approval, and that of the friends you so kindly represent, is indeed sweeter to me than anything else that life, with all its prizes, could offer. I am bold enough to say that I have endeavored to win the good-will of my fellow-citizens of all grades and classes, but I am modest enough to assure you this gracious, superb, and totally unexpected offering so completely affects me, as to leave me poor in speech, but rich in thankfulness and gratitude. My children and children's children shall treasure this souvenir, as the prize won in the big fight by at least the honest efforts of their sire.

THE LADIES.

Where is the man who, upon one occasion or another, has not been called upon to respond to the toast of "The Ladies?" The following will enable the bashful youth to train his ideas in regard to the subject, and to prepare him with a reply when the mine shall have been sprung upon him. A ready response to this most popular of all toasts is as necessary as it is graceful and manly; so let there be no hemming or hawing, no hesitations, stutterings or stammerings, but start to your feet at once and dash into the subject as though you were enchanted at the privilege

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN

The high, the glorious privilege has been accorded me of replying to the toast of "The Ladies." You could not have selected a better man. Impossible! This you will say is rather cheeky of me; but when I tel you that there breathes not a man who reveres, loves, and adores the sex so much as I do, I ask you in all honesty could the chance of replying to the toast have fallen upon more deserving shoulders? The ladies, God bless them! what would we do without them—that nearer, clearer, dearer heaven of stars! In their smiles lie our sunshine, in their tears our anguish, in their beauty our heartaches. To the ladies we owe all the refining influences of our lives. They are the bright flowers by the wayside, the quite too too tenderly utter beings, who make, mar, and marry us.

Then here, gentlemen, is my response to the toast of The Ladies. May they ever shine like stars in our firmament, never cease to captivate us, and, when we deserve it, of rewarding us. The ladies, God bless them!

ANOTHER REPLY.

The toast to which I have the honor of responding is one that awakes in the manly heart the latent chivalry of manhood. The toast of The Ladies embraces womanhood, the mother, the wife, the daughter, the sister, and if you will, gentlemen, the cousins and the aunts. Sir Walter Scott has beautifully written:

> "O woman! in our hours of ease,
> Uncertain, coy, and hard to please,
> And variable as the shade
> By the light quivering aspen made;
> When pain and anguish rack the brow,
> A ministering angel thou!"

What an admirable delineation of woman's character! In our hours of ease, on the stoop, or by the stove, there is no doubt of it, gentlemen, that she *is* uncertain, extremely coy, and infernally hard to please—I mean at times—while as for her variability, she is as whirly-giggy as a weather-cock on a windy March morning. But here is the other side of the shield, the silver one. Have any of you ever been ill? Have any of you ever been smitten to the earth by grief or misfortune? I hope not; but if such has been your bitter experience, turn back on your memories for the tender sympathy, the unfailing devotion, the ceaseless graciousness of woman. Gentlemen, this is a theme upon which, like the brook, I could "run on for ever;" yet, delightful as it is, time

flies, and perhaps the time that I am spending in reply to the toast of The Ladies, could be far better spent in their company. Gentlemen, I return you my most heartfelt thanks for being called upon by you to reply to such an important and gracious toast.

PRESENTATION OF A PIECE OF PLATE TO A PUBLIC OFFICIAL.

Sir—It affords me intense pleasure to represent a committee, who in turn represent your numerous friends and admirers, and on their behalf to present you with this .... as a very slight token of their appreciation of the admirable and praiseworthy manner in which you have discharged the onerous and responsible duties appertaining to your position. Your high character, integrity, and zeal have not only won the esteem and confidence of your friends, and of those brought into immediate contact with you, but have radiated far and wide, so that you have reached the position—one that is not only a credit to yourself but to the country at large.

That you may long continue in the service which you so admirably adorn is the wish of the many to whom your virtues are as household words. With this souvenir let me, on the part of those whom I represent, wish you health, happiness, and prosperity.

REPLY.

Mr. —— and Gentlemen:

I need hardly say with what gratitude I accept this splendid gift—a gift which is dearer to me than all the "gold of Ind," since it comes from a set of friends whose endorsement on a bad bill no amount of treasure could purchase.

Gentlemen, my aim in life has been to do what is right, to labor with earnestness, to win on the merits. My efforts have been crowned with success, and in this superb souvenir I recognize my crown of victory.

Gentlemen, your too flattering recognition will but serve as a greater impetus to exertion, and, rest assured that no effort on my part shall be wanting to repay in the fullest measure of my capacity the compliment it has pleased you this day to bestow upon me.

PRESENTATION TO A TEACHER BY THE YOUNG LADY PUPILS.

Dear Teacher:

It devolves upon me to offer you, in the name of the young ladies of this school, a slight token of our esteem and regard. To myself it is a source of immense pleasure to be made their mouthpiece on this occasion, since my sincere delight may make some amends for my many shortcomings. I am not now addressing you as our teacher, but as our friend, our dear, trusted, and very much tried friend; for how often have we not tried your temper and your forbearance! Dear Teacher, we will ever keep your image enshrined in our hearts, and shall look back to the school, not as an abode of penance, but rather of pleasure, since your kindness and your amiability have so rendered it—our studies having been illuminated by your patient graciousness. The little gift we offer you is of no intrinsic value, but it is rich in love, and gratitude, and respect. Please accept it, and with it our united hopes that your life will ever be as happy as you have made ours.

REPLY.

My Dear Pupils:

I find that my heart is so anxious to speak that it has almost paralyzed my lips. Yes, it is indeed my heart that returns thanks to yours, for I know how pure, gentle, generous, strong, and true your hearts are, and my heart says to yours, "Oh, how deeply grateful I am for this tender mark of your affection!" My dear pupils, if you have been a little inclined to—what shall I call it? not idleness—no, no—well, a word from me ever brought you back from the plucking of the flowers of fancy, and a rebuke was but a reminder that you should tread the path of study for yet a little while. My life has been rendered doubly pleasant in the sunshine of your youth, and that I shall hold a place in your esteem and affection is indeed a delightful reward. That I thank you for your gift it is needless to say. Ah! would that one spark of eloquence of some of the masters over whom we have studied together were given to me now, to let you know what I feel on this occasion, which shall ever be remembered as one of the brightest resting-places in my journey through life.

A BACHELOR.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

It seems rather hard that I, an unfortunate bachelor, should be singled out to reply to this toast. Surely the misfortune of being unable to meet a fair one to share my lot ought to have won your sympathy, and to have left me unnoticed save by what the poets are pleased to term the "passing tribute of a sigh."

Ladies, it is no fault of mine that I am unmated. I detest, abhor, loathe bachelorhood—would that I could find stronger terms of detestation—and if Fate, Kismet, Destiny, call it what you will, were to place some charming blushing maiden, such as I see around this board tonight, in my path, I would consider myself the most blessed of human mortals. What more contemptible being than the old bachelor! who so lonely, who so uncared for, who so infamously selfish! Of course ladies, I allude to those cravens who have feared to risk their fate on that sweet small word "Yes." I must myself confess to a certain cowardice, and, with Sir Walter Raleigh, exclaim, "Fain would I climb but that I fear to fall." Oh, if some fair lady would but say, "If thy heart fail thee do not climb at all!" That I live in hope, white blossomed Hope, I do not deny, and whatever be my fate now, in the presence of such charming and beautiful witnesses, I denounce bachelorhood and despise the bachelor.

THE HOST.

Gentlemen:

Fill your glasses till the beaded bubbles at the brim topple over. This is a toast that to honor is a sacred duty. I give you the health of our host—God bless him!

REPLY.

Gentlemen:

I thank you most heartily for the manner in which you have drank the toast of my health. I assure you from my heart that I never feel so happy as when I see myself surrounded by my friends, and to behold one's friends enjoying themselves is a sight fit for the gods.

In the battle of life, which we are all compelled to fight, it becomes necessary to halt occasionally, stop by the wayside, and refresh. This brief snatching of pleasure at its best, makes us all feel that there is something worth living for, and that life without friends would indeed be but a dismal blank. I again thank you for your gracious good fellowship, and promise you that no effort shall be wanting on my part to enable you to propose the same toast, under the same circumstances, again, again, and yet again.

A DISTINGUISHED GUEST.

Gentlemen:

A duty, and a most pleasant one, devolves upon me of proposing the health of a very distinguished gentleman who has honored us with his presence this evening. Mr. —— has done us the very great favor of joining our circle, and we feel the most intense pleasure in doing honor to a citizen who has so justly elevated himself in the opinions and good wishes of his fellow-countrymen. Were Mr. —— absent I could talk about him for "a long hour by Shrewsbury clock," but as he is present I will endeavor to spare his blushes, and come at once to the drinking of his health in a bumper. Gentlemen, long life, prosperity and happiness to our distinguished guest, Mr. ——. Three times three and a tiger! Take the time from me! Hip, etc.

REPLY.

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen:

Our worthy host intimated that he wished to spare my blushes. Now it is so long since I blushed, that I forget the sensation, but I declare that I could find this no occasion to blush, save for very pleasure, since to be thus introduced and thus toasted is indeed an occasion so pleasurable to me, that it shall ever remain impressed on the tablets of both my memory and my heart.

It is indeed a source of intense gratification to me to find that my little efforts, so far as they have gone, are appreciated, and by gentlemen such as I see around this board. True it is that I have done but little; but, gentlemen, I assure you my object is to do a great deal, and failing in that, I have but done my share. If, however, I am to do my share in this evening's bout, I am extremely grateful to our respected

chairman for giving me an opportunity of speaking so *early* in the evening, as later on—well, least said soonest mended.

WEDDING-DAY ANNIVERSARY.

This is indeed an occasion where a speech is utterly unnecessary, for the fact of our being here speaks so eloquently, that the words even of a Demosthenes or a Cicero would fall flat, stale, and unprofitable.

Ladies and gentlemen, just cast a glance at that happy man, out host, and that beautiful lady, our hostess. See the "heavenly assenting smile" that speaks of the tenderest devotion, of a happiness those who wed whom they love, alone can know. The sunshine of unalloyed felicity is a nimbus to their lives, and it is well that, as the clock strikes another year upon their wedded bliss, we should be here to congratulate and say God bless them both.

That their journey of life will be always as smooth as it is now, and that they may ever be protected from storm and strait, is the sentiment I would couple with the health of our dear friends, Mr. and Mrs. ——, on this the anniversary of their wedding.

REPLY.

My very dear Friends:

As a rule, no husband is perfectly safe in replying for his wife, since that much-to-be-respected party is usually so capable of replying for herself, and as on too frequent occasions, her sentiments differ a little from his. On this occasion, however, I reply for my dear wife, knowing that every word I say will be endorsed by her, and that every beat of her heart is in accord with mine.

This is indeed a very joyous anniversary. It recalls the delicious rapture of the moment when I first could call my cherished partner by that sacred and endearing term of wife. It recalls the moment when she placed her happiness in my hands; and, my dear friends, I ask of you if that smile which puckers round her mouth now, does not do *me* infinite justice? If I have not been disappointed in her, I trust in God she has not been disappointed in me, and as years pass around, and, Darby and Joan like, we descend the hill, may this anniversary ever prove a resting-place for happy retrospection.

CRYSTAL WEDDING.

In this age of transparency, when glass has arrived at such perfection, it behooves us upon this, the anniversary of the crystal wedding of our dear friends, to "hold the mirror up to nature," and let them view themselves in the glass we now place before them. The lady smiles, as well she may, for Time's glass has not shaken out a single sand, and the fifteen years that have passed since she made our host the happiest of men, have left scarce a trace upon her pellucid brow.

The crystals which we present our dear friends upon this auspicious and delightful occasion are but a type of the transparency and brightness of their lives. May they never look on life "as through a glass, darkly." May the goblets which stand upon the festive board ever brim with the nectar distilled from love and harmony, and may these glass pitchers, and bowls, and decanters serve as crucibles through which their silver and golden anniversaries may yet be passed, and in this joyous and sympathetic company.

REPLY.

Dear Friends:

True it is that we have been married fifteen long years, yet it seems to me that —— is just as young, just as fresh, just as lovely as when, on this day fifteen years ago, I took her for better or for worse. Yet, dear friends, I like this celebration. It reminds us that we have reached one of the great resting-places on the line, and that, whilst we look back with intense pleasure upon our journey, we also anticipate a great deal more farther on the road. It is indeed a source of intense gratification to us to find that, after fifteen years, so many friends come to visit us as we rest by the wayside, bringing gifts and bidding us to be of good cheer. These anniversaries are a sacred institution, and as you were good enough to express a hope that these beautiful goblets might prove crucibles, let me now engage each and every one of you not only to our silver and gold, but to our diamond weddings. I now drink your healths, thanking you for my fifteen-year partner from the bottom of my heart.

SILVER WEDDING.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

On a certain day just twenty-five years ago, a certain lady and gentleman entered for the race of life, and they have, I am delighted to declare, won the plate. Behold it! [Points to gifts.] They have, to continue the parlance of the turf, run neck and neck, and come in to this the winning-post in the easiest of possible canters. Ladies and gentlemen, let us drink to the winners, and let us earnestly hope that they may be matched for the gold plate, and that we may be present when the "little event" comes off.

Ladies and gentlemen, need we say how deeply we congratulate our dear friends? Is not this occasion a lesson to maids and bachelors? Never were there words more applicable, "Go and do likewise." I shall conclude, for I see that you are all eager to do honor to my toast, by quoting Sheridan:

> "Ah, sure a pair were never seen
> So justly formed to meet by nature."

Their healths—God bless them!

GOLDEN WEDDING.

This is indeed a grand occasion, and one which, while it brings joy and thankfulness to our hearts, bears with it one of the most beautiful and touching lessons in the book of life.

Our respected and venerable friends have indeed reached the golden age of maturity. Hand in hand have they ascended the hill, hand in hand are they descending into the valley, a valley lighted with the undying and unshifting lamp of faithfulness, love, and devotion. What a privilege for us to be here to witness this beautiful sight, to see the bride and bridegroom of to-day in soul, in heart, the bride and bridegroom of this day half a century ago!

Time has sown fresh flowers in their dear old hearts; time has garlanded their brows with choicest flowers; time has but mellowed their affections, which, like good wine, has but improved with age.

We have come here to felicitate them upon the fiftieth anniversary of their marriage, to wish them many a long year yet before they snap the golden link that bound them together; that their bark may sail upon a golden sea, and that their sunset may be golden, is our united sentiment.

CONGRATULATING A CANDIDATE.

Sir—It is not in mortals to command success, but, what is better, they should endeavor to deserve it. You have been successful because you have deserved it, and we come to *exchange* congratulations, since whilst we rejoice for you, you undoubtedly rejoice with us. We have won a proud victory, but much of the glory is due to our standard-bearer. That you will conscientiously and worthily fill the office which has been bestowed upon you is beyond the region of doubt.

We have done honor to ourselves by proposing so clear-headed and able a candidate, and you, sir, will do honor to us by pursuing in your new position that pure and unsullied line of conduct which has this day led us to nominate you for election.

We do not attempt to crow over the defeated candidate. We can afford to be magnanimous, and since we are now so worthily represented, we feel assured that the enemy will regard you as the exponent of their opinions as much as we shall. Sir, we cordially congratulate you on a well merited success, and we congratulate you, and congratulate the good cause.

REPLY.

Gentlemen:

Deeds, not words, is my motto. That I thank you, and the energetic workers in the good cause which has led to this triumph, a triumph in which I am personally interested, need scarcely be said. I am as yet an untried man, but it is my purpose to prove to you that your votes of to-day have not been thrown away, and that you have honored an individual who will at least endeavor to prove his gratitude by head, heart, and unflagging work. The good cause has indeed triumphed, and I pledge myself that the trust you have this day reposed in me shall lose nothing from being placed in my hands. I shall endeavor to the best of my poor ability to walk in the straight path, and to discharge the duties appertaining to my office without fear or favor. Once more I thank you for the high honor which you have done me.

Toasts and Sentiments.

AMATORY.

AMERICAN belles and American fashions.
Laughing lovers to merry maids.
Love and opportunity.
Love's slavery.
Love without licentiousness, and pleasure without excess.
Love, liberty, and length of blissful days.
Love without fear, and life without care.
Love for one.
Life, love, liberty, and true friendship.
Love in every breast, liberty in every heart, and learning in every head.
Love at liberty, and liberty in love.
Love: may it never make a wise man play the fool.
Artless love, and disinterested friendship.
All that love can give, and sensibility enjoy.
A speedy union to every lad and lass.
Beauty's best companion—Modesty.
Beauty, innocence, and modest merit.
Beauty without affectation, and virtue without deceit.
Community of goods, unity of hearts, nobility of sentiment, and truth of feeling to the lovers of the fair sex.
Charms to strike the sight, and merit to win the heart.
Constancy in love, and sincerity in friendship.
Here's a health to the maid that is constant and kind,
Who to charms bright as Venus' adds Diana's mind.
I'll toast America's daughters—let all fill their glasses—
Whose beauty and virtue the whole world's surpasses
May blessings attend them, go wherever they will,
And foul fall the man that e'er offers them ill.
Love without deceit and matrimony without regret.
Love's garlands: may they ever entwine the brows of every true-hearted lover.
Lovely woman—man's best and dearest gift of life.
Love to one, friendship to a few, and good-will to all.
Long life, pure love, and boundless liberty.
May love and reason be friends, and beauty and prudence marry.
May the lovers of the fair sex never want the means to defend them.
May the sparks of love brighten into a flame.
May the joys of the fair give pleasure to the heart.
May we be loved by those whom we love.
May we kiss whom we please, and please whom we kiss.
May the bud of affection be ripened by the sunshine of sincerity.
May a virtuous offspring succeed to mutual and honorable love.
May the presence of the fair curb the licentious.
May the confidence of love be rewarded with constancy in its object.
May the honorable lover attain the object of his wishes.
May the lovers of the fair be modest, faithful, and kind.
May the wings of love never lose a feather.
May the blush of conscious innocence ever deck the faces of the American fair.
May the union of persons always be founded on that of hearts.
May the generous heart ever meet a chaste mate.
May the temper of our wives be suited to those of their husbands.
May true passion never meet with a slight.
May every woman have a protector, but not a tyrant.
THE GIRL WE LOVE—When she is our toast, we don't want any *but her*.
May we find our wives to-night where Cain found his—in the land of Nod.
HARMONY IN ALL THE STATES OF THE WORLD—Especially the Married State.
THE GRACES THAT EVERY MAN DESIRES—The good graces of woman.
THE BEST UNION BONDS IN THE MARKET—Marriage certificates.

BACCHANALIAN.

May we act with reason when the bottle circulates.
May good fortune resemble the bottle and bowl,
And stand by the man who can't stand by himself.
May we never want wine, nor a friend to partake of it.
May our love of the glass never make us forget decency.
May the juice of the grape enliven each soul,
And good-humor preside at the head of each bowl.
May mirth exalt the feast.
May we always get mellow with good wine.
May the moments of mirth be regulated by the dial of reason.
Champagne to our real friends, and real pain to our sham friends.
Come, every man now give his toast—
Fill up the glass—I'll tell you mine:
Wine is the mistress I love most!
This is my toast—now give me thine.
Cheerfulness in our cups, content in our minds, and competency in our pockets.
Come, fill the glass and drain the bowl:
May Love and Bacchus still agree;
And every American warm his soul
With Cupid, Wine, and Liberty.
Good-humor: and may it ever smile at our board.
Full bags, a fresh bottle, and a beauty.
Good wine and good company to the lovers of reasonable enjoyment.
A friend and a bottle to give him.
A hearty supper a good bottle, and a soft bed to every man who fights the battles of his country.
A full purse, a fresh bottle, and beautiful face.
A full bottle and a friend to partake of it.
A drop of good stuff and a snug social party,
To spend a dull evening, gay, social, and hearty.
A mirth-inspiring bowl.
A full belly, a heavy purse, and a light heart.
A bottle at night and business in the morning
Beauty, wit, and wine.
Clean glasses and old corks.
Wine: may it be our spur as we ride over the bad roads of life.
While we enjoy ourselves over the bottle, may we never drive prudence out of the room.
Wine—for there's no medicine like it.
Wine—the parent of friendship, composer of strife,
The soother of sorrow, the blessing of life.
Wine, the bond that cements the warm heart to a friend.
WINE, WIT, AND WISDOM—Wine enough to sharpen wit; wit enough

to give zest to wine; wisdom enough to "shut down" at the right moment.

THE LATCH KEY—May it never open the door to reproach.

May we never lose our taste for any of the sweets of life—especially lasses.

THE FIRST DUTY OF BACHELORS—To ring the city belles.

Success to all parties that, like this party, are founded on friendship, harmony, and hospitality.

THE BEST OF ALL REVOLVERS—The bottle as it goes round.

COMIC.

May the tax-gatherer be forgiven in another world.

To the early bird that catches the worm.

To the bird in the hand that is worth two in the bush.

The land we live in: may he who doesn't like it leave it.

The three great Generals in power—General Peace, General Plenty, and General Satisfaction.

May the parched pea never jump out of the frying-pan into the fire.

The three R's: Reading, 'Riting, and 'Rithmetic.

May evil communications never corrupt good manners.

May the celebrated pin a day, of which we have heard so much, always make the groat a year.

May the groat a year never be unwisely invested in a Joint-Stock Company.

May that man never grow fat
Who carries two faces under one hat.

Here's to the best physicians—Dr. Diet, Dr. Quiet, and Dr. Merryman.

Here's to the feast that has plenty of meat and very little table-cloth.

Here's to the full purse that never lacks friends.

May fools make feasts, and wise men eat them.

Here's to the man who never lets his tongue cut his own throat.

Here's to the man who never quarrels with his bread and butter.

Here's to the man who never looks a gift horse in the mouth

Here's to the old bird that is not to be caught with chaff.

CONSERVATIVE.

The equilibrium of State, may it always be preserved.

Judicious reforms and reformers.

The universal advancement of the arts and sciences.

May the dispensers of justice ever be impartial.

May the worth of the nation be ever inestimable.

May taxation be lessened annually.

May the sword of justice be swayed by the hand of mercy.

May the seeds of dissension never find growth in the soil of America.

May the love of country be imprinted in every American's breast.

Liberty, not license.

Confusion to all men who desert their party.

Party ties before all other ties.

A lasting cement to all contending powers.

The protectors of commerce and the promoters of charity.

A revision of the code of criminal laws.

ENGLISH.

England, home, and beauty.

English oak and British valor.

England forever: the land we live in.

England, Scotland, and Ireland: may their union remain undisturbed by plots or treachery to the end of time.

England, the queen of the isles and the queen of the main.

May old England's sons, the Americans, never forget their mother.

IRISH.

A high *post* to the enemies of Ould Ireland.

Erin, the land of the brave and the bold.

Ireland: sympathy for her wrongs, and a determination to redress them.

The country that gave St. Patrick birth, the birthplace of wit, and hospitality's home—dear Ould Ireland.

May Ireland be ever equally distinguished by her love of liberty and true patriotism.

May the enemies of Ireland never meet a friend.

Justice to Ireland.

Grattan and the Volunteers of '82.

SCOTCH.

A health to the friends of Caledonia.

Caledonia, the nursery of learning and the birthplace of heroes.

Scotland, and the productions of its soil.

Scottish heroes, and may their fame live forever.

Scotland, the birthplace of valor, the country of worth.

The Queen and the Scottish Union.

The nobles of Caledonia and their ladies.

To the memory of Scottish heroines.

The Rose, Thistle, and Shamrock: may they flourish by the common graft of union.

To the memory of Scotland's heroes.

To the memory of those who have gloriously fallen in the noble struggle for independence.

LIBERAL.

Annihilation to the trade of corruption.

Addition to our trade, multiplication to our manufactures, subtraction to taxes, and reduction to places and pensions.

All the honest reformers of our country.

America: may the land of our nativity ever be the abode of freedom, and the birthplace of heroes.

America's annals: may they never suffer a moral or political blot.

Confusion to those who barter the cause of their country for sordid gain.

Confusion to those who, wearing the mask of patriotism, pull it off and desert the cause of liberty in the hour of trial.

Confusion to those despots who combine against the liberties of mankind.

Disappointment to all those who form expectations of places and pensions on the ruin of their country.

Everlasting life to the man who gave the death-blow to the slave-trade.

Community, unity, navigation, and trade.

Faith in every kind of commerce.

Freedom to the oppressed, and slavery to the oppressors.

Freedom to all who dare contend for it.

Oblivion to all party rage.

Humanity to all created beings, especially to our own species, whether black or white.

No party except mankind.

May the meanest American scorn the highest slave.

May every succeeding century maintain the principles of the glorious Revolution, enjoy the blessings of them, and transmit them to future ages unimpaired and improved.

May the whole universe be incorporated in one city, and every inhabitant presented with the freedom.

May freedom's fire take new birth at the grave of liberty.

May our country be, as it has ever been, a secure asylum to the unfortunate and oppressed.

High wages, and sense to keep them.

May the freedom of election be preserved, the trial by jury maintained, and the liberty of the press secured to the latest posterity.

May the tree of liberty flourish round the globe, and every human being partake of the fruits.

May truth and liberty prevail throughout the world.

May all partial and impolitic taxes be abolished.

May the sons of liberty marry the daughters of virtue.

May Americans never suffer invasion, nor invade the rights of others.

May the miseries of war be banished from all enlightened nations.

May our trade and manufactures be unrestrained by the fetters of monopoly.

May the whole world become more enlightened and civilized.

May revolutions never cease while tyranny exists.

Our constitution as settled at the Revolution.

The majesty of the people of America.

The memory of our brave ancestors who brought about the Revolution, and may a similar spirit actuate their descendants.

The sacred decree of heaven—Let all mankind be free.

The people—the only source of legitimate power.

The subject of liberty and the liberty of the subject.

The greatest happiness of the greatest number.

May the nation that plots against another's liberty or prosperity fall a victim to its own intrigues.

LITERARY.

Toleration and liberty of the press.
The Fourth Estate.
The liberty of the press, and success to its defenders.
The Press: the great bulwark of our liberties, and may it ever remain unshackled.
The glorious literature of America.
The glorious literature of Scotland.
The glorious literature of Ireland.
The glorious literature of England.

LOYAL.

A lasting peace or an honorable war.
A health to our patriots.
Agriculture and its improvers.
All societies associated for promoting the happiness of the human race.
All the charitable institutions of the United States.
American virtue: may it always find a protector, but never need one.
Holy pastors, honest magistrates, and humane rulers.
Improvement to the inventions of our country.
Improvement to our arts, and invention to our artists.
May the sword of Justice be swayed by the hand of Mercy.
May the love of country always prevail.
May our sons be honest and fair, and our daughters modest and fair.
May every American's hand be ever hostile to tyranny.
May our jurors ever possess sufficient courage to uphold their verdict.
May every American manfully withstand corruption.
Our wives, homes, our country.
May every American manfully withstand tyranny.
May the glory of America never cease to shine.
May our hearts ever be possessed with the love of country.
May the brave never want protection.
May we ever honestly uphold our rights.
May we never cease to deserve well of our country.
May the liberties of the people be immortal.
May the brow of the brave be adorned by the hand of beauty.
May we never find danger lurking on the borders of security.
May the laurels of America never be blighted.
May all mankind make free to enjoy the blessings of liberty, but never take the liberty to subvert the principles of freedom.
May America's name and America's fame stand forever pure, great and free.
May every true American be possessed of peace, plenty, and content.
May every American act the patriot's part.
May victory spin the robe of glory for the brave, and fame enroll his deeds.
May the laws never be misconstrued.
May the weight of our taxes never bend the back of our credit.

MILITARY.

To the memory of Washington and all like him.
May the enemy's flag be surmounted by the American standard.
May the arms borne by a soldier never be used in a bad cause.
May American soldiers fight to protect, and conquer to save.
May the gifts of fortune never cause us to steer out of our latitude.
May the brow of the brave never want a wreath of laurel to adorn it.
May the brave soldier who never turned his back to the enemy never have a friend turn his back to him.
May bronze and medals not be the only reward of the brave.
May the laurels of America never be blighted
May all weapons of war be used for warlike purpose only.
May a soldier never fall a sacrifice but to glory.
To the memory of all brave soldiers who fall in defense of their country.

NAVAL.

May our iron-clads do as much as our brave old oaks.
May rudders govern and ships obey.
May no true son of Neptune ever flinch from his gun.
May no son of the ocean ever be devoured by his mother.
May our navy never know defeat but by name.
May our officers and tars be valiant and brave.
Success to the fair for manning the navy.
May gales of prosperity waft us to the port of happiness.
May the pilot of reason guide us to the harbor of rest.
May the memory of the noble Farragut inspire every seaman to do his duty.
May the tar who loses one eye in defense of his country never see distress with the other.
The heart of a sailor: may it be like heart of oak.
Though our bold tars are fortune's sport, may they ever be fortune's care.
The flag of America: may it ever brave the battle and the breeze.
The sea, the rough sea, the open sea: may our lives be spent upon it.
The sea, the sleepless guardian of the world.
Safe arrivals to our homeward and outward bound fleets.

RELIGIOUS.

The friends of religion, liberty, and science in every part of the globe.
The honest reformers of our laws and religion.
The friends of religious toleration, whether they are within or without the Establishment.

SENTIMENTAL.

May we ever have a sufficiency for ourselves, and a trifle to spare for our friends.
May we always look forward to better time, but never be discontented with the present.
May the miseries of war never more have existence in the world.
May the wing of friendship never moult a feather.
May our artists never be forced into artifice to gain applause and fortune.
May solid honor soon take place of seeming religion.
May our thoughts never mislead our judgment.
May filial piety ever be the result of a religious education.
May real merit meet reward, and pretension its punishment.
May prosperity never make us arrogant, nor adversity mean.
May we live happy and die in peace with all mankind.
May the unsuspecting man never be deceived.
May noise and nonsense be ever banished from social company.
May the faults of our neighbors be dim and their virtues glaring.
May industry always be the favorite of Fortune.
May the rich be charitable and the poor grateful.
May the misfortunes of others be always examined at the chart of our own conduct.
May we never be so base as to envy the happiness of another.
May we live to learn, and learn to live well.
May we be more ready to correct our own faults than to publish the faults of others.
May we never hurt our neighbor's peace by the desire of appearing witty.
Modesty in our discourses, moderation in our wishes, and mutuality in our affections.
May we never envy those who are happy, but strive to imitate them.
May we derive amusement from business and improvement from pleasure.
May our faults be written on the seashore, and every good action prove a wave to wash them out.
May virtue find fortune always an attendant.
May we never repine at our condition, nor be depressed by poverty.
May reality strengthen the joys of imagination.
May we never make a sword of our tongue to wound a good man's reputation.
May our distinguishing mark be merit rather than money.
A total abolition of the slave-trade.

A heart to glow for others' good.
A heart to feel and a heart to give.
A period to the sorrows of an ingenuous mind.
A health to our sweethearts, our friends, and our wives.
May fortune smile on them the rest of their lives.
May genius and merit never want a friend.
Adam's ale: and may so pure an element always be at hand.
All that gives us pleasure.
All our wants and wishes.
All our absent friends on land and sea.
An honest guide and a good pilot.
As we bind so may we find.
As we travel through life may we live well on the road.
May truth and liberty prevail throughout the world.
May we never engage in a bad cause, and never fly from a good one.
May the fruits of America's soil never be denied to her children.

SPORTING.

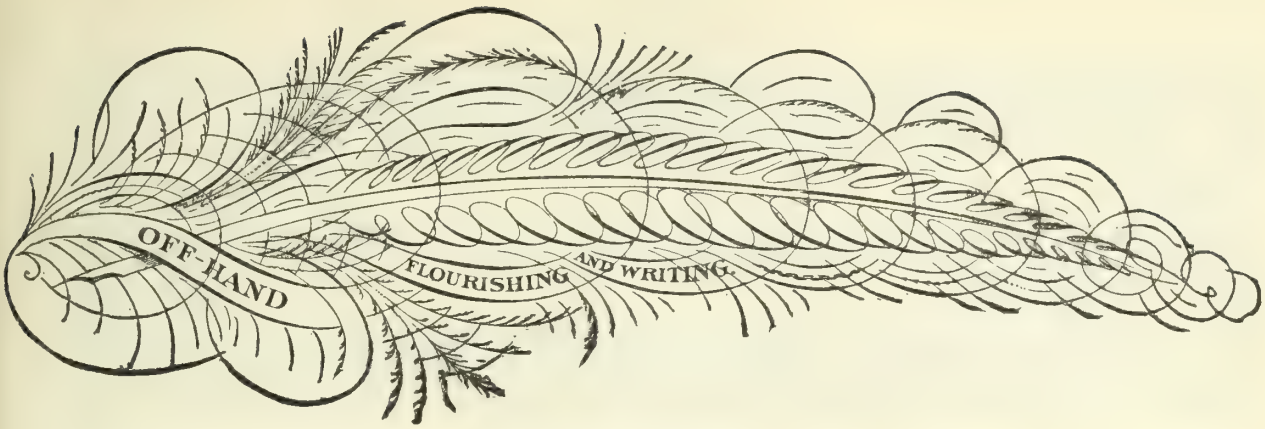
May the lovers of the chase never want the comforts of life.
The clear-sighted sportsman that sees his game with one eye.
The steady sportsman that always brings down his game.
The beagle that runs by nose and not by sight.
The jolly sportsman that never beats about the bush.
The joys of angling.
May the pleasures of sportsmen never know an end.
May we always gain fresh vigor from the joys of the chase.
May the sportsman's day be spent in pleasure.
May strength the sportsman's nerves in vigor brace.
May cruelty ne'er stain with foul disgrace,
The well-earned pleasures of the chase.
May the love of the chase never interrupt our attention to the welfare of our country.
May every sport prove as innocent as that of the field.
May those who love the crack of the whip never want a brush to pursue.
May the heart of a sportsman never know affliction but by name.

MISCELLANEOUS.

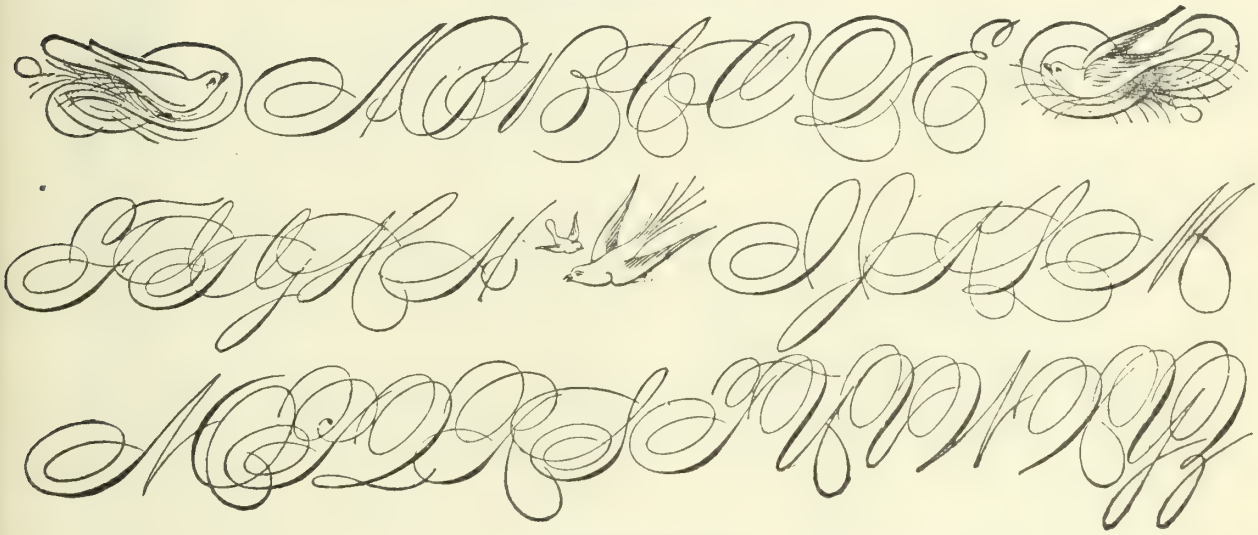
The three A's:
Abundance, abstinence, and annihilation.
Abundance to the poor.
Abstinence to the intemperate.
Annihilation to the wicked.
The three B's:
Bachelors, banns, and buns.
Bachelors for the maidens.
Banns for the bachelors.
Buns after the consummation of the banns
The three C's:
Cheerfulness, content, and competency.
Cheerfulness in our cup.
Content in our minds.
Competency in our pockets.
The three F's:
Firmness, freedom, and fortitude.
Firmness in the senate.
Freedom on the land.
Fortitude on the waves.
The three F's:
Friendship, feeling, and fidelity.
Friendship without interest.
Feeling to our enemies.
Fidelity to our friends.
The three F's: Fair, fat, and forty.
The three generals in peace.
General peace.
General plenty.
General satisfaction.
The three generals in power:
General employment.
General industry.
General comfort.
The three H's:
Health, honor, and happiness.
Health to all the world.
Honor to those who seek for it.
Happiness in our homes.
The three L's:
Love, life, and liberty.
Love pure.
Life long.
Liberty boundless.
The three M's:
Mirth, music and moderation.
Mirth at every board.
Music in all instruments.
Moderation in our desires.
The three golden balls of civilization:
Industry, commerce, and wealth.
The three companions of beauty:
Modesty, love, and constancy.
The three blessings of this life.
Health, wealth, and a good conscience.
The four comforts of this life:
Love, liberty, health, and a contented mind.
The three spirits that have no souls:
Brandy, rum, and gin.
When we go up the hill of prosperity may we never meet a friend.
The three M's:
Modesty, moderation, and mutuality.
Modesty in our discourse.
Moderation in our wishes.
Mutuality in our affection.
THE MUSICIAN'S TOAST—May a crotchet in the head never bar the utterance of good notes.
May the lovers of harmony never be in want of a note, and its enemies die in a common chord.
THE SURGEON'S TOAST—The man that bleeds for his country.
THE WAITER'S TOAST—The clever waiter who puts the cork in first and the liquor afterwards.
THE GLAZIER'S TOAST—The praiseworthy glazier who takes *panes* to see his way through life.
THE PAINTER'S TOAST—When we work in the wet may we never want for dryers.
THE HATTER'S TOAST—When the rogue *naps* it, may the lesson be *felt*.
THE TAILOR'S TOAST—May we always *sheer* out of a law-suit, and by so doing *cut* bad company.
THE BAKER'S TOAST—May we never be done so much as to make us crusty.
THE LAWYER'S TOAST—May the depth of our potations never cause us to let judgment go by default.

LATIN.

Ad finem esto fidelis. Be faithful to the end.
Amor patriæ. The love of our country.
Dilige amicos. Love your friends.
Dum vivimus vivamus. Let us live while we live.
Esto perpetua. Be thou perpetual.
Palmam qui meruit ferat. Let him who has won bear the palm.
Pro aris et focis. For our altars and firesides.
Vox populi vox Dei. The voice of the people is the voice of God.



Whole Arm Capitals.



Ledger Hand.

Merchandise Commission

Medium Hand.

Good writing is a passport to success in life.

Corresponding Hand.

Everyone should write an easy, rapid and graceful hand.



THERE are, properly speaking, only two methods of book-keeping, founded on distinct principles — viz., *Single* and *Double Entry*. Single Entry is the more simple, and is generally adopted by shop-keepers and others who deal in a great variety of articles, where the sales are small and numerous; and to such it is peculiarly applicable, as they have seldom time to record them particularly. There is merely required a memorial of occurrences, in the order of time, with a Ledger, in which the names of all parties between whom transactions take place are entered; debtor and creditor accounts of each party being arranged on the two opposite pages which are presented at an opening, the first on the right hand, and the second on the left. By this method the Ledger is defective, since it contains no accounts of cash, bills, or goods; consequently it affords to the owner no knowledge of these particulars, but only records the debts due to and by him, with, at most, the accounts of stock, family expenses, and shop furniture. The Italian method of Double Entry differs from Single Entry chiefly in making cash, stock, goods, etc., parties as well as persons, and in making a debtor and creditor account in every transaction. Thus, if cloth is sold to A, A is made debtor to cloth, and cloth creditor to A; if cash is received from B, cash is made debtor to B, and B creditor to cash; and in every case the party, whether animate or inanimate, which receives is debtor to that which pays, and inversely. A double entry is therefore requisite in every transaction, and a balance may at any time be struck between things as well as persons; and in order to avoid the confusion which would arise in a direct transfer of account from the Waste-book to the Ledger before the proper relation of debtor and creditor in each transaction is distinctly ascertained and recorded, they are first entered in the Journal in the same form in which they must appear in the Ledger. But in order to form a proper criterion of the existing methods of book-keeping, it will be necessary to compare them, as we will now do, before proceeding further.

As the Ledger, when kept by Single Entry, contains no accounts of cash, bills, and goods, it consequently affords to the owner no knowledge of these particulars; but these must be collected from the subsidiary books. In a simple trade, such as the set by single entry which follows this, the information wanted may be obtained by the present arrangement of the Day-book, Cash-book, and Stock-book; but in an extensive and diversified concern this arrangement would by no means be advisable, as the objects in question could not be easily and concisely obtained. Posting from a number of books, when one only is necessary, is of itself an insuperable objection, because it is more liable to errors and omissions; and from the unsightly appearance these books would exhibit by the multiplicity of figures, the eye would soon become fatigued and bewildered. It is both a slovenly and tedious method to enter each sum singly into the Ledger, and unnecessarily swells the accounts with lines, as by the Italian method, which increase the labor and difficulty of balancing. Besides, previous to taking a general balance, the number of entries, such as interest, commission, and postage, arising from the accounts current, must unavoidably be made either with a journal entry, or each entered singly by a simple transfer from one account to another, which is, in fact, a double entry, and would be both awkward and improper. The Cash-book might be constructed with columns to show the monthly amounts of the cash received and paid on account of bills receivable and bills payable,

etc.; yet the information in other respects would not be obtained, for the amounts of the sales, of consignments and shipments, etc., monthly, would not be shown by Single entry.

Although the Ledger, by the Italian method of book-keeping, contains accounts of cash, bills, goods, and other property, yet the arrangement of it and the Journal is by no means adequate to the purposes of an extensive and complicated concern. By making all the original entries in one book, namely, the Waste-book, a jumble of transactions so heterogeneous is produced as cannot fail to render the business not only more complex in itself, and consequently more difficult, than if a separate book were kept for each kind; but when dispatch is required, as in selling, shipping goods, etc., the greatest inconvenience is experienced, as only one person can be employed at once in making the entries. But the principal defects lie in journalizing daily, in posting each sum singly into the Ledger, and opening separate accounts for each kind of goods. Hence the impracticability of following this method without the books of an extensive business falling behind, the patience of the book-keeper exhausted, or, perhaps, his health destroyed. Besides swelling the Journal and particularizing the Ledger to an unwieldy size, it renders the balancing of the latter a laborious and, in most cases, a difficult task.

By the practice at present followed in the counting-house, the Waste-book is not recognized by that title. It is represented, however, by a number of subsidiary books, suited to the nature of the business carried on, each containing such transactions as exclusively apply to its title. Thus, a Cash-book, in which is entered the money received and paid; a Bill-book, in which are recorded the bills received and accepted; a Purchase-book, or Invoice-book Inward, in which are entered or posted invoices of all goods purchased; a book of shipments, or Invoice-book Outward, in which are entered all goods shipped; an Account Sales-book, in which are entered the particulars of such goods as are sold on commission, with the charges attending them; a Day-book, in which are entered the sales of goods on the merchant's own account, with such other transactions as do not apply to any of the above books; an Account Current-book, containing duplicates of the accounts as they stand in the Ledger, with the particulars of each article drawn out in a plain circumstantial manner, being exact copies of the accounts transmitted or delivered to the persons whose names they bear. These are the principal subsidiary books used either in inland or foreign trade, and from which the Journal or Ledger are made. The division of the Waste-book into a number of books adapted to the nature of the business, is a valuable modern improvement, both for simplicity and dispatch. By bringing each kind of transactions together, and dividing the labor among a number of hands, the utmost simplicity, accuracy, and dispatch are obtained.

The arrangement of the Journal, by combining together each class of accounts, and carrying only the amounts of these once a month into the Ledger, not only simplifies the Journal, but greatly abridges the former of these books, because no more than twelve lines yearly will be required in general at the accounts, though transactions be ever so numerous.

The Ledger, when kept by this method, may therefore be considered a general index to the Journal, as that book is to the subsidiary books. By this means the case of each account is brought into a concise point of view, and is easily examined, without fatiguing the eye with a multiplicity of figures, which unavoidably takes place when each sum is posted separately, as by the Italian method. It must also be observed that instead of opening distinct accounts for each kind of goods, as by the Italian method, only one general account of goods is by the present practice opened; for when the articles are numerous, one account of goods in the Ledger is quite sufficient, and will be found to answer every useful purpose. In an extensive business, where separate accounts for each kind of goods have been attempted, it was found difficult to keep the Journal and Ledger from falling behind. The Stock-book is the proper place for every particular of this sort, which may be kept exclusively by one of the junior clerks, when the business requires it. The result of the general account in the Ledger of goods will always correspond with the particular profits and losses from the Stock-book.

But superior as the present practice is for saving both time and labor in posting, it will be found still more so at balancing the Ledger. What was formerly a laborious, and, in some cases, next to an impracticable task, where that book was posted daily, namely, to bring the stock and balance accounts to

agree (chiefly owing to the numerous entries on the property and nominal accounts), is by the present method completely avoided, and that which was before the labor of weeks, can now be accomplished in as many hours or days.

It will be of more advantage to the learner to procure or prepare for himself several sheets of ruled paper, with cash columns, and enter each transaction in the order of time, than to trace the entries in the Day-book and Cash-book which we have prepared. In the first case he will find the task, as he proceeds, familiar and interesting, while his knowledge and self-reliance will be increasing; whereas, in the other case, he will acquire so superficial an acquaintance with the accounts that it will soon vanish from his memory. The Day-book is arranged so as to admit of entries being made both of sales and purchases, the former on the right side, and the latter on the left. By this means he will be taught what debit and credit entries are before he is called upon to post the Ledger, and, moreover, avoid the risk of carrying error and confusion forward to the last stage of his work. It has been observed that in an extensive business it is preferable to enter the purchases in one book and the sales in another; and by adding these up monthly the amounts of each would be shown, which would enable the owner to extend or lessen the purchases as circumstances point out. The Day-book as now given will also serve this purpose, only that instead of having separate books for the sales and purchases, they are here arranged in one, and disposed, as we have said, in the form of debtor and creditor. It therefore follows that if we add at any time to the credit side the value of the articles remaining on hand, the difference betwixt the sums total on the two sides will show the whole gain or loss upon the goods, and by entering the charges, etc., attending the business, with the discount, both against and in favor of it, to the proper sides, this book will exhibit the result of the whole.

The following general rule is sufficient to direct the learner respecting debtor and creditor. The person from whom you buy goods on trust, or receive money, is Creditor; and, on the contrary, the person to whom you sell goods on credit, or pay money, is Debtor.

For instance, if you buy goods on credit from John Carter, he, being the deliverer, is creditor for the value, and when you pay him for them, he, being the person who receives, is debtor. On the same principle, if you sell goods on credit to Philip Meek, he, being the receiver, is debtor; and when he pays you for them, he, being the deliverer, is creditor. The same rule is observed when you contract or discharge a debt by any other transaction. Thus the person who becomes indebted to you is debtor, and the person to whom you become indebted is creditor. In the same manner, the person whose debt you pay is made debtor, and he who pays a debt to you, or for you, is creditor.

In the Day-book, enter on the debtor, or left-hand, page all the purchases, with the discounts allowed by you, as these occur; also all the petty expenses, monthly. Enter on the creditor, or right-hand page, all the sales, with the discount or interest allowed to you; also the value of goods on hand at balancing.

The Cash-book.—This book is very useful, whether the Ledger be kept by Single or Double Entry, in order to show at all times the money you receive and pay, and how much at any time should remain in hand. On the debtor, or left-hand page, is entered every sum you receive; and on the creditor, or right-hand page, every sum you pay. The difference between the two sides is called the balance, which should always agree with the money remaining in hand. This book is generally added up and the amounts set down, at the end of each month; and the balance is entered on the credit side to make the two sides equal, and likewise upon the debtor side of the succeeding month.

The Bill-book is divided into two parts. In the first are entered all bills which you receive, and are therefore called Bills Receivable. It is ruled with a number of columns for recording the several clauses of the bill. When kept correctly the blank spaces in the last column towards the right hand will always show the bills which remain in your possession. As soon as a bill passes out of your hands, by being either paid, discounted, or endorsed to another person, it must be marked off in the above column. In the second part are entered all the bills which you accept, or agree to pay, and are therefore called Bills Payable. As soon as you pay a bill, it should also be marked off in the column towards the right hand; when, of course, the blank spaces will just present such bills of yours as are unpaid.

A dealer who does a cash business only requires but a single book—the Cash-book. In it he enters

on its appropriate side all his transactions: on the one side all he pays out, and what for, on the other all he receives and its vouchers. The balance between the two sides will at any time show the state of his affairs. Suppose, for instance, his Cash-book shows on the debtor side a total transaction of $1,450.73, and on the credit side $659.32, the difference, $791.41, is the sum which he ought to have on hand. These will appear on the Cash-book, thus:

Dr.		Cr.	
	1,450 73		659 32
		Balance	791 41
	1,450 73		1,450 73
To balance brought forward	791 41		

The transactions of which the foregoing forms a total may be like the following:

CASH.

Dr.			Cr.		
1880.					
Jan. 1.	Capital	1,000 00	Jan. 1.	Pd. Smith & Co. for 10 bbls. flour.	52 50
2.	Sales	10 15	2.	Expenses	20 15
3.	"	8 94	3.	"	10 00
4.	"	17 20	4.	"	19 50
5.	"	12 80	5.	"	4 25
6.	"	19 72	6.	"	1 30
8.	"	20 07	8.	Wages	50 00
9.	"	10 15	9.	Expenses	24 00
11.	"	24 44	10.	"	19 72
12.	"	18 41	11.	"	60 40
13.	"	7 16	12.	"	72 16
15.	"	9 02	13.	"	40 01
16.	"	18 27	15.	"	27 90
17.	"	21 06	16.	Wages	50 00
19.	"	26 81	17.	Expenses	27 00
20.	"	41 94	18.	"	19 25
22.	"	73 20	20.	"	7 14
23.	"	64 16	22.	Wages	50 00
24.	"	47 23	23.	Expenses	17 84
			24.	"	86 20
		$1,450 73			$659 32

A single operation will enable you to ascertain at any time the state of your affairs. Thus:

Balance of cash on hand	791 41
Cost of goods in stock	200 00
	991 41

If you owe anything on your stock, you must arrive at the result differently. Thus:

Balance of cash on hand	791 41
Cost of goods in stock	400 00
	1,191 41
Deduct amounts due to various persons for stock	200 00
Balance as before	991 41

So if you give no credit, but sell only for cash over your counter, you need only the one book, the CASH-BOOK, which will at any time you wish, if correctly kept, show the actual state of your business.

But as very few tradesmen or dealers confine themselves to a cash business, it becomes necessary to have other books, so when credit is given a LEDGER is demanded, so that the dealer may at all times know not only what cash he has on hand, but what money is owing him.

Suppose you are a bookseller, and your customers keep running accounts, you will find it necessary to have at least three books, a CASH-BOOK, for the entries of moneys received and paid out; a BLOTTER, as it is usually called, for recording the daily transactions; and a LEDGER, for posting the accounts.

A customer, say Mr. Robert Walpole, comes to you and asks how his account stands. Looking at the index in the front of your ledger, you find Mr. Walpole's account on page 96. Turning to this page, you discover the following statement:

MR. ROBERT WALPOLE.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Jan.	4	8	To mdse	66	38	Jan.	10	25	By cash	80	00
	7	17	My acceptance at 3 months, dated April 10	60	00			16	Your acceptance at 3 months, due April 13	50	00
	10	24	Cash paid your order in favor of Brown & Co.	18	14						
				144	52					130	00

The debtor side, or what he owes you, is $144,25. and the creditor side, or what you owe him, is $130.00; the difference, $14.52, being in your favor, is therefore his debit to you. If he pays you, enter it on the cash-book and on the credit side of the account in the ledger, thus making it balance.

NARRATIVE OF TRANSACTIONS.

1878.

Jan. 1. Began trade with $2,000.

——— Bought goods as follows:

Of J. W. Bouton	$150 20
Of Dodd, Mead & Co.	241 00
Of A. S. Barnes & Co.	300 00
Of D. Appleton & Co.	124 30

——— Sold 24 Annuals over the counter for ready money, amounting to 14 80

Jan. 2. Paid J. W. Bouton, Cash 80 00

Paid Dodd, Mead & Co. ditto 120 00

Paid A. S. Barnes & Co. ditto 150 00

Paid D. Appleton & Co. ditto 61 00

Accepted the following bills drawn on me:

J. W. Bouton, at 2 months	40 00
Dodd, Mead & Co., at 2 months	90 00
A. S. Barnes & Co, at 3 months	60 00
D. Appleton & Co., 1 month	40 00

Bought of A. D. F. Randolph, goods, value. 198 64

Jan. 3. Sold Tenter & Co., of Philadelphia, as follows:

120 Dodd, Mead & Co.'s Hand Books, at 20c.	24 00	
80 Novels	26 00	
40 Assorted books	24 00	
		74 00

Terms, half Cash, half Bills at 3 months.

Received from Tenter & Co.'s house in town, cash 36 20

Idem, bill at three months 36 20

Sold B. Flock, of Pittsburgh, 42 assorted books 50 80

Received from Flock's house in town, cash. 20 00

And a bill at 3 months date 30 80

Jan. 4. Sold Roberts Bros., Boston, 36 Elements of Commerce 74 32

Received from Roberts Bros., of New York, for account of their house in Boston, their acceptance at two months for 74 32

Paid A. D. F. Randolph on account of what I owe him:

Bill paid to me by Flock	30 80
Bill paid to me by Roberts Bros	74 32
Together	105 12

Bought of W. H. Vernon, 20 reams of paper. 170 00

Sold him 240 odd volumes all at 82 30

Sold for ready money over the counter, 6 vols. Hume and Smollett's History of England 6 60

HOW THEY ARE TO BE ENTERED IN THE BOOKS.

This item being *Cash* in hand, must be placed on the debtor side of the CASH Book.

To be entered in the DAY Book as goods bought at the time of receiving the invoices. Each name, with the relative amount of invoice, to form a separate entry.

To the Dr. side of CASH Book, as ready money received for goods.

To be entered on the Cr. side of CASH Book, each name and amount forming a separate line.

To be entered in the BILLS PAYABLE Book, on separate lines, according to the printed form sold for that purpose.

As before.

To be charged in the DAY Book, explaining every particular relating to the conditions of sale, and how forwarded.

To be entered in CASH Book as cash received for account of Tenter & Co., Philadelphia.

To be entered in the BILLS RECEIVABLE to the account of Tenter & Co., Philadelphia, according to the printed forms.

As before.

As before.

As before.

As before.

As before.

This is a very peculiar entry, and one which persons ignorant of book-keeping will find comparatively difficult to arrange. As it is, however, a transaction which occurs continually, due attention ought to be given to it.

There are two ways of entering it—one by the CASH Book, the other by the DAY Book. If by the *former*, the amount must be first entered on the Dr. side as received for the bills, and then the Cr. side as paid to the parties. This, however, is a mode I do not like, because, in the first place, it is *not* a cash transaction at all; and secondly, because an entry on the Dr. side of the CASH Book is obliged to be *created* in order to balance the other on the Cr. side. An entry by the DAY Book is far the best, as nothing more is necessary than to charge the person to whom the bills are paid, with the amount of them, in the same way a for goods sold. The latter method is the one adopted in the examples.

DAY Book, as before.

As before.

As before.

Jan.	6. Paid trade charges and wages this day.....	4 22	To be entered on the CASH Book, under the head of Trade Expenses.
	Paid expenses to this day.....	6 60	Idem.
Feb.	5. Paid cash for my acceptance to D. Appleton & Co.....	40 00	To be entered in the CASH Book to the charge of *Bills Payable*, specifying the number of the Bill, D. Appleton & Co. having been debited with the amount when my acceptance was given.
Mar.	5. Idem to J. W. Bouton..	40 00	Idem.
	Idem Dodd, Mead & Co.....	90 00	Idem.
Apr.	5. Idem A. S. Barnes & Co.	60 00	Idem.
	6. Received the amount of Tenter's acceptance, paid me on the 3d Jan.....	36 20	To be entered in the CASH Book to the account of *Bills Receivable*, specifying the number, Tenter & Co. having been credited for the Bill when I received it from them.
	7. Flock's acceptance returned to me by A. D.F. Randolph, to whom I had paid it, it not having been honored by the acceptor.....	30 80	As I was obliged to take up this Bill, in other words to pay it, for account of Flock, who ought to have paid it, I charge Flock in the CASH Book with the amount I pay to A. D. F. Randolph.
	8. Paid one month's Rent.....	80 00	In the CASH Book, in the same way I entered trade and other expenses.
	Income Tax.....	20 24	
	City Taxes.....	15 20	
Nov.	1. Sold the following goods:		
	Ramsden & Co.....	20 00	To be entered in the DAY Book, as before.
	S. Green.....	18 24	
	G. Barrows	80 00	
	W. Sinn..	120 00	
	V. S. Brown.....	74 20	
Dec.	1. Received the following acceptances, at three months:		
	Ramsden & Co.....	20 00	To be entered in the BILLS RECEIVABLE Book, as before.
	S. Green	18 24	
	G. Barrows....	80 00	
	W. Sinn.....	120 00	
	V. S. Brown	74 20	
Dec.	20. Bought goods as follows:		
	From Leggat Bros.....	52 20	To be entered in the DAY Book, as before.
	From Houghton, Mifflin & Co.....	200 00	
	From S. R. Wells.....	192 40	
	From James R. Osgood & Co.....	170 80	
Dec.	30. Gave my acceptances as follows, at three months:		
	Leggat Bros.....	52 20	To be entered in the BILLS PAYABLE Book, as before.
	To Houghton, Mifflin & Co.....	200 00	
	To S. R. Wells	192 40	
	To James R. Osgood & Co.....	170 80	

Having entered all these various items in their proper books, as explained, we proceed to transfer them under their respective heads in the Ledger, which is technically called POSTING. First, taking the Day Book, we *post* all under the date of the 1st of January; then follows the Cash Book in the same way, and finally the two Bill Books, care being taken to mark the proper page of the Ledger in the columns left for that purpose in the other books, and *vice versa* to note in the Ledger, in like manner, the folio of the book from which the entry has been extracted. Thus, day by day, all the entries in the Ledger are condensed from these four books.

All the items contained in the Cash Book, Bills Receivable and Payable Books, and Day Book having been properly *posted* in the Ledger, the next operation will be to BALANCE! This is generally done on the last day of the year, at which time the value of the stock on hand is taken. By reference to the Ledger, it will be seen how those accounts are ruled off which balance of themselves, and in what way the balances of the others are brought down.

some being amounts we owe, and others due to us. The balances due us stand upon the Debtor side of each account, and those we owe on the Creditor side.

Having done this, we next proceed to draw up the Balance Sheet, by which we shall ascertain the amount of profit made or loss incurred upon the year's transactions, after having paid all expenses and trade charges. In order to do this properly, we must collect into one sum *all we owe*, and into another *all we are possessed of*, and the difference between the two will be the amount we are worth. The amounts *we owe* are to be found in the Ledger and the Bills Payable Book. The amounts *due to us* in the Ledger, also, and the Bills Receivable Book. Besides these we must reckon as assets, Cash in hand, as will appear by balancing Cash Book, and stock on hand, which must be taken at a proper valuation.

Below will be found a GENERAL BALANCE SHEET, drawn up according to these instructions.

Dr. BALANCES. 31st December, 1880. *Cr.*

AMOUNTS DUE TO ME, OR ASSETS. AMOUNTS I OWE, OR LIABILITIES.

Folio in the Ledger.	Accounts extracted.	Balances as per Ledger.
7	B. Flock	$30 80
	Amount of book debts due *to* me	$30 80
	* Bills Receivable in my hands not yet due.	312 44
	Balance of Cash in hand	1,315 80
	Estimated value of stock in hand	1,390 28
		$3,049 24
	Balance in my favor	$2,090 44
	Which shows that after paying house and trade charges, rent and taxes, I have made a clear net profit of $90.44 on my capital of $2,000.	

* Enumerate each item.

Folio in the Ledger.	Accounts extracted.	Balances as per Ledger.
1	J. W. Bouton	$30 20
2	Dodd, Mead & Co	31 00
3	A. S. Barnes & Co	90 00
4	D. Appleton & Co	22 60
5	A. D. F. Randolph	82 60
6	W. H. Vernon	87
	Amount of book debts due *by* me	$343 40
	Bills accepted by me not yet due *	614 40
		$958 80
	Balance carried down	2,090 44
		$3,049 24

* Enumerate each bill separately.

Dr. CASH BOOK. *Cr.*

1880.				
Jan. 1..	*	To Capital	$2,000	
	*	Cash received for goods (ready money	14	80
3.	6	Tenter & Co., received for account of their house in Baltimore.	36	00
	7	B. Flock	20	00
4.	*	Cash received for goods (ready money).	6	60
			$2,067	60
Feb. 1....		To Balance	$1,654	40
			$1,654	40
March 1.		To Balance	$1,614	40
			$1,614	40
April 1...		To Balance	$1,484	40
6.	*	Bill receivable, No. 101, received in cash, this day	38	24
			$1,522	04
May 1 ...		To Balance	$1,315	80

1880.				
Jan. 2....	1	By amount paid J. W. Bouton	$80	00
	2	——— Dodd, Mead & Co	120	00
	3	——— A. S. Barnes & Co	150	00
	4	——— D. Appleton & Co	62	00
6.	*	By Trade Charges, Expenses and Wages to this day	11	00 20
			$423	20
		Balance to next month	$1,654	40
			$2,077	60
Feb. 5...	*	By Bill Payable, No. 104, due this day	$40	00
		Balance	1,614	40
			$1,654	40
March 5.	*	By Bill Payable, No. 101, due this day	$40	00
	*	Do do. 102, do	90	00
			130	00
		Balance	$1,484	40
			$1,614	40
April 5...	*	By Bill Payable, No. 103, due this day	$60	00
7.	7	A. D. F. Randolph for Flock's Acceptance, due this day returned unpaid	30	80
8.		One month's rent due this day	80	00
	*	——— Income Taxes	20	24
		——— City Taxes	15	20
			$206	24
		Balance	1,315	80
			$1,522	04

NOTE.—The amounts marked in the folio margin with a star, are not by *single* entry, posted in the Ledger; the Cash Book alone, under *that* system, being quite sufficient for their registery. Only accounts with *persons* are kept; not with *things* as in Double Entry. At the same time they may, if wished, be posted under their respective heads as matters of reference, but care must be taken not to include them in the BALANCE, of which they form no part.

DAY BOOK.

Folio in Ledger.			
	January 1, 1880		
1	Bought of J. W. Bouton Goods as per invoice	$150	20
2	Bought of Dodd, Mead & Co. Goods as per invoice	$240	10
3	Bought of A. S. Barnes Goods as per invoice	$300	
4	Bought of D. Appleton & Co. Goods as per invoice	$124	60
	2d		
5	Bought of A. D. F. Randolph Goods as per invoice	$188	60
	3d		
6	Sold Tenter & Co. Half Cash. Half Three Month's Bill		
	120 Dodd, Mead & Co.'s Hand Books	$24	00
	80 Novels	26	00
	40 Books, (assorted)	24	00
		$74	00
	Forwarded by Union Express.		
7	Sold B Flock 84 Assorted Books	$50	80
	4th		
8	Sold Roberts Bros. 72 Elements of Commerce Forwarded per U. S. Express.	$74	32
5	Paid A. D. F. Randolph Flock's Acceptance, due April 7 Roberts Bros.' Acceptance, due March 7.	$30 74	80 32
		$107	12

DAY BOOK—*Continued.*

Folio in Ledger.			
	January 4, 1880		
9	Bought of W. H. Vernon 200 Reams of Paper	$170	00
9	Sold W. H. Vernon 240 Odd Volumes all for	[illegible]	30
	November 1st		
10	Sold Ramsden & Co. Books	[illegible]	00
11	Sold S. Green Books	[illegible]	24
12	Sold G. Barrows Books	[illegible]	00
13	Sold W. Sinn Books	$120	00
14	Sold V. S. Brown Books	$74	20
	Dec. 20th		
15	Bought of Leggat Bros. Goods as per invoice	$52	00
16	Bought of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Goods as per invoice	$200	00
17	Bought of S. R. Wells Goods as per invoice	$192	40
18	Bought of J. R. Osgood & Co. Goods as per invoice	$170	80

N. B.—The folios should be marked in *red* ink.

1880. BILLS RECEIVABLE.

Folio.	Number of the Bill.	On whose account.	Date.	Time.	When due.	Amount.	
6	101	Tenter & Co.	January 3	3 months	April 6	$36	20
7	102	B Flock	" 4	3 "	" 7	32	80
8	103	Roberts Bros.	" 4	2 "	March 7	74	32
						$143	32
					1879.		
10	104	Ramsden & Co.	December 1	3 "	March 4	20	00
11	105	S. Green	" 1	3 "	" 4	18	24
12	106	G. Barrows	" 1	3 "	" 4	80	00
13	107	W. Sinn	" 1	3 "	" 4	120	00
14	108	V. S. Brown	" 1	3 "	" 4	74	20
						312	44

1880. BILLS PAYABLE.

Folio	Number of Bill.	By whom drawn.	Date.	Time.	When due.	Amount.	
1	101	J. W. Bouton	January 2	2 months	March 5	$40	00
2	102	Dodd, Mead & Co.	" 2	2 "	" 5	90	00
3	103	A. S. Barnes & Co.	" 2	3 "	April 5	60	00
4	104	D. Appleton & Co.	" 2	1 "	Feb. 5	40	00
						$230	00
					1879.		
15	105	Leggat Bros.	December 30	3 "	April 2	$52	20
16	106	Houghton, Mifflin & Co.	" 30	3 "	" 2	200	00
17	107	S. R. Wells	" 30	3 "	" 2	192	40
18	108	Jas. R. Osgood & Co.	" 30	3 "	" 2	170	80
						$615	40

THE LEDGER.

Folio 1. J. W. BOUTON.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	2	1	To cash	$80	00		Jan.	1	1	By goods	$150	20	
	2	1	To balance carried down	40	00								
Dec.	31		To bills payable, No. 101	30	20								
				150	20						150	20	
							Dec.	31		By balance brought down	150	20	

Folio 2. DODD, MEAD & CO.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	2	1	To cash	$120	00		Jan.	1	1	By goods	$241	00	
	2	1	To bills payable, No. 102	90	00								
Dec.	31		To balance carried down	31	00								
				241	00						241	00	
							Dec.	31		By balance brought down	31	00	

Folio 3. A. S. BARNES & CO.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	2	1	To cash	$150	00		Jan.	1	1	By goods	$300	00	
	2	1	To bills payable, No. 103	60	00								
Dec.	31		To balance carried down	90	00								
				300	00						300	00	
							Dec.	31		By balance brought down	90	00	

Folio 4. D. APPLETON & CO.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	2	1	To cash	$62	00		Jan.	1	1	By goods	$124	60	
	2	1	To bills payable, No. 104	40	00								
Dec.	31		To balance carried down	22	60								
				124	60						124	60	
							Dec.	31		By balance brought down	22	60	

Folio 5. A. D. F. RANDOLPH.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	4	1	To two bills receivable, paid them	$106	00		Jan.	1	1	By goods	$188	60	
Dec.	31		To balance carried down	82	60								
				188	60						188	60	
							Dec.	31		By balance brought down	82	60	

Folio 6. TENTER & Co., PHILADELPHIA.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880.						
Jan.	3	1	To goods	$72	40		Jan.	3	1	By cash	$36	20	
		1							1	By bill receivable, No. 101	36	20	
				72	40						72	40	

Folio 7. W. SINN, PARTSBURG, WEST VA.

Dr.							Cr.						
1880.							1880						
Jan.	3	1	To goods	$50	80		Jan.	3	11	By cash	$20	00	
April	7	1	To your acceptance returned unpaid	30	80			4	1	By bill receivable, No. 102	30	80	
							Dec.	31		By balance carried down	30	80	
				81	60						81	60	
Dec.	31		To balance brought down	30	80								

Folio 8. ROBERTS BROS., Boston.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Jan.	4	1	To goods	$74	32	Jan.	4	1	By bill receivable, No. 103	$74	32

Folio 9. W. H. VERNON.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Jan.	4	1	To goods	$82	30	Jan.	4	1	By goods	$169	30
Dec.	31		To balance carried down	87	00						
				169	30					169	30
						Dec.	31		By balance brought down	87	00

Folio 10. RAMSDEN & CO.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Nov.	1	1	To goods	$20	20	Dec.	1	1	By bill receivable, No. 104	$20	20

Folio 11 S. GREEN.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Nov.	1	1	To goods	$18	24	Dec.	1	1	By bill receivable, No. 105	$18	24

Folio 12. GEORGE BARROWS.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Nov.	1	1	To goods	$80	00	Dec.	1	1	By bill receivable, No. 106	$80	00

Folio 13. W. SINN.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Nov.	1	1	To goods	$120	00	Dec.	1	1	By bill receivable, No. 107	$120	00

Folio 14. V. S. BROWN.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Nov.	1	1	To goods	$74	20	Dec.	1	1	By bill receivable, No. 108	$74	20

Folio 15. LEGGAT BROS.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Dec.	30	1	To bill payable, No. 105	$52	20	Dec.	30	1	By goods	$52	20

Folio 16. HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Dec.	30	1	To bill payable, No. 106	$200	00	Dec.	30	1	By goods	$200	00

Folio 17. S. R. WELLS.

Dr.						Cr.					
1880.						1880.					
Dec.	30	1	To bill payable, No. 107	$192	40	Dec.	30	1	By goods	$192	40

Folio 18. JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO.

Dr.						Cr					
1880.						1880.					
Dec.	30	1	To bill payable, No. 108	$170	80	Dec.	30	1	By goods	$170	80

After the LEDGER has been duly examined, and it is seen that the balances are struck and brought down correctly, proceed to observe if those balances are transferred properly to the general BALANCE SHEET at page 213, which is the last operation of all.

Beyond this, Book-keeping by SINGLE ENTRY "can no further go." It is only a confined system, and its results are never demonstrated or proved. Errors of omission, of addition, and of wrong posting, may, and in large establishments *do* frequently occur without any means of detection, except the tiresome and frequently fallacious method of a re-examination of the entire books by another person. But by DOUBLE ENTRY, provided the system be a correct one, no error of any kind can escape without detection, because everything is verified by an infallible rule. Nevertheless the diligent study of the method of Single Entry is absolutely necessary as a preparatory step towards acquiring a knowledge of the other. No one can keep a set of books by Double Entry who does not understand Single Entry, because the one is based upon the other. When the learner has well studied what has already been laid before him, let him pass on to the following pages, where he will find *the same transactions* registered by Double Entry.

BOOK-KEEPING BY DOUBLE ENTRY.

This method differs from the former chiefly in making cash, stock, goods, &c., parties, as well as persons, and in making a debtor and creditor account in every transaction. Thus, if cloth is sold to A, A is made debtor to cloth, and cloth creditor to A; if cash is received from B, cash is made debtor to B, and B creditor to cash; and in every case the party, whether animate or inanimate, which receives is debtor to that which pays, and inversely. In Single Entry the record is single, and there it ends, whereas in Double Entry every transaction has a debit and credit, and every account in which it is not so represented is imperfect. Two parties are necessarily engaged in every transaction, and therefore each of them requires in his Ledger two separate accounts, one for himself, and a second for his customer or furnisher, as the case may be. Now, by the use of what are called nominal accounts representing the proprietor in his own Ledger, the double receptacle is provided which every transaction requires. The nominal accounts receive the counter entries of all the personal accounts, and through their operation the merchant is enabled to ascertain whether his business is profitable or the reverse. These accounts are those or Stock, Profit and Loss, and its branches. Stock is a term used to represent the proprietor, and it contains on the credit side the amount of the money, goods, or other property brought into trade; and on the debtor, the owner's liabilities. In Profit and Loss, the credit side exhibits the gain of the business, and the debit the loss. In Single Entry, nominal accounts have no place. There is a record only of the side of the accounts belonging to the person dealing with the concern, and none whatever of that which represents the owner. Such a method enables us to balance the accounts of each party, but exhibits no register by which the state of the stock in trade, and the balances of capital and cash, can be at once ascertained without a separate and independent investigation.

We have seen, that by Single Entry the items are transferred from the Cash Book, Day Book, and Bill Books, *at once*, into the Ledger; but in Double Entry, another book, called the JOURNAL, is necessarily used, in which the items from all the others are first arranged in proper form, and *then* passed into the Ledger. Thus, *posting* by Single Entry is done from several books; whereas by Double Entry from the Journal alone.

The old Italian method of keeping a Journal is fraught with so many crudities, useless repetitions, and technical jargon, that it has been long abandoned for one a thousand fold more simple in its construction, and perfect in its results. Instead of continually entering "Sundries Dr. to Cash," "Interest Dr. to Sundries," "Commission Dr. to A. B. C.," and "D. E. F. Dr. to Commission," with a multitude of such anomalies, the Journal is divided into two parts, (the right and left hand side of the book) the one called the Debtor side and the other the Creditor side. Under the Debtor side must be entered uninterruptedly everything that is to be debited; and under the Creditor side, everything that is to be credited; and both sides must agree, if the entering has been done correctly.

In addition to the *simplicity* of this arrangement, there are other advantages which may not be overlooked. In the first place, *all* the entries on one side of the Journal are posted upon the same side in the Ledger, a convenience which every book-keeper will know how to prize. Next, all the items for each account in a month are consolidated in *one* entry previous to posting, thus greatly reducing that labor, and offering the phenomenon of a Ledger wherein no account for one year can have more than twelve lines, one for each month; and, finally, the totals of each month in the Journal added together must correspond with the gross amount of all the totals in the Ledger, the last and surest demonstration of correctness which figures can offer.

Let us proceed to *Journalize* according to this method all the entries contained in the preceding DAY BOOK, CASH BOOK, BILLS PAYABLE BOOK and BILLS RECEIVABLE BOOK, (for which see pages 213, 214) begging the learner meanwhile, to recollect the following rules:—

1st. When GOODS are *sold*, the buyers must be debited and TRADE Account credited with the amount.
2d. When goods are *bought* Trade Account must be debited and the sellers credited for the amount.
3d. When CASH is *paid*, the parties receiving it must be debited and CASH ACCOUNT credited, and when it is *received* the Account must be debited and the payers credited.
4th. When Acceptances are *given*, the persons on whose account they are drawn must be debited, and BILLS PAYABLE credited; and when they are *received* BILLS RECEIVABLE must be debited and the party on whose account they are received must be credited.
5th. When Accepted Bills become due and are paid, BILLS PAYABLE must be debited and CASH credited; and when Bills to be received become due and are paid, CASH must be debited with the amount, and BILLS RECEIVABLE credited.
Finally. No entry can be made in the Ledger unless it be extracted from the Journal, consequently everything must go into the Journal first.

These rules must be most carefully heeded in order to rapidly acquire the science of book-keeping.

Dr. JOURNAL. January, 1880. *Cr.*

Tenter & Co.	3. Goods sold as per invoice....	74	00	J. W. Bouton.	1. Goods as per invoice.....	150	20
D. Flock.	3. ditto	50	80	Dodd, Mead & Co.	1. ditto	241	00
Roberts Bros.	4. ditto	74	32	A. S. Barnes & Co.	1. ditto	300	00
A. D. F. Randolph.	4. Paid them Bill Receivable, No. 102.....30 80			D. Appleton & Co.	1. ditto	124	60
	Idem 103.....74 32			A. D. F. Randolph.	2. ditto	186	60
		105	12	W. H. Vernon.	4. ditto	170	00
W. H. Vernon.	4. Goods, as per invoice.....	82	82	Bills Payable.	31. Amount of Bills accepted this month as per Bill Book.....	230	00
J. W. Bouton.	2. Bill Payable, No. 101...40 00						
	Cash paid them 80 00			Tenter & Co.	3. Bill Receivable No. 101..36 20		
		120	00		Cash received.....36 20		
						72	40
Dodd, Mead & Co.	2. Bill Payable, No. 102.. 90 00			B. Flock.	4. Bill Receivable No. 102. 30 80		
	Cash paid them ..... .120 00				3. Cash Received.... .....20 00		
		210	00			50	80
A. S. Barnes & Co.	2. Bill Payable, No. 103.. 60 00			Robert Bros.	4. Bill Receivable No. 102.....	74	32
	Cash paid them 150 00			Trade Account.	1. Cap'al invested this day 2,000		
		210	00		Goods sold this month :		
D. Appleton & Co.	2. Bill Payable, No. 104...40 00				3. To Tenter & Co.....74 00		
	Cash paid them 62 00				3. Flock.....50 80		
		102	00		4. Roberts Bros.....74 32		
Bills Receivable.	31. Amount received this month as per Bill Receivable book	142	20		W. H. Vernon.....82 30		
					1. Cash received.....14 80		
Cash.	31. Amount received this month as per Cash Book.....	2,076	34		4. Ditto 6 60		
						2,302	82
Trade Acount.	Goods bought this month :			Cash.	31. Amount paid this month as per Cash Book.....	420	42
	1. Of J. W. Bouton.....150 20			Bills Receivable.	4. No. 102, paid A. D. F. Randolph 30 80		
	1. Dodd, Mead & Co..241 00				No. 103, ditto 74 32		
	1. A. S. Barnes & Co..300 00					105	12
	1. D. Appleton & Co..124 60						
	4. A. D. F. Randolph.186 60						
	4. W. H. Vernon.....170 00						
	6. Cash paid charges as per Cash Book.... 10 28	1,182	68				
		4,430	28			4,430	28

February, 1880.

Bills Payable.	5. Cash paid, No. 104.....	40	00	Cash.	26. Amount paid this month as per Cash Book.....	40	00

Dr. March, 1880. *Cr.*

Bills Payable.	5. Cash paid No. 102.....	90	00	Cash.	31. Amount paid this month, as per Cash Book.....	130	00
	Ditto	40	00				
		130	00			130	00

April, 1880.

Bills Payable.	5. Cash paid No. 103.....	60	00	Cash.	30. Amount paid this month, as per Cash Book.....	206	44
B. Flock.	7. His bill returned unpaid.....	30	80	Bills Receivable.	6. Cash received No. 101.....	36	00
Charges on Trade.	8. Cash for rent.....80 00						
	Taxes 20 24						
	Taxes 15 20						
		115	44				
Cash.	30. Amount received this month per Cash Book.....	36	20				
		242	44			242	44

November, 1880.

Ramsden & Co.	1. Goods sold them.....	20	00	Trade Account.	Goods sold this month :—		
S. Green.	1. Goods sold him.....	18	24		1. To Ramsden & Co.....20 00		
G. Barrows.	1. Goods sold him.....	80	00		1. S. Green 18 24		
W. Sinn.	1. Goods sold him.....	120	00		1. G. Barrows.....80 00		
V. S. Brown.	1. Goods sold him.....	74	20		1. W. Sinn.....120 00		
					1. V. S Brown..... 74 10		
						312	44
		312	44			312	44

December, 1880.

Trade Account.	20. Goods bought this month :			Leggat Bros.	20. Goods bought by him.....	52	20
	Of Leggatt Bros..... 52 20			Houghton, Mifflin & Co.	20. Idem	200	00
	Houghton, Mifflin & Co.....200 00			S. R. Wells.	20. Idem	192	40
	S. R. Wells.....192 40			Jas. R. Osgood & Co.	20. Idem	170	80
	Jas. R. Osgood & Co..170 80			Bills Payable.	30. Bills accepted this month as per Bill Book.....	615	40
		615	40	Ramsden & Co.	1. Bill Receivable, No. 104....	20	00
Leggat Bros.	30. Bill Payable, No. 105.....	52	20	S. Green.	1. Idem No. 105. ..	19	84
Houghton, Mifflin & Co	30 Idem 106.....	206	00	G. Barrows.	1. Idem No. 106....	80	00
S. R. Wells.	30. Idem 107.....	192	40	W. Sinn.	1. Idem No. 107 ..	120	00
J. R. Osgood.	30. Idem 108.....	170	80	V. S. Brown.	1. Idem No. 108....	74	20
Bills Receivable.	31. Amount received this month as per Bill Book..... ...	714	04				
		1,544	84			1,544	84

THE LEDGER.

Wherein the contents of the preceding Journal are posted.

Dr.	TENTER & Co.	*Cr.*
1880.		
Jan. 3 To Goods	74 00	Jan. 31 By Sundries 74 00

Dr.	B. FLOCK.	*Cr.*
Jan. 3 To Goods	50 80	Jan. 31 By Sundries 50 80
April 7 To Bill returned	30 80	By Balance 30 80
	81 60	81 60
To Balance	30 00	

Dr.	ROBERTS BROS.	*Cr.*
Jan. 4 To Goods	74 32	By Bill Receivable 74 32

Dr.	A. D. F. RANDOLPH.	*Cr.*
Jan. 4 To Sundries	106 00	Jan. 2 By Goods 188 60
To Balance	82 66	
	188 60	188 60
		By Balance 82 60

Dr.	W. H. VERNON.	*Cr.*
Jan. 4 To Goods	82 30	Jan. 4 By Goods 189 30
To Balance	87 00	
	189 30	189 30
		By Balance 87 00

Dr.	J. W. BOUTON.	*Cr.*
Jan. 2 To Sundries	120 00	By Sundries 150 20
To Balance	30 20	
	150 20	150 20
		By Balance 30 10

Dr.	DODD, MEAD & Co.	*Cr.*
Jan. 2 To Sundries	210 00	Jan. 4 By Sundries 241 00
To Balance	31 00	
	241 00	210 00
		By Balance 31 00

Dr.	A. S. BAR NES & Co.	*Cr.*
Jan. 2 To Sundries	210 00	Jan. 1 By Goods 300 00
To Balance	90 00	
	300 00	300 00
		By Balance 90 00

Dr.	D. AP PLETON & Co.	*Cr.*
Jan. 2 To Sundries	102 00	Jan. 1 By Goods 124 60
To Balance	22 60	
	124 60	124 60
		By Balance 22 60

Dr.	BILLS RECEIVABLE.	*Cr.*
Jan. 31 To Sundries	142 20	Jan. 31 By Sundries 106 00
Dec. 31 Idem	314 40	April 30 Idem 36 20
		142 20
		Balance 314 40
	456 60	456 60
To Balance	314 40	

Dr.	CASH ACCOUNT.	*Cr.*
Jan. 31 To Sundries	2,076 34	Jan. 31 By Sundries 422 28
April 30 Idem	36 20	Feb. 29 Idem 40 00
		March 31 Idem 130 00
		April 30 Idem 206 40
		798 68
		Balance 1,313 86
	2,112 54	2,112 54
To Balance	1,313 80	

Dr.	TRADE ACCOUNT.	*Cr.*	
Jan. 31 To Sundries	1,184 34	Jan. 31 By Sundries	2,304 40
April 30 Idem	114 36	Nov. 30 Idem	308 84
Dec. 31 Idem	614 34		
	1,913 04		
Balance	700 20		
	2,613 24		2,613 24
		By Balance	700 20

Dr.	BILLS PAYABLE.	*Cr.*	
Feb. 28 To Sundries	40 00	Jan. 31 By Sundries	330 00
March 31 Idem	130 00	Dec. 31 Idem	614 34
April 30 Idem	60 00		
	230 00		
Balance	614 34		
	844 34		844 34
		By Balance	614 34

Dr.	RAMSDEN & Co.	*Cr.*	
Nov. 1 To Goods	20 00	Dec. 1 By Bill Receivable	20 00

Dr.	S. GREEN.	*Cr.*	
Nov. 1 To Goods	18 24	Dec. 1 By Bill Receivable, No. 105	18 24

Dr.	G. BERGER.	*Cr.*	
Nov. 1 To Goods	80 00	Dec. 1 By Bill Receivable, No. 106	80 00

Dr.	W. SINN.	*Cr.*	
Nov. 1 To Goods	120 00	Dec. 1 By Bill Receivable, No. 107	120 00

Dr.	V. S. BROWN.	*Cr.*	
Nov. 1 To Goods	74 20	Dec. 1 By Bill Receivable, No. 108	74 20

Dr.	LEGGAT BROS.	*Cr.*	
Dec. 30 To Bill Payable, No. 105	52 20	Dec. 20 By Goods	52 20

Dr.	HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co.	*Cr.*	
Dec. 30 To Bill Payable, No. 106	200 00	Dec. 20 By Goods	200 00

Dr.	S. R. WELLS.	*Cr.*	
Dec. 30 To Bill Payable, No. 107	192 40	Dec. 20 By Goods	192 40

Dr.	JAS. R. OSGOOD & Co.	*Cr.*	
Dec. 30 To Bill Payable, No. 108	170 80	Dec. 20 By Goods	170 80

In the preceding LEDGER we have posted under the head of TRADE ACCOUNT all goods bought and charges incurred (both in business and family matters) to the Debit; and to the Credit, the amount of my capital and goods sold, consequently the balance of this account added to the amount of stock on hand always shows the profit of the business. For instance:

Balance of the account	700 16
Value of stock on hand, as estimated in the Balance Sheet by *Single* Entry	1,390 28
Total balance in my favor as shown in the Balance Sheet by *Single* entry	2,090 44

But in partnership accounts, such a plan would not do, because domestic expenses cannot be charged to trade, nor should the respective capitals be included. In such cases separate accounts must be opened for each individual, which must be credited with their separate capitals and debited with their relative charges. At the end of the year, a balance is struck, the profit or loss determined, and the sum total divided into proper proportions, and transferred from the general Trade or Profit and Loss Account, to each individual's debit or credit, as the case may be.

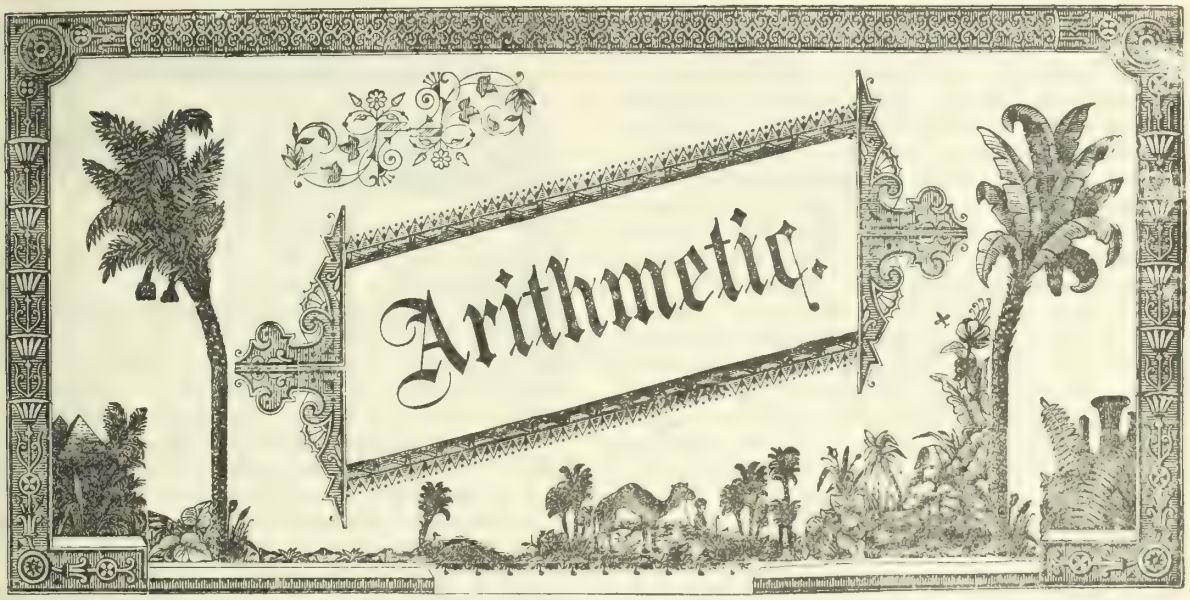
N. B.—A Profit and Loss *Account is merely another name for a Trade Account. All bad debts must be charged to that Account which shows the Profit and Loss (whatever the name may be), and the bad Accounts themselves closed by transfer.*

Let us now see if the Ledger is correct. To determine this, first extract all the totals, *Dr. Cr.* (before the balances are struck) which must not only agree with each other, but correspond as well with the sums total in the Journal. Put all the amounts at debit on one side, and the amounts at credit on the other. The totals must agree with the totals in the Journal. If this prove to be the fact, it is thus *demonstrated* that everything in the Journal has been posted in the Ledger.

Having thus seen that the totals on both sides of the Ledger not only agree with each other, but correspond as well with those of the Journal, which is *proof positive* that the books are correct, the next and last care will be to see that the balances are properly struck and brought down, which is done by extracting them, and observing that both sides are alike.

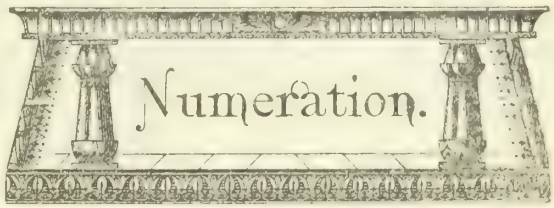
If they agree, the balancing has been properly done.

This is the final operation at the end of a year; and the Journal of the next should have for its first entries Debtor and Creditor, an exact copy of the Balance Sheet, registered the same as all other items and included in the monthly total



THE numerals now in use, with the mode of causing them by peculiar situation to express any number, and whereby the processes of arithmetic have been rendered so highly convenient, have heretofore been supposed to be of Indian origin, transmitted through the Persians to the Arabs, and by them introduced into Europe in the tenth century, when the Moors invaded and became masters of Spain. Such in reality appears to have been in a great measure the true history of the transmission of these numerals; but as it has been lately found that the ancient hieroglyphical inscriptions of Egypt contain several of them, learned men are now agreed that they originated in that early seat of knowledge, between which and India there exist more points of resemblance, and more traces of intercourse, than is generally supposed. In the eleventh century, Gerbert, a Benedictine monk of Fleury, and who afterwards ascended the Papal throne under the designation of Sylvester II., traveled into Spain, and studied for several years the sciences there cultivated by the Moors. Among other acquisitions, he gained from that singular people a knowledge of what are now called the *Arabic numerals*, and of the mode of arithmetic founded on them, which he forthwith disclosed to the Christian world, by whom at first his learning caused him to be accused of an alliance with evil spirits. The knowledge of this new arithmetic was about the same time extended, in consequence of the intercourse which the Crusaders opened between Europe and the East. For a long time, however, it made a very slow and obscure progress. The characters themselves appear to have been long considered in Europe as dark and mysterious. Deriving their whole efficacy from the use made of the cipher, so called from the Arabic word *tsaphara*, denoting *empty* or *void*, this term came afterwards to express, in general, any secret mark. Hence, in more troublous times than the present, a mode of writing was practiced, by means of marks previously concerted, and called *writing in cipher*. The Arabic characters occur in some arithmetical tracts composed in England during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, particularly in a work by John of Halifax, or De Sacrobosco; but another century elapsed before they were generally adopted. They do not appear to have settled into their present form till about the time of the invention of printing.

It would be impossible to calculate, even by their own transcendent powers, the service which the Arabic numerals have rendered to mankind.



THE Arabic numerals take the following well-known forms:—1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0. The first nine of these, called *digits*, or digital numbers, represent each one of the numbers between *one* and *nine*, and when thus employed to represent single numbers, they are considered as *units*. The last (0), called a *nought*, nothing or cipher, is, in reality, taken by itself, expressive of an absence of number, or nothing; but, in connection with other numbers, it becomes expressive of number in a very remarkable manner.

The valuable peculiarity of the Arabic notation is the enlargement and variety of values which can be given to the figures by associating them. The number ten is expressed by 1 and 0 put together—thus, 10; and all the numbers from this up to a hundred can be expressed in like manner by the asso-

ciation of two figures—thus, twenty, 20; thirty, 30; eighty-five, 85; ninety-nine, 99. These are called decimal numbers, from *decem*, Latin for ten. The numbers between a hundred and nine hundred and ninety-nine inclusive are, in like manner, expressed by three figures—thus, a hundred, 100; five hundred, 500; eight hundred and eighty-five, 885; nine hundred and ninety-nine, 999. Four figures express thousands; five, tens of thousands; six, hundreds of thousands; seven, millions; and so forth. Each figure, in short, put to the left hand of another, or of several others, multiplies that one or more numbers by ten. Or if to any set of figures a nought (0) be added towards the right hand, that addition multiplies the number by ten; thus 999, with 0 added, becomes 9990, nine thousand nine hundred and ninety. Thus it will be seen that, in notation, the *rank* or place of any figure in a number is what determines the value which it bears. The figure third from the right hand is always one of the hundreds; that which stands seventh always expresses millions; and so on. And whenever a new figure is added towards the right, each of the former set obtains, as it were, a promotion, or is made to express ten times its former value.

1, 2 3 4, 5 6 7, 8 9 0
Units. Tens. Hundreds. Thousands. Tens of thousands. Hundreds of thousands. Millions. Tens of millions. Hundreds of millions. Thousands of millions.

A large number is thus expressed in the Arabic numerals, every set of three from the right to the left hand being divided by a comma for the sake of distinctness.

The above number is therefore one thousand two hundred and thirty-four millions, five hundred and sixty-seven thousands, eight hundred and ninety. Higher numbers are expressed differently in France and England. In the former country, the tenth figure expresses billions, from which there is an advance to tens of billions, hundreds of billions, trillions, etc. In our country, the eleventh figure expresses ten thousands of millions, the next hundreds of thousands of millions, the next billions, etc. The two plans will be clearly apprehended from the following arrangement:—

ENGLISH METHOD.	FRENCH METHOD.
Units.	Units.
Tens.	Tens.
Hundreds.	Hundreds.
Thousands.	Thousands.
Tens of thousands.	Tens of thousands.
Hundreds of thousands.	Hundreds of thousands.
Millions.	Millions.
Tens of millions.	Tens of millions.
Hundreds of millions.	Hundreds of millions.
Thousands of millions.	Billions.
Ten thousands of millions.	Tens of billions.
Hundreds of thousands of millions.	Hundreds of billions.
Billions.	Trillions.
Tens of billions.	Tens of trillions.
Hundreds of billions, etc.	Hundreds of trillions, etc.

SIMPLE OR ABSTRACT NUMBERS.

There are four elementary departments in arithmetic—Addition, Multiplication, Subtraction, and Division.

ADDITION.

ADDITION is the adding or summing up of several numbers, for the purpose of finding out their united amount. We add numbers together when we say, 1 and 1 make 2; 2 and 2 make 4; and so on. The method of writing numbers in addition, is to place the figures under one another so that units will stand under units, tens under tens, hundreds under hundreds, etc. Suppose we wish to add together the following numbers—27, 5, 536, 352, and 275; we range them in columns one under the other, as in the margin, and draw a line under the whole. Beginning at the lowest figure of the right-hand column, we say 5 and 2 are 7—7 and 6 are 13—13 and 5 are 18—18 and 7 are 25; that is, 2 tens and 5 units. We now write the five below the line of units, and *carry* or add the 2 tens, or 20, to the lowest figure of the next column. In carrying this 20, we let the cipher go, it being implied by the position or rank of the first figure, and take only the 2; we therefore proceed thus—2 and 7 are 9—9 and 5 are 14—14 and 3 are 17—17 and 2 are 19. Writing down the 9, we proceed with the third column, carrying 1, thus—1 and 2 are 3—3 and 3 are 6—6 and 5 are 11. No more figures remaining to be added, both these figures are now put down, and the amount or sum of them all is found to be 1195. Following this plan, any quantity of numbers may be summed up. Should the amount of any column be in three figures, still only the last or right-hand figure is to be put down, and the other two carried to the next column. For example, if the amount of a column be 127, put down the 7 and carry the other two figures, which are 12; if it be 234, put down the 4 and carry 23.

```
 27
  5
536
352
275
----
1195
```

For the sake of brevity in literature, addition is often denoted by the figure of a cross, of this shape +. Thus, 7+6 means 7 added to 6; and in order to express the sum resulting, the sign =, which means *equal to*, is employed, as 7+6 =13; that is, 7 and 6 are equal to 13.

The **Sign of Dollars** is $. It is read *dollars*. Thus, $64 dollars is read 64 *dollars*; $5 is read 5 *dollars*. When *dollars* and *cents* are written, a period or point (.) is placed before the cents, or between the dollars and cents. Thus, $4.25 is read 4 dollars and 25 cents. Since 100 cents make $1.00, *cents* always occupy *two* places, and never more than two.

If the number of cents is less than 10 and expressed by a single figure, a *cipher* must occupy the first place at the right of the point. Thus, 3 dollars 6 cents are written $3.06; 1 dollar 5 cents are written $1.05. When cents alone are written, and their number is less than 100, either write the *word* cents *after* the number, or place the dollar sign and the point *before* the number. Thus, 75 cents may be expressed, $.75. In arranging for addition, dollars should be written under dol-

lars, and cents under cents, in such order that the *points* stand in a *vertical* line.

The *sign* $, and the *point* (.) should never be omitted.

Multiplication.

MULTIPLICATION is a short method of addition under certain circumstances. If we wish to ascertain the amount of twelve times the number 57, instead of setting down twelve rows of 57, and adding them together, we adopt a shorter plan by which we come to the same conclusion. For ascertaining the amount of all simple numbers as far as 12 times 12, young persons commit to memory the following Multiplication Table, a knowledge of which is of great value, and saves much trouble in after-life :—

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60	66	72
7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70	77	84
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72	80	88	96
9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81	90	99	108
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
11	22	33	44	55	66	77	88	99	110	121	132
12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108	120	132	144

This table is so well known, that it is almost superfluous to explain that, when any number in the top row is multiplied by any number in the left-hand side row, the amount is found in the compartment or square beneath the one and opposite the other. Thus, 2 times 2 are 4 ; 5 times 6 are 30 ; 12 times 12 are 144.

The multiplying of numbers beyond 12 times 12 is usually effected by a process of calculation in written figures. The rule is to write down the number to be multiplied, called the *multiplicand ;* then place under it, on the right-hand side, the number which is to be the *multiplier*, and draw a line under them. For example, to find the amount of 9 times 27, we set down the figures thus—

27 (*Multiplicand.*)
9 (*Multiplier.*)

243 (*Product.*)

Beginning with the right-hand figure, we say 9 times 7 are 63 ; and putting down 3 we carry 6, and say 9 times 2 are 18, and 6, which was carried, makes 24 ; and writing down these figures next the 3, the product is found to be 243.

When the multiplier consists of two or more figures, place it so that its right-hand figure comes exactly under the right-hand figure of the multiplicand; for instance, to multiply 5463 by 34, we proceed as here shown. Here the number is multiplied, first by the 4, the product of which being written down, we proceed to multiply by 3, and the amount produced is placed below the other, but one place farther to the left. A line is then drawn, and the two products added together, bringing out the result of 185742. We may, in this manner, multiply by three, four, five, or any number of figures, always placing the product of one figure below the other, but shifting a place farther to the left in each line. An example is here given in the multiplying of 76843 by 4563.

5463
34
21852
16389
185742

76843
4563
230,529
4,610,58
38,421,5
307,372
350,634,609

Multiplication is denoted by a cross of this shape × : thus 3 × 8 = 24, signifies, that by multiplying 8 by 3, the product is 24. A number which is produced by the multiplication of two other numbers, as 30 by 5 and 6, leaving nothing over, is called a *composite* number. The 5 and 6, called the *factors* (that is, workers or agents), are said to be the *component parts* of 30, and 30 is also said to be a multiple of either of these numbers. The equal parts into which a number can be reduced, as the twos in thirty, are called the aliquot parts. A number which cannot be produced by the multiplication of two other numbers, is called a *prime number.* When the multiplicand and multiplier are the same, that is, when a number is multiplied by itself once, the product is called the *square* of that number : 144 is the square of 12.

Subtraction.

SUBTRACTION is the deducting of a smaller number from a greater, to find what remains, or the difference between them.

The **Sign of Subtraction** is —. It is read *minus*, and signifies *less.*

When placed between two numbers, it indicates that the one *after* it is to be subtracted from the one *before* it. Thus, 12 — 7 is read 12 *minus* 7, and means that 7 is to be *subtracted* from 12.

A **Parenthesis** ( ) is used to include within it such numbers as are to be considered together. A **Vinculum** ‾‾‾ has the same signification. Thus, 25 — (12 + 7), or 25 — 12 + 7, signifies that from 25 the sum of 12 and 7 is to be subtracted.

PRINCIPLES.—1. *Only like numbers and units of the same order can be subtracted.*

2. *The minuend must be equal to the sum of the subtrahend and remainder.*

We subtract when we say, take 3 from 5, and 2 remains. To ascertain what remains, after taking 325 from 537, we proceed by writing the one under the other as here indicated, and then subtracting. Commencing at 5, the right-hand figure of the lower and smaller number, we say, 5 from 7, and 2 remains; setting down the 2, we say next, 2 from 3, and 1 remains; and setting down the 1, we say, 3 from 5, and 2 remains; total remainder, 212.

```
537
325
---
212
```

To subtract a number of a higher value, involving the *carrying* of figures and supplying of tens, we proceed as in the margin. Commencing as before, we find that 5 cannot be subtracted from 2, and therefore supply or lend 10 to the 2, making it 12; then we say, 5 from 12, and 7 remains. Setting down the 7, we take 1, being the decimal figure of the number which was borrowed, and give it to the 1, making it 2, and taking 2 from 3, we find that 1 remains. Setting down the 1, we go to the 8, and finding it cannot be taken from the 4 above it, we lend 10 to the 4, making it 14, and then we say, 8 from 14, and 6 remains. In the same manner as before, adding the first figure of the borrowed number (1) to the 6, we say, 7 from 8, and 1 remains; thus the total remainder is found to be 1617. From these explanations, which apply to all calculations in subtraction, it will be observed, that when the upper figure is less than the figure directly under it, 10 is to be added, and for this *one* is carried or added to the next under figure.

```
8432
6815
----
1617
```

A man having $15, paid $4 for a hat, and $2 for a vest. How many dollars had he left?

ANALYSIS.—The difference between $15, and the sum of $4 and $2, which is $9.

DIVISION.

DIVISION is that process by which we discover how often one number may be contained in another, or by which we divide a given number into any proposed number of equal parts. By the aid of the Multiplication Table, we can ascertain without writing figures how many times any number is contained in another, as far as 144, or 12 times 12; beyond this point notation is employed. There are two modes of working questions in division, one long and the other short. Let it be required to divide 69 by 3: according to the long method, write the figures 69 as annexed, with a line at each side, and the divisor, or 3, on the left. The question is wrought out by examining how many times 3 is in 6, and finding it to be 2 times, we place 2 on the right side; then placing 6 below six, we draw a line and bring down the 9, and proceed with it in the same manner. The quotient is found to be 23.

```
3)69(23
 6
 -
 9
 9
```

But we take a more difficult question—the division of 7958 by 6. In commencing we find that there is only one 6 in 7, and 1 over; we therefore place the 6 below the 7, and subtract it, in order to bring out the 1. The 1 being written, we bring down the 9 to it, and this makes 19. There being 3 times 6 in 18, we place the 3 to the product (which in division is called the *quotient*, literally, How many times?) and 18 below the 19, leaving 1 over as before. To this 1 we bring down the 5, and trying how many sixes there are in 15, it appears there are only 2. We place 2 to the quotient, and 12 below the 15. This leaves 3 over, and bringing down 8 to the 3, we have 38, in which there are 6 sixes. Six sixes make 36; therefore, placing 6 to the quotient, and 36 below the 38, we find that there are 2 over. Here the account terminates, it being found that there are 1326 sixes in 7958, with a remainder of 2 over. In this question, 6 is called the *divisor;* the 7958 is the *dividend*, and 1326 is the *quotient.*

```
6)7958(1326
 6
 -
 19
 18
 --
  15
  12
  --
   38
   36
   --
    2
```

Skillful arithmeticians never adopt this long method of division; they pursue a plan of working out part of the question in the mind, called short division. They would, for example, treat the above question as here shown. The over number of 1 from the 7 is carried in the mind to the 9, making 19; the 1 from 19 is in the same manner carried to the 5; and the 3 from it is carried to the 8, leaving the overplus of 2.

```
6)7958
------
1326-2
```

In **Short Division** the quotient only is written, the operations being performed *mentally*. It is generally used when the divisor does not exceed 12.

Divide $48.56 by 8 cents.

Eight cents may be written $.08.

OPERATION.

```
$.08)$48.56
---------
 607 times.
```

When the divisor and dividend are like numbers, the quotient is an abstract number. Hence, 8 cents are contained in $48.56, 607 *times*.

Division is denoted by the following character ÷; thus, 75 ÷ 25, signifies that 75 is to be divided by 25.

These explanations conclude the subject of simple or abstract numbers. On the substructure of the few rules in Addition, Multiplication, Subtraction, and Division, which we have given, whether in reference to whole numbers or fractions, every kind of conventional arithmetic is erected, because these rules are founded in immutable truths. Mankind may change their denominations of money, weights, and measures, but they can make no alteration in the doctrine of *abstract* numbers. That 2 and 2 are equal to 4, is a truth yesterday, to-day, and forever.

FRACTIONS.

HITHERTO we have spoken only of whole numbers which in arithmetic are called *integers*. We have now to treat of fractions, or the parts into which integers may be broken. The more ordinary fractions of any single article or number are a half, third, quarter, etc.; but a number admits of being divided into any quantity of equal parts. All such fractions are called *vulgar fractions*, from their being common. It is the practice to write vulgar fractions with two or more small figures, one above the other, with a line between, as follows: $\frac{1}{2}$ (one-half), $\frac{1}{3}$ (one-third,) $\frac{1}{4}$ (one-fourth or quarter), $\frac{1}{8}$ (one-eighth), $\frac{2}{5}$ (four-fifths), $\frac{9}{10}$ (nine-tenths), and so on. In these and all other instances, the upper number is called the *numerator*, the lower the *denominator*.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF FRACTIONS.

1. Multiplying the numerator, or Dividing the denominator,	Multiplies the fraction.
2. Dividing the numerator, or Multiplying the denominator,	Divides the fraction.
3. Multiplying or dividing both numerator and denominator by the same number,	Does not change the value of the fraction.

These three principles may be embraced in one

GENERAL LAW.

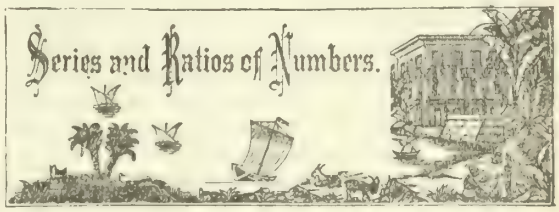
A change in the *numerator* produces a *like* change in the value of the fraction; but a change in the *denominator* produces an *opposite* change in the value of the fraction.

It may happen that it is necessary to add together different fractions to make up whole numbers. In working all such questions, we must, in the first place, bring all the fractions into one kind; if we have to add $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{8}$ together, we make all into eighths, and see how many eighths we have got; thus $\frac{1}{2}$ is $\frac{4}{8}$; then $\frac{1}{4}$ is $\frac{2}{8}$, that is 2 and 4, which make 6, and $\frac{1}{8}$ makes a total of $\frac{7}{8}$. The same plan is to be pursued in the subtraction of vulgar fractions.

It is necessary sometimes to speak of the tenths, hundredths, or thousandths of a number, and for this arithmetic has provided a system of *decimal fractions*. Where great exactness of expression is required, decimals are indispensable. It has been already shown that, in writing common numbers, the value of a figure increases by ten times as we proceed from right to left; in other words, we ascend by tens. Now, there is nothing to prevent us in the same manner descending by tens from unity. This is done by decimal fractions. We place a dot after unity, or the unit figure, which dot cuts off the whole number from its fractional tenths; thus 120.3 means 120 and 3-tenths of a whole; if we write 120.31, the meaning is 120 and 31-hundredths of a whole, that is, 31 parts in 100 into which a whole is supposed to be divided. If we go on adding a figure to the right, we make the fraction into thousandths; as, for instance, 120.315, which signifies 120 and 315 out of a thousand parts.

Tables of specific gravities, population, mortality, and many matters of statistics, are greatly made up of decimal fractions, and therefore it is proper that all should comprehend the principle on which they are designed. In many cases, it would answer the purpose to write the fractions as vulgar fractions; but there is a great advantage in reducing all broken parts to the decimal notation, for it allows of adding up columns of decimals all of the same denomination. Their great excellence, indeed, consists in the uniformity which they give to calculations, and the easy methods which, by these means, they present of pursuing fractional numbers to any degree of minuteness.

The method of reducing a vulgar to a decimal fraction is a simple question in division. For instance, to reduce $\frac{3}{4}$ to a decimal, we take the 3, and putting two ciphers after it, divide by 4, thus— $\frac{4)300}{.75}$; therefore, .75 is the decimal, or, what is the same thing, 75-hundredth parts of a whole are equal to the three-quarters of a whole.



A SERIES of numbers is a succession of numbers that increase or decrease according to some law. Of the two kinds of series usually treated of in arithmetic, the simpler is one whose terms increase or decrease by some constant number called the *common difference*. This common difference or rate of increase is only *one*, when we say, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; it is *two*, when we say 7, 9, 11, 13; and *four*, when we say 6, 10, 14, 18, and so on. Every advancement of this nature, by which the same number is added at every step, is called *arithmetical progression*. There is a different species of advancement, by which the last number is always multiplied by a given number, thus causing the series to mount rapidly up. Suppose 4 is the multiplier, and we begin at 2, the progression will be as follows: 2, 8, 32, 128, 512, 2048, and so on. It is here observed, that multiplying the 2 by 4 we have 8; multiplying the 8 by 4, we have 32; and multiplying the 32 by 4, we have 128, etc., till at the fifth remove we attain 2048. This kind of advancement of numbers is called *geometrical progression*. The very great difference between the two kinds of progression is exemplified in the following two lines, the number 3 being added in the one case and being used as the multiplier in the other:

3, 8, 11, 14, 17—Arithmetical Progression.
5, 15, 45, 135, 405—Geometrical Progression.

In the case of arithmetical progression, as above or in any other manner exemplified, it may be noticed that the amount of the first and last term is always the same as twice the amount of the middle term; thus 5 and 17 being 22, are equal to twice 11, or 22. The cause of this is, that as the numbers increase or decrease in equal degrees, the last number is just as much more as the first is less than the number in the middle; and the two being added, the amount must consequently be double the central number. The same rule holds good with respect to any two numbers at equal distances from the number in the middle. If the series be an even number, and do not possess a middle term, then the two terms nearest the middle (called the mean terms) must be added together: thus in the natural series from 1 to 24, 12 and 13 are the two nearest the middle, and one being added to the other makes 25, the sum of the first and last term.

In geometrical progression, each term is a factor of all the numbers or terms that follow, and a product of all that go before, so that there is an harmonious ratio pervading the whole. Each term bears an exact proportion to its predecessor, because the multiplier is the same. Supposing, as above, the multiplier to be 3, the term 15 is proportionally greater than 5, as 45 is greater than 15. In the technical language of arithmetic, as 15 is to 5, so is 45 to 15. To save words such a proposition is written down with dots, thus—15 : 5 :: 45 : 15. The two dots mean *is to*, and four dots mean *so is*. The same formula is applicable to any series of proportional terms, though not in continued proportion to each other.

In order to discover the ratio between any two terms we divide the largest by the least, and the quotient is the ratio: 45 divided by 15 gives 3 as the ratio. By thus ascertaining the ratio of two terms, we are furnished with the means of arriving at the ratio of other terms. We cannot do better than explain the method of working out this principle in the ratio of numbers, by giving the following passages from the admirable *Lessons on Arithmetic*, by Mr. T. Smith of Liverpool. Taking the four regularly advancing terms, 15, 45, 405, and 1215, he proceeds: "Suppose that we had only the first three, and that it were our wish to find the fourth, which term bears the same proportion to the third as the second does to the first. The thing we have first to do, is to discover the ratio between the first and second terms, in order to do which, as before shown, we divide the larger by the smaller, and this gives us the ratio 3, with which, by multiplying the third term, we produce the fourth; or, let the three terms be these, 405, 1215, 5, and let it be our wish to find a fourth which shall bear the same relation to the 15 as 1215 does to 405. We divide and multiply as before, and the fourth term is produced. And in this manner, having *two* numbers, or two quantities of any kind, bearing a certain proportion towards each other, and a *third*, to which we would find a number or quantity that should bear a like proportion, in this manner do we proceed, and thus easily may we find the number we require."

Referring to the discovered ratio of 45 to 15 to be 3, or the fifteenth part—"Now" (continues this author), "what would have been the consequence had we multiplied the third term (405) by the whole, instead of by a fifteenth part of the second? The consequence would have been, that we should have had a term or number fifteen times larger than that required. But this would be a matter of no difficulty; for it would be set right at once and our purpose gained, by dividing the overlarge product by 15. Let us write this process down: 405 × 45 = 18225, and 18225 ÷ 15 = 1215,—which 1215 bears the same proportion to 405 as does 45 to 15. And this is the rule, when the terms are properly placed—*multiplying the second and third terms together, and dividing the product by the first;* this avoids all difficulties arising from the occurrence of fractions in the course of the process, and gives us, in all cases, any proportional terms we may require."

Rule of Three.

ON the principle now explained, we can, in any affairs of business, ascertain the amount of an unknown quantity, by knowing the amount of other three quantities, which, with the unknown quantity, bear a proportional relation. The word *quantity* is here used, but any *sum of money* is also meant.

Let it be remembered, that the *ratio* of one number to another is the number of times that the former contains the latter; for example, the ratio of 6 to 3 is 2, that of 12 to 4 is 3, and that of 8 to 12 is $\frac{2}{3}$. When two numbers have the same ratio as other two, they constitute a *proportion*. Thus, the ratio of 8 to 6 is the same as that of 12 to 9, and the equality of these two ratios is represented thus:

8 : 6 = 12 : 9, or, 8 : 6 :: 12 : 9.

The following is the rule for stating and working questions:—Make that term which is of the same kind as the answer sought, the *second* or *middle* term. Consider, from the nature of the question, whether the answer should be more or less than this term; if *more*, make the *smaller* of the other two terms the *first*, and the *greater* the *third*; if the answer should be *less* than the middle term, make the *greater* of the two terms the *first*, and the *smaller* the *third*; then multiply the second and third terms together and divide the result by the first term. The quotient found will be the answer to the question, and it will be found to bear the same proportion to the third term as the second does to the first.

Such is the principle of working Rule of Three questions, whatever be their apparent complexity. If either the first or third term, or both, include fractional parts, they must be reduced to the denomination of the fractions before working; thus if one be reduced to shillings, the other must be made shillings also; if to pence, both must be pence, and so

on. If the middle term be also a compound quantity, it may either be reduced to its lowest term, before multiplying and dividing by the other terms, or you may multiply and divide by Compound Division and Multiplication.



INTEREST is a sum paid for the use of money. The **Principal** is the sum for the use of which interest is paid. The **Rate of Interest** is the per cent., or number of hundredths of the principal, paid for its use *one year*. The **Amount** is the sum of the principal and the interest.

PRINCIPLE.—*The interest is the product of three factors, namely: the principal, rate per annum, and time.*

To find the int. on $120.60 for 3 yr. 4 mo. at 8%.

OPERATION.

$120.60 = Principal.
.08 = Rate per cent.

$9.6480 = Int. for 1 year.
$3\frac{1}{3}$ = Time in years.

$32.160 = Int. for 3 yr. 4 mo.

ANALYSIS.—Since the interest of any sum at 8% for 1 yr. is .08 of the principal, the interest of $120.60 at 8% for 1 yr. is $9.648; and the interest for 3 yr. 4 mo. is $3\frac{1}{3}$ times $9.648, or $32.16.

RULE.—I. *Multiply the principal by the rate per cent., and the product will be the interest for 1 year.*

II. *Multiply the interest for 1 year by the time in years and the fraction of a year, and the product will be the required interest.*

In ordinary business transactions involving interest, 30 days are considered one month, and 12 months, 1 year.

To find the interest of $175 for 1 yr. 7 mo. 15 da. at 7%.

OPERATION.

$175 = Principal.
.07 = Rate per cent.

2 | $12.25 = Int. for 1 yr.
6 | 6.125 = Int. for 6 mo.
2 | 1.020 = Int. for 1 mo.
.510 = Int. for 15 da.

$19.905 = Int. for 1 yr. 7 mo. 15 da.
$175 = Principal.

$194.905 = Amt. for 1 yr. 7 mo. 15 da.

ANALYSIS.—First multiplying the principal by the rate %, we have $12.25, the int. for 1 yr. Then, for 6 mo. take $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 year's int., for 1 mo. take $\frac{1}{6}$ of 6 months' int., and for 15 da. take $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 month's int. The sum of the several results is the int. for the whole time.

Adding the principal to the interest gives the *amount*.

An easy and uniform method of computing interest, D. Fish's method, is to place the principal, the rate, and the time in *months*, on the right of a *vertical* line, and 12 on the left; or, if the time is short and contains days, reduce to days, and place 360 on the left. After canceling equal factors on both sides of the line, the product of the remaining factors on the right, divided by the factor, if any, on the left, will give the required interest.

To find the interest of $184.80 for 1 yr. 5 mo. at 5%.

OPERATION.

$184.80
.05
12 | 17

$13.09, *Ans.*

ANALYSIS.—$184.80 × .05 gives the interest for 1 yr or 12 months, which divided by 12 gives the interest for 1 month; the quotient multiplied by 17, the number of months in 1 yr. 5 mo., gives $13.09, the interest required.

To find the interest of $240 for 2 mo. 18 da. at 7%.

OPERATION.

$240
.07
360 | 78

3 | $10.92

$3.64, *Ans.*

ANALYSIS.—$240 × .07 gives the interest for 1 year or 360 days, which divided by 360 gives the interest for 1 day; the quotient multiplied by 78, the number of days in 2 mo. 18 da., gives $3.64, the required interest.

To find the interest of $696 for 93 da. at 1% a month. Of $325.20 at $\frac{1}{2}$% a month for 63 da.

OPERATION.

$696
.12
5 | 360 | 93

5 | $107.88

$21.576, *Ans.*

OPERATION.

$325.20
.005
360 | 63

$5.103 *Ans.*

See interest tables in our Lightning Calculator.

An **Aliquot Part** or **Even Part** of a number is such a part as will exactly divide that number. Thus, 2, $2\frac{1}{2}$, $3\frac{1}{3}$, and 5, are aliquot parts of 10.

An *aliquot part* may either be an integer or a mixed number, while a *component factor* must be an integer.

ALIQUOT PARTS OF ONE DOLLAR.

5 cents = $\frac{1}{20}$ of $1.	$6\frac{1}{4}$ cents = $\frac{1}{16}$ of $1.
10 cents = $\frac{1}{10}$ of $1.	$8\frac{1}{3}$ cents = $\frac{1}{12}$ of $1.
20 cents = $\frac{1}{5}$ of $1.	$12\frac{1}{2}$ cents = $\frac{1}{8}$ of $1.
25 cents = $\frac{1}{4}$ of $1.	$16\frac{2}{3}$ cents = $\frac{1}{6}$ of $1.
50 cents = $\frac{1}{2}$ of $1.	$33\frac{1}{3}$ cents = $\frac{1}{3}$ of $1

Arithmetical Amusements.

TO TELL ANY NUMBER THOUGHT OF.

DESIRE any person to think of a number, say a certain number of shillings; tell him to borrow that sum of some one in the company, and add the number borrowed to the amount thought of. It will here be proper to name the person who lends him the shillings and to beg the one who makes the calculation to do it with great care, as he may readily fall into an error, especially the first time. Then, say to the person—"I do not lend you, but give you 10, add them to the former sum." Continue in this manner—"Give the half to the poor, and retain in your memory the other half." Then add:—"Return to the gentleman, or lady, what you borrowed, and remember that the sum lent you was exactly equal to the number thought of." Ask the person if he knows exactly what remains. He will answer "Yes." You must then say—"And I know, also, the number that remains; it is equal to what I am going to conceal in my hand." Put into one of your hands five pieces of money, and desire the person to tell how many you have got. He will answer five; upon which open your hand, and show him the five pieces. You may then say—"I well knew that your result was five; but if you had thought of a very large number, for example, two or three millions, the result would have been much greater, but my hand would not have held a number of pieces equal to the remainder." The person then supposing that the result of the calculation must be different, according to the difference of the number thought of, will imagine that it is necessary to know the last number in order to guess the result: but this idea is false; for, in the case which we have here supposed, whatever be the number thought of, the remainder must always be five. The reason of this is as follows:—The sum, the half of which is given to the poor, is nothing else than twice the number thought of, plus 10; and when the poor have received their part, there remains only the number thought of, plus 5; but the number thought of is cut off when the sum borrowed is returned, and, consequently, there remain only 5

It may be hence seen that the result may be easily known, since it will be the half of the number given in the third part of the operation; for example, whatever be the number thought of, the remainder will be 36 or 25, according as 72 or 50 have been given. If this trick be performed several times successively, the number given in the third part of the operation must be always different; for if the result were several times the same, the deception might be discovered. When the first five parts of the calculation for obtaining a result are finished, it will be best not to name it at first, but to continue the operation, to render it more complex, by saying, for example:—"Double the remainder, deduct 2, add 3, take the fourth part," etc.; and the different steps of the calculation may be kept in mind, in order to know how much the first result has been increased or diminished. This irregular process never fails to confound those who attempt to follow it.

A Second Method.—Bid the person take 1 from the number thought of, and then double the remainder; desire him to take 1 from the double, and to add to it the number thought of; in the last place, ask him the number arising from this addition, and, if you add 3 to it, the third of the sum will be the number thought of. The application of this rule is so easy, that it is needless to illustrate it by an example.

A Third Method.—Desire the person to add 1 to the triple of the number thought of, and to multiply the sum by 3; then bid him add to this product the number thought of, and the result will be a sum, from which, if 3 be subtracted, the remainder will be ten times the number required; and if the cipher on the right be cut off from the remainder, the other figure will indicate the number sought.

Example:—Let the number thought of be 6, the triple of which is 18; and if 1 be added, it makes 19; the triple of this last number is 57, and if 6 be added, it makes 63, from which, if 3 be subtracted, the remainder will be 60; now, if the cipher on the right be cut off, the remaining figure, 6, will be the number required.

A Fourth Method.—Bid the person multiply the number thought of by itself; then desire him to add 1 to the number thought of, and to multiply it also by itself; in the last place, ask him to tell the difference of these two products, which will certainly be an odd number, and the least half of it will be the number required. Let the number thought of, for example, be 10, which, multiplied by itself, give 100; in the next place, 10 increased by 1 is 11, which, multiplied by itself, makes 121; and the difference of these two squares is 21, the least half of which, being 10, is the number thought of. This operation might be varied by desiring the person to multiply the second number by itself, after it has been diminished by 1,

in this case, the number thought of will be equal to the greater half of the difference of the two squares. Thus, in the preceding example, the square of the number thought of is 100, and that of the same number less 1, is 81; the difference of these is 19; the greater half of which, or 10, is the number thought of.

TO TELL TWO OR MORE NUMBERS THOUGHT OF.

If one or more of the numbers thought of be greater than 9, we must distinguish two cases; that in which the number or the numbers thought of is odd, and that in which it is even.

In the first case, ask the sum of the first and second, of the second and third, the third and fourth, and so on to the last, and then the sum of the first and the last. Having written down all these sums in order, add together all those, the places of which are odd, as the first, the third, the fifth, etc.; make another sum of all those, the places of which are even, as the second, the fourth, the sixth, etc., subtract this sum from the former, and the remainder will be the double of the first number. Let us suppose, for example, that the five following numbers are thought of, 3, 7, 13, 17, 20, which, when added two and two as above, give 10, 20, 30, 37, 23: the sum of the first, third, and fifth, is 63, and that of the second and fourth is 57; if 57 be subtracted from 63, the remainder, 6, will be the double of the first number, 3. Now, if 3 be taken from 10, the first of the sums, the remainder, 7, will be the second number, and by proceeding in this manner we may find all the rest.

In the second case, that is to say, if the number or the numbers thought of be even, you must ask and write down, as above, the sum of the first and the second, that of the second and third, and so on, as before; but, instead of the sum of the first and last, you must take that of the second and last; then add together those which stand in the even places, and form them into a new sum apart; add also those in the odd places, the first excepted, and subtract this sum from the former, the remainder will be the double of the second number; and if the second number, thus found, be subtracted from the sum of the first and second, you will have the first number; if it be taken from that of the second and third, it will give the third; and so of the rest. Let the numbers thought of be, for example, 3, 7, 13, 17; the sums formed as above are 10, 20, 30, 24, the sum of the second and fourth is 44, from which, if 30, the third, be subtracted, the remainder will be 14, the double of 7, the second number. The first, therefore, is 3, the third 13, and the fourth 17.

When each of the numbers thought of does not exceed 9, they may be easily found in the following manner:—

Having made the person add 1 to the double of the first number thought of, desire him to multiply the whole by 5, and to add to the product the second number. If there be a third, make him double this first sum, and add 1 to it; after which, desire him to multiply the new sum by 5, and to add to it the third number. If there be a fourth, proceed in the same manner, desiring him to double the preceding sum, to add to it 1, to multiply by 5, to add the fourth number, and so on.

Then ask the number arising from the addition of the last number thought of, and if there were two numbers, subtract 5 from it; if there were three, 55; if there were four, 555, and so on, for the remainder will be composed of figures, of which the first on the left will be the first number thought of, the next the second, and so on.

Suppose the number thought of to be 3, 4, 6; by adding 1 to 6, the double of the first, we shall have 7, which, being multiplied by 5, will give 35; if 4, the second number thought of, be then added, we shall have 39, which, doubled, gives 78; and, if we add 1, and multiply 79, the sum, by 5, the result will be 395. In the last place, if we add 6, the number thought of, the sum will be 401; and if 55 be deducted from it, we shall have, for remainder, 346, the figures of which, 3, 4, 6, indicate in order the three numbers thought of.

THE MONEY GAME.

A person having in one hand a piece of gold, and in the other a piece of silver, you may tell in which hand he has the gold, and in which the silver, by the following method:—Some value, represented by an even number, such as 8, must be assigned to the gold; and a value represented by an odd number, such as 3, must be assigned to the silver; after which, desire the person to multiply the number in the right hand, by any even number whatever, such as 2; and that in the left hand by an odd number, as 3; then bid him add together the two products, and if the whole sum be odd, the gold will be in the right hand, and the silver in the left; if the sum be even, the contrary will be the case.

To conceal the artifice better, it will be sufficient to ask whether the sum of the two products can be halved without a remainder; for in that case the total will be even, and in the contrary case odd.

It may be readily seen, that the pieces, instead of being in the two hands of the same person, may be supposed to be in the hands of two persons, one of whom has the even number, or piece of gold, and the other the odd number, or piece of silver. The same operations may then be performed in regard to these two persons, as are performed in regard to the two hands of the same persons, calling the one privately the right, and the other the left.

THE GAME OF THE RING.

This game is an application of one of the methods employed to tell several numbers thought of, and ought to be performed in a company not exceeding nine, in order that it may be less complex. Desire any one of the company to take a ring, and put it on any joint of whatever finger he may think proper. The question then is, to tell what person has the ring, and on what hand, what finger, and on what joint

For this purpose, you must call the first person 1, the second 2, the third 3, and so on. You must also denote the ten fingers of the two hands by the following numbers of the natural progression, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., beginning at the thumb of the right hand, and ending at that of the left, that this order of the number of the finger may, at the same time, indicate the hand. In the last place, the joints must be denoted by 1, 2 3, beginning at the points of the fingers.

To render the solution of this problem more explicit, let us suppose that the fourth person in the company has the ring on the sixth finger, that is to say, on the little finger of the left hand, and on the second joint of that finger.

Desire some one to double the number expressing the person, which, in this case, will give 8; bid him add 6 to this double, and multiply the sum by 5, which will make 65; then tell him to add to this product the number denoting the finger, that is to say 6, by which means you will have 71; and, in the last place, desire him to multiply the last number by 10, and to add to the product the number of the joint, 2; the last result will be 712; if from this number you deduct 250, the remainder will be 462; the first figure of which, on the left, will denote the person; the next, the finger, and, consequently, the hand; and the last, the joint.

It must here be observed, that when the last result contains a cipher, which would have happened in the present example had the number of the figure been 10, you must privately subtract from the figure preceding the cipher, and assign the value of 10 to the cipher itself.

THE GAME OF THE BAG.

To let a person select several numbers out of a bag, and to tell him the number which shall exactly divide the sum of those he had chosen:—Provide a small bag, divided into two parts, into one of which put several tickets, numbered 6, 9, 15, 36, 63, 120, 213, 309, etc., and in the other part put as many other tickets, marked No. 3 only. Draw a handful of tickets from the first part, and after showing them to the company, put them into the bag again, and having opened it a second time, desire any one to take out as many tickets as he thinks proper; when he has done that, you open privately the other part of the bag, and tell him to take out of it one ticket only. You may safely pronounce that the ticket shall contain the number by which the amount of the other numbers is divisible; for, as each of these numbers can be multiplied by 3, their sum total must, evidently, be divisible by that number. An ingenious mind may easily diversify this exercise, by marking the tickets in one part of the bag with any numbers that are divisible by 9 only, the properties of both 9 and 3 being the same; and it should never be exhibited to the same company twice without being varied.

THE CERTAIN GAME.

Two persons agree to take, alternately, numbers less than a given number, for example, 11, and to add them together till one of them has reached a certain sum, such as 100. By what means can one of them infallibly attain to that number before the other?

The whole artifice in this consists in immediately making choice of the numbers 1, 12, 23, 34, and so on, or of a series which continually increases by 11, up to 100. Let us suppose that the first person, who knows the game, makes choice of 1; it is evident that his adversary, as he must count less than 11, can at most reach 11, by adding 10 to it. The first will then [illegible], which will make 12; and whatever number the second add, the first will certainly win, provided he continually add the number which forms the complement of that of his adversary to 11; that is to say, if the latter take 8, he must take 3: if 9, he must take 2; and so on. By following this method he will infallibly attain to 89: and it will then be impossible for the second to prevent him from getting first to 100; for whatever number the second takes he can attain only to 99; after which the first may say—"and 1 makes 100." If the second take 1 after 89, it would make 90, and his adversary would finish by saying—"and 10 make 100." Between two persons who are equally acquainted with the game, he who begins must necessarily win.

If your opponent have no knowledge of numbers, you may take any other number first, under 10, provided you subsequently take care to secure one of the last terms, 56, 67, 78, etc., or you may even let him begin, if you take care afterward to secure one of these numbers.

This exercise may be performed with other numbers; but, in order to succeed, you must divide the number to be attained by a number which is a unit greater than what you can take each time, and the remainder will then be the number you must first take. Suppose, for example, the number to be attained be 52, and that you are never to add more than 6; then, dividing 52 by 7, the remainder, which is 3, will be the number which you must first take; and whenever your opponent adds a number you must add as much to it as will make it equal to 7, the number by which you divided, and so in continuation.

ODD OR EVEN.

Every odd number multiplied by an odd number produces an odd number; every odd number multiplied by an even number produces an even number; and every even number multiplied by an even number also produces an even number. So, again, an even number added to an even number, and an odd number added to an odd number, produce an even number; while an odd and even number added together produce an odd number.

If any one holds an odd number of counters in one hand, and an even number in the other, it is not difficult to discover in which hand the odd or even number is. Desire the party to multiply the number in the right hand by an even number, and that in the left hand by an odd number, then to add the two sums together, and tell you the last figure of the product; if it is even, the odd number will be in the right hand; and if odd, in the left hand; thus, supposing there are 5 counters in the right hand, and 4 in the left hand, multiply 5 by 2, and 4 by 3, thus:—$5 \times 2 = 10$, $4 \times 3 = 12$, and then adding 10 to 12, you have $10 + 12 = 22$, the last figure of which, 2, is even, and the odd number will consequently be in the right hand.

PROPERTIES OF CERTAIN NUMBERS.

Of Odd Numbers.—All the odd numbers above 3, that can only be divided by 1, can be divided by 6, by the addition or subtraction of a unit. For instance, 13 can only be divided by 1; but after deducting 1, the remainder can be divided by 6; for example, $5 + 1 = 6$; $7 - 1 = 6$; $17 + 1 = 18$; $19 - 1 = 18$; $25 - 1 = 24$, and so on.

OF NUMBER THREE.—Select any two numbers you please, and you will find that either one of the two, or their amount when added together, or their difference, is always 3, or a number divisible by 3. Thus, if the numbers are 3 and 8, the first number is 3; let the numbers be 1 and 2, their sum is 3; let them be 4 and 7, the difference is 3. Again, 15 and 22, the first number is divisible by 3; 17 and 26, their difference is divisible by 3, etc.

OF NUMBER FIVE.—If you multiply 5 by itself, and the quotient again by itself, and the second quotient by itself, the last figure of each quotient will always be 5. Thus, $5 \times 5 = 25$; $25 \times 25 = 625$; $125 \times 125 = 15{,}625$, etc. Again, if you proceed in the same manner with the figure 6, the last figure will constantly be 6.

To divide any number by 5, or any multiplicand of that number, by means of simple addition:—To divide by 5, double the number given, and mark off the last figure, which will represent tenths. Thus, to divide 261 by 5:—$261 + 261 = 522$, or 5 22-10ths. Again, to divide the same number by 25, you must take four times the number to be divided, and mark off the last two figures, which will be hundredths, thus, $261 + 261 + 261 + 261 = 1044$, or 10 44-100ths.

OF NUMBER NINE.—The following remarkable properties of the number 9 are not generally known:—Thus, $9 \times 1 = 9$; $9 \times 2 = 18$, $1 + 8 = 9$; $9 \times 3 = 27$, $2 + 7 = 9$, $9 \times 4 = 36$, $3 + 6 = 9$: $9 \times 5 = 45$, $4 + 5 = 9$; $9 \times 6 = 54$, $5 + 4 = 9$; $9 \times 7 = 63$, $6 + 3 = 9$; $9 \times 8 = 72$, $7 + 2 = 9$; $9 \times 9 = 81$, $8 + 1 = 9$.

It will be seen by the above that—1. The component figures of the product made by the multiplication of every digit into the number 9, when added together, make NINE. 2. The order of these component figures is reversed, after the said number has been multiplied by 5. 3. The component figures of the amount of the multipliers (viz. 45), when added together, make NINE. 4. The amount of the several products, or multiples of 9 (viz. 405), when divided by 9, gives, for a quotient, 45; that is, $4 + 5 =$ NINE.

It is also observable, that the number of changes that may be rung on nine bells is 362,880; which figures, added together, make 27; that is, $2 + 7 =$ NINE.

And the quotient of 362,880, divided by 9, will be 40,320; that is, $4 + 0 + 3 + 2 + 0 =$ NINE.

To add a figure to any given number, which shall render it divisible by Nine:—Add the figures together in your mind, which compose the number named; and the figure which must be added to the sum produced, in order to render it divisible by 9, is the one required. Thus, suppose the given number to be 7521:—

Add those together, and 15 will be produced; now 15 requires 3 to render it divisible by 9; and that number 3, being added to 7521, causes the same divisibility:—

$$\begin{array}{r} 7521 \\ 3 \\ \hline 9)7524(836 \end{array}$$

This exercise may be diversified by your specifying, before the sum is named, the particular place where the figure shall be inserted, to make the number divisible by 9; for it is exactly the same thing whether the figure be put at the head of the number, or between any two of its digits.

To multiply by Nine by Simple Subtraction.—Supposing you wish to multiply 67583 by 9, add a cipher to the end of the sum, then place the sum to be divided underneath the amount, and subtract it from the same; the quotient will be the product of 67583 multiplied by 9; thus:—

$$\begin{array}{r} 675830 \\ 67583 \\ \hline 608247 \end{array}$$

Number Nine and Eighteen.—If any two of the following sums, 36, 63, 81, 117, 126, 162, 207, 216, 252, 261, 306, 315, 360, 432, are added together, the figures in the quotient, when cast up, will make either 9 or 18. For instance, $216 + 252 = 468$, and $4 + 6 + 8 = 18$; or, $63 + 81 = 144$, and $1 + 4 + 4 = 9$.

THE UNITED DIGITS.

The figures 1 to 9 may be placed in such order that the whole added together make exactly 100. Thus—

$$\begin{array}{r} 15 \\ 36 \\ 47 \\ \hline 98 \\ 2 \\ \hline 100 \end{array}$$

The secret is to arrange the figures 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, in such a manner that, added together, they make 98, when by adding 2 you get the whole nine digits into the calculation.

TO DISCOVER A SQUARE NUMBER.

A square number is a number produced by the multiplication of any number into itself; thus, 4 multiplied by 4 is equal to 16, and 16 is consequently a square number, 4 being the square root from which it springs. The extraction of the square root of any number takes some time; and after all your labor you may perhaps find that the number is not a square number. To save this trouble, it is worth knowing that every square number ends either with a 1, 4, 5, 6, or 9, or with two ciphers, preceded by one of these numbers.

Another property of a square number is, that if it be divided by 4, the remainder, if any, will be 1—thus, the square of 5 is 25, and 25 divided by 4 leaves a remainder of 1; and again, 16, being a square number, can be divided by 4 without leaving a remainder.

A MAGIC SQUARE.

The following arrangement of figures, from 1 to 36, in the form of a square, will amount to the same sum if the numbers are cast up perpendicularly, horizontally, or from

corner to corner, the result in every direction being 111:—

29	12	28	9	7	26
32	31	3	4	30	5
23	18	15	16	19	20
14	24	21	22	13	17
2	1	34	33	6	35
11	25	10	27	30	8

TO WEIGH FROM ONE TO FORTY POUNDS WITH FOUR WEIGHTS.

To weigh any weight from 1 to 40 pounds by the use of four weights only, the weights must be respectively 1, 3, 9, and 27 pounds each. Thus, 2 pounds may be weighed by placing 3 pounds in one scale and 1 in the other; 5 pounds, by placing 1 and 3 in one scale and 9 pounds in the opposite, and so on.

THE CANCELLED FIGURE GUESSED.

To tell the figure a person has struck out of the sum of two given numbers:—Arbitrarily command those numbers only that are divisible by 9; such, for instance, as 36, 63, 81, 117, 126, 162, 261, 360, 315, and 432.

Then let a person choose any two of these numbers; and, after adding them together in his mind, strike out from the sum any one of the figures he pleases.

After he has so done, desire him to tell you the sum of the remaining figures; and it follows, that the number which you are obliged to add to this amount, in order to make it 9 or 18, is the one he struck out. Thus—

Suppose he chooses the numbers 162 and 261, making altogether 423, and that he strikes out the centre figure, the two other figures will, added together, make 7, which, to make 9, requires 2, the number struck out.

THE DICE GUESSED UNSEEN.

A pair of dice being thrown, to find the number of points on each die without seeing them:—Tell the person who cast the dice to double the number of points upon one of them, and add 5 to it; then to multiply the sum produced by 5, and to add to the product the number of points upon the other die. This being done, desire him to tell you the amount, and, having thrown out 25, the remainder will be a number consisting of two figures, the first of which, to the left, is the number of points on the first die, and the second figure, to the right, the number on the other. Thus—

Suppose the number of points on the first die which comes up to be 2, and that of the other 3; then, if to 4, the double of the points of the first, there be added 5, and the sum produced, 9, be multiplied by 5, the product will be 45; to which, if 3, the number of points on the other die, be added, 48 will be produced, from which, if 25 be subtracted, 23 will remain; the first figure of which is 2, the number of points on the first die, and the second figure 3, the number on the other.

THE SOVEREIGN AND THE SAGE.

A sovereign being desirous to confer a liberal reward on one of his courtiers, who had performed some very important service, desired him to ask whatever he thought proper, assuring him it should be granted. The courtier, who was well acquainted with the science of numbers, only requested that the monarch would give him a quantity of wheat equal to that which would arise from one grain doubled sixty-three times successively. The value of the reward was immense; for it will be found that the sixty-fourth term of the double progression divided by 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, etc., is 9,223,372,036,854,775,808. But the sum of all the terms of a double progression, beginning with 1, may be obtained by doubling the last term, and subtracting from it 1. The number of the grains of wheat, therefore, in the present case, will be 18,446,744,073,709,551,615. Now, if a pint contain 9216 grains of wheat, a gallon will contain 73,728; and, as eight gallons make one bushel, if we divide the above result by eight times 73,728 we shall have 31,274,997,411,295 for the number of the bushels of wheat equal to the above number of grains, a quantity greater than what the whole surface of the earth could produce in several years, and which, in value, would exceed all the riches, perhaps, on the globe.

THE HORSE-DEALER'S BARGAIN.

A gentleman taking a fancy to a horse, which a horse-dealer wished to dispose of at as high a price as he could, the latter, to induce the gentleman to become a purchaser, offered to let him have the horse for the value of the twenty-fourth nail in his shoes, reckoning one cent for the first nail, two for the second, four for the third, and so on to the twenty-fourth. The gentleman, thinking he should have a good bargain, accepted the offer; how mistaken he was the result will show.

By calculating as before, the twenty-fourth term of the progression, 1, 2, 4, 8, etc., will be found to be 8,388,608, equal to the number of cents the purchaser gave for the horse; the price, therefore, amounted to $83,886.08.

THE DINNER PARTY.

A club of seven persons agreed to dine together every day successively, so long as they could sit down to table differently arranged. How many dinners would be necessary for that purpose? It may be easily found, by the rules of simple progression, that the club must dine together 5,040 times before they would exhaust all the arrangements possible, which would require above thirteen years.

THE BASKET AND STONES.

If a hundred stones be placed in a straight line, at the distance of a yard from each other, the first being at the same dis-

tance from a basket, how many yards must the person walk who engages to pick them up, one by one, and put them into the basket? It is evident that, to pick up the first stone and put it into a basket, the person must walk two yards; for the second, he must walk four; for the third, six; and so on, increasing by two to the hundredth.

The number of yards, therefore, which the person must walk will be equal to the sum of the progression, 2, 4, 6, etc., the last term of which is 200 (22). But the sum of the progression is equal to 202, the sum of the two extremes, multiplied by 50, or half the number of terms; that is to say, 10,100 yards, which makes more than 5¾ miles.

THE CAN OF ALE.

How to divide 8 gallons of ale contained in an 8-gallon can into two equal parts, having only two empty bottles to effect it with, one containing 5 gallons and the other 3. First, fill the 5-gallon bottle, and you will have 3 remaining in the 8-gallon can; fill the 3-gallon bottle from the 5-gallon, which will then contain only 2 gallons; pour the 3 gallons in the 3-gallon bottle into that which holds 8 gallons, which will then contain 6 gallons; then pour the 2 gallons out of the 5-gallon bottle into the 3-gallon bottle, and filling the 5-gallon bottle from the 8-gallon can, which at present contains 6 gallons, you will have 1 gallon in the can, 5 in the largest bottle, and 2 in the smallest; by filling up the 3-gallon can from the 5-gallon, you leave 4 gallons, or one-half the 8 gallons, in the largest bottle; and, lastly, pouring the contents of the 3-gallon bottle into the 8-gallon can, which contains 1 gallon, you have the second half, or 4 gallons.

COUNTING A BILLION.

What is a billion? The reply is very simple—a million times a million. This is quickly written, and more quickly still pronounced. But no man is able to count it. You can count 160 or 170 a minute; but let us even suppose that you go as far as 200 in a minute, then an hour will produce 12,000; a day, 288,000; and a year, or 365 days (for every four years you may rest from counting, during leap year), 105,120,000. Let us suppose, now, that Adam, at the beginning of his existence, had begun to count, had continued to do so, and was counting still, he would not, even now, according to the usually supposed age of our globe, have counted nearly enough. For, to count a billion, he would require 9512 years, 34 days, 5 hours, and 20 minutes, according to the above rule.

THE NUMBER SEVENTY-THREE.

If number 73 be multiplied by any of the progressive numbers arising from the multiplication of 3 with any of the units, the result will be as follows:—

$$
\begin{aligned}
73 \times 3 &= 219 \\
73 \times 6 &= 438 \\
73 \times 9 &= 657 \\
73 \times 12 &= 876 \\
73 \times 15 &= 1095 \\
73 \times 18 &= 1314 \\
73 \times 21 &= 1533 \\
73 \times 24 &= 1752 \\
73 \times 27 &= 1971
\end{aligned}
$$

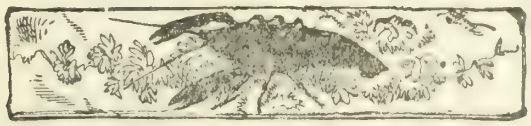
On inspecting these amounts it will be seen that the last figures run thus—9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. Again, if we refer to the sums produced by the multiplication of 73 by 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15, it will be found that by reading the two figures to the left of each amount backwards, it will give 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0.

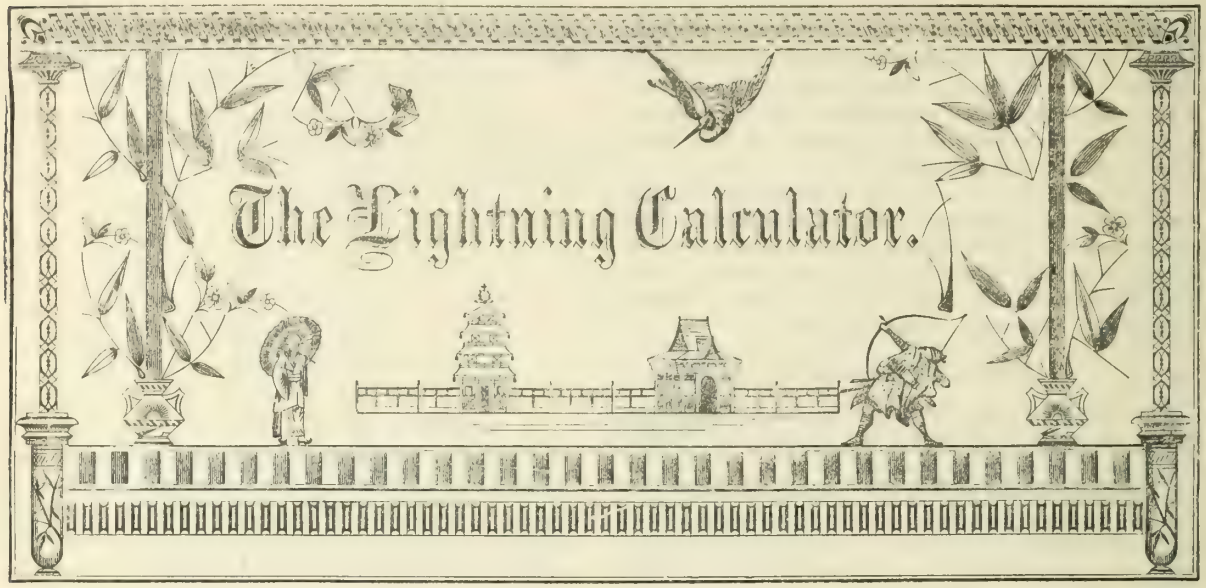
CURIOUS CALCULATION.

If a pin were dropped into the hold of the Great Eastern steamship, and on that day week a second pin, and on that day week four pins, and so on, doubling the number of pins each week for a year, there would, by the end of the 52 weeks, be deposited no fewer than 4,503,599,627,370,495 pins. Allowing 200 to the ounce, the weight of the whole would be 628,292,358 tons; and to carry them all would require 27,924 ships as large as the Great Eastern, which is calculated to hold 22,500 tons.

ARITHMETICAL PROGRESSION.

If you could buy a hundred ships, giving a farthing for the first, a halfpenny for the second, a penny for the third, twopence for the fourth, and so on to the last, doubling the sum each time, the whole amount paid would be £557,750,707,053,344,041,463,074,442 18s. 7½d.—a sum which in words runs thus: 557 quadrillions, 750,707 trillions, 53,344 billions, 41,643 millions, 74 thousand, 442 pounds, eighteen shillings and sevenpence three farthings. This amount in sovereigns would weigh 3,557,082,590,327,400,123,418 tons.





THE following tables show at a glance the price of any number of articles at any given rate: The first column of figures shows the number of articles, and the second, the total; *e. g.*, 87 articles at $\frac{1}{4}$ cent each, amount to $21\frac{3}{4}$ cents; 46 articles at $56\frac{1}{4}$ cents each, give for a total $\$25.87\frac{1}{2}$. If the price be one not given in the tables, the sum is easily ascertained by adding together two or more of those which are given, thus: 23 articles at $19\frac{3}{4}$ cents, 23 at 10 cents would be 2.30, at 5 cents 1.15, at 2 cents 46 cents, at $\frac{1}{2}$ $11\frac{1}{2}$ cents, and at $\frac{1}{4}$ $5\frac{3}{4}$; adding these totals, $2.30 + 1.15 + 46 + 46 + 11\frac{1}{2} + 5\frac{3}{4} = \$4.54\frac{1}{4}$, the amount sought for.

These tables, too, will operate in other directions, and show the number of articles, when the total amount and the price per capita are given; also when the number of articles and the total amount are given, the price per capita is easily ascertained.

When fractions of a cent are involved, it is often confusing to an inexpert accountant to readily compute the amount. A reference to these tables will quickly give the required result, thereby saving that which is so important to the business man—time.

The convenience of these tables cannot be overrated. Not only do they save time, but are also conducive to perfect accuracy, a result which is not always certainly obtained in a hurried calculation.

At ¼ Cent.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	. ¼	18	.4½	35	. 8¾	52	.13	69	.17¼	86	.21½
2	. ½	19	.4¾	36	. 9	53	.13¼	70	.17½	87	.21¾
3	. ¾	20	.5	37	. 9¼	54	.13½	71	.17¾	88	.22
4	.1	21	.5¼	38	. 9½	55	.13¾	72	.18	89	.22¼
5	.1¼	22	.5½	39	. 9¾	56	.14	73	.18¼	90	.22½
6	.1½	23	.5¾	40	.10	57	.14¼	74	.18½	91	.22¾
7	.1¾	24	.6	41	.10¼	58	.14½	75	.18¾	92	.23
8	.2	25	.6¼	42	.10½	59	.14¾	76	.19	93	.23¼
9	.2¼	26	.6½	43	.10¾	60	.15	77	.19¼	94	.23½
10	.2½	27	.6¾	44	.11	61	.15¼	78	.19½	96	.24
11	.2¾	28	.7	45	.11¼	62	.15½	79	.19¾	98	.24½
12	.3	29	.7¼	46	.11½	63	.15¾	80	.20	100	.25
13	.3¼	30	.7½	47	.11¾	64	.16	81	.20¼	200	.50
14	.3½	31	.7¾	48	.12	65	.16¼	82	.20½	300	.75
15	.3¾	32	.8	49	.12¼	66	.16½	83	.20¾	400	1.00
16	.4	33	.8¼	50	.12½	67	.16¾	84	.21	500	1.25
17	.4¼	34	.8½	51	.12¾	68	.17	85	.21¼	1000	2.50

At ½ Cent.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	. ½	32	.16	63	.31½
2	. 1	33	.16½	64	.32
3	. 1½	34	.17	65	.32½
4	. 2	35	.17½	66	.33
5	. 2½	36	.18	67	.33½
6	. 3	37	.18½	68	.34
7	. 3½	38	.19	69	.34½
8	. 4	39	.19½	70	.35
9	. 4½	40	.20	71	.35½
10	. 5	41	.20½	72	.36
11	. 5½	42	.21	73	.36½
12	. 6	43	.21½	74	.37
13	. 6½	44	.22	75	.37½
14	. 7	45	.22½	76	.38
15	. 7½	46	.23	78	.39
16	. 8	47	.23½	80	.40
17	. 8½	48	.24	82	.41
18	. 9	49	.24½	84	.42
19	. 9½	50	.25	86	.43
20	.10	51	.25½	88	.44
21	.10½	52	.26	90	.45
22	.11	53	.26½	92	.46
23	.11½	54	.27	94	.47
24	.12	55	.27½	96	.48
25	.12½	56	.28	98	.49
26	.13	57	.28½	100	.50
27	.13½	58	.29	200	1.
28	.14	59	.29½	300	1.50
29	.14½	60	.30	400	2.
30	.15	61	.30½	500	2.50
31	.15½	62	.31	1000	5.

At 1 Cent.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	. 1	32	.32	63	.63
2	. 2	33	.33	64	.64
3	. 3	34	.34	65	.65
4	. 4	35	.35	66	.66
5	. 5	36	.36	67	.67
6	. 6	37	.37	68	.68
7	. 7	38	.38	69	.69
8	. 8	39	.39	70	.70
9	. 9	40	.40	71	.71
10	.10	41	.41	72	.72
11	.11	42	.42	73	.73
12	.12	43	.43	74	.74
13	.13	44	.44	75	.75
14	.14	45	.45	76	.76
15	.15	46	.46	78	.78
16	.16	47	.47	80	.80
17	.17	48	.48	82	.83
18	.18	49	.49	84	.84
19	.19	50	.50	86	.86
20	.20	51	.51	88	.88
21	.21	52	.52	90	.90
22	.22	53	.53	92	.92
23	.23	54	.54	94	.94
24	.24	55	.55	96	.96
25	.25	56	.56	98	.98
26	.26	57	.57	100	1.
27	.27	58	.58	200	2.
28	.28	59	.59	300	3.
29	.29	60	.60	400	4.
30	.30	61	.61	500	5.
31	.31	62	.62	1000	10.

At 2 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts
1	. 2	32	.64	63	1.26
2	. 4	33	.66	64	1.28
3	. 6	34	.68	65	1.30
4	. 8	35	.70	66	1.32
5	.10	36	.72	67	1.34
6	.12	37	.74	68	1.36
7	.14	38	.76	69	1.38
8	.16	39	.78	70	1.40
9	.18	40	.80	71	1.42
10	.20	41	.82	72	1.44
11	.22	42	.84	73	1.46
12	.24	43	.86	74	1.48
13	.26	44	.88	75	1.50
14	.28	45	.90	76	1.52
15	.30	46	.92	78	1.56
16	.32	47	.94	80	1.60
17	.34	48	.96	82	1.64
18	.36	49	.98	84	1.68
19	.38	50	1.	86	1.72
20	.40	51	1.02	88	1.76
21	.42	52	1.04	90	1.80
22	.44	53	1.06	92	1.84
23	.46	54	1.08	94	1.88
24	.48	55	1.10	96	1.92
25	.50	56	1.12	98	1.96
26	.52	57	1.14	100	2.
27	.54	58	1.16	200	4.
28	.56	59	1.18	300	6.
29	.58	60	1.20	400	8.
30	.60	61	1.22	500	10.
31	.62	62	1.24	1000	20.

At 5 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	. 5	32	1.60	63	3.15
2	.10	33	1.65	64	3.20
3	.15	34	1.70	65	3.25
4	.20	35	1.75	66	3.30
5	.25	36	1.80	67	3.35
6	.30	37	1.85	68	3.40
7	.35	38	1.90	69	3.45
8	.40	39	1.95	70	3.50
9	45	40	2.	71	3.55
10	.50	41	2.05	72	3.60
11	.55	42	2.10	73	3.65
12	.60	43	2.15	74	3.70
13	.65	44	2.20	75	3.75
14	.70	45	2.25	76	3.80
15	.75	46	2.30	78	3.90
16	.80	47	2.35	80	4.
17	.85	48	2.40	82	4.10
18	.90	49	2.45	84	4.20
19	.95	50	2.50	86	4.30
20	1.	51	2.55	88	4.40
21	1.05	52	2.60	90	4.50
22	1.10	53	2.65	92	4.60
23	1.15	54	2.70	94	4.70
24	1.20	55	2.75	96	4.80
25	1.25	56	2.80	98	4.90
26	1.30	57	2.85	100	5.
27	1.35	58	2.90	125	6.25
28	1.40	59	2.95	150	7.50
29	1.45	60	3.	175	8.75
30	1.50	61	3.05	200	10.
31	1.55	62	3.10	225	11.25

At 10 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.10	32	3.20	63	6.30
2	.20	33	3.30	64	6.40
3	.30	34	3.40	65	6.50
4	.40	35	3.50	66	6.60
5	.50	36	3.60	67	6.70
6	.60	37	3.70	68	6.80
7	.70	38	3.80	69	6.90
8	.80	39	3.90	70	7.
9	.90	40	4.	71	7.10
10	1.	41	4.10	72	7.20
11	1.10	42	4.20	73	7.30
12	1.20	43	4.30	74	7.40
13	1.30	44	4.40	75	7.50
14	1.40	45	4.50	76	7.60
15	1.50	46	4.60	78	7.80
16	1.60	47	4.70	80	8.
17	1.70	48	4.80	82	8.20
18	1.80	49	4.90	84	8.40
19	1.90	50	5.	86	8.60
20	2.	51	5.10	88	8.80
21	2.10	52	5.20	90	9.
22	2.20	53	5.30	92	9.20
23	2.30	54	5.40	94	9.40
24	2.40	55	5.50	96	9.60
25	2.50	56	5.60	98	9.80
26	2.60	57	5.70	100	10.
27	2.70	58	5.80	125	12.50
28	2.80	59	5.90	150	15.
29	2.90	60	6.	175	17.50
30	3.	61	6.10	200	20.
31	3.10	62	6.20	225	22.50

At 25 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.25	32	8.	63	15.75
2	.50	33	8.25	64	16.
3	.75	34	8.50	65	16.25
4	1.	35	8.75	66	16.50
5	1.25	36	9.	67	16.75
6	1.50	37	9.25	68	17.
7	1.75	38	9.50	69	17.25
8	2.	39	9.75	70	17.50
9	2.25	40	10.	71	17.75
10	2.50	41	10.25	72	18.
11	2.75	42	10.50	73	18.25
12	3.	43	10.75	74	18.50
13	3.25	44	11.	75	18.75
14	3.50	45	11.25	76	19.
15	3.75	46	11.50	78	19.50
16	4.	47	11.75	80	20.
17	4.25	48	12.	82	20.50
18	4.50	49	12.25	84	21.
19	4.75	50	12.50	86	21.50
20	5.	51	12.75	88	22.
21	5.25	52	13.	90	22.50
22	5.50	53	13.25	92	23.
23	5.75	54	13.50	94	23.50
24	6.	55	13.75	96	24.
25	6.25	56	14.	98	24.50
26	6.50	57	14.25	100	25.
27	6.75	58	14.50	125	31.25
28	7.	59	14.75	150	37.50
29	7.25	60	15.	175	43.75
30	7.50	61	15.25	200	50.
31	7.75	62	15.50	225	56.25

At 12½ Cents, or ⅛ of a Dollar.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.12½	32	4.	63	7.87½
2	.25	33	4.12½	64	8.
3	.37½	34	4.25	65	8.12½
4	.50	35	4.37½	66	8.25
5	.62½	36	4.50	67	8.37½
6	.75	37	4.62½	68	8.50
7	.87½	38	4.75	69	8.62½
8	1.	39	4.87½	70	8.75
9	1.12½	40	5.	71	8.87½
10	1.25	41	5.12½	72	9.
11	1.37½	42	5.25	73	9.12½
12	1.50	43	5.37½	74	9.25
13	1.62½	44	5.50	75	9.37½
14	1.75	45	5.62½	76	9.50
15	1.87½	46	5.75	78	9.75
16	2.	47	5.87½	80	10.
17	2.12½	48	6.	82	10.25
18	2.25	49	6.12½	84	10.50
19	2.37½	50	6.25	86	10.75
20	2.50	51	6.37½	88	11.
21	2.62½	52	6.50	90	11.25
22	2.75	53	6.62½	92	11.50
23	2.87½	54	6.75	94	11.75
24	3.	55	6.87½	96	12.
25	3.12½	56	7.	98	12.25
26	3.25	57	7.12½	100	12.50
27	3.37½	58	7.25	125	15.62½
28	3.50	59	7.37½	150	18.75
29	3.62½	60	7.50	175	21.87½
30	3.75	61	7.62½	200	25.
31	3.87½	62	7.75	225	28.12½

At 33⅓ Cents, or ⅓ of a Dollar.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.33⅓	32	10.66⅔	63	21.
2	.66⅔	33	11.	64	21.33⅓
3	1.	34	11.33⅓	65	21.66⅔
4	1.33⅓	35	11.66⅔	66	22.
5	1.66⅔	36	12.	67	22.33⅓
6	2.	37	12.33⅓	68	22.66⅔
7	2.33⅓	38	12.66⅔	69	23.
8	2.66⅔	39	13.	70	23.33⅓
9	3.	40	13.33⅓	71	23.66⅔
10	3.33⅓	41	13.66⅔	72	24.
11	3.66⅔	42	14.	73	24.33⅓
12	4.	43	14.33⅓	74	24.66⅔
13	4.33⅓	44	14.66⅔	75	25.
14	4.66⅔	45	15.	76	25.33⅓
15	5.	46	15.33⅓	78	26.
16	5.33⅓	47	15.66⅔	80	27.
17	5.66⅔	48	16.	82	27.33⅓
18	6.	49	16.33⅓	84	28.
19	6.33⅓	50	16.66⅔	86	28.66⅔
20	6.66⅔	51	17.	88	29.66⅔
21	7.	52	17.33⅓	90	30.
22	7.33⅓	53	17.66⅔	92	30.66⅔
23	7.66⅔	54	18.	94	31.33⅓
24	8.	55	18.33⅓	96	32.
25	8.33⅓	56	18.66⅔	98	32.66⅔
26	8.66⅔	57	19.	100	33.33⅓
27	9.	58	19.33⅓	125	41.66⅔
28	9.33⅓	59	19.66⅔	150	50.
29	9.66⅔	60	20.	175	58.33⅓
30	10.	61	20.33⅓	200	66.66⅔
31	10.33⅓	62	20.66⅔	225	75.

At 43¾ Cents, or 7/16 of a Dollar.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.43¾	32	14.	63	27.56¼
2	.87½	33	14 43¾	64	28.
3	1.31¼	34	14.87½	65	28.43¾
4	1.75	35	15.31¼	66	28.87½
5	2.18¾	36	15.75	67	29.31¼
6	2.62½	37	16.18¾	68	29.75
7	3.06¼	38	16.62½	69	30.18¾
8	3.50	39	17.06¼	70	30.62½
9	3.93¾	40	17.50	71	31.06¼
10	4.37½	41	17.93¾	72	31.50
11	4.81¼	42	18.37½	73	31.93¾
12	5.25	43	18.81¼	74	32.37½
13	5.68¾	44	19 25	75	32.81¼
14	6.12½	45	19.68¾	76	33.25
15	6.56¼	46	20.12½	78	34.12½
16	7.	47	20.56¼	80	35.
17	7.43¾	48	21.	82	35.87½
18	7.87½	49	21.43¾	84	36.75
19	8.31¼	50	21.87½	86	37.62½
20	8.75	51	22.31¼	88	38.50
21	9.18¾	52	22.75	90	39.37½
22	9.62½	53	23.18¾	92	40.25
23	10.06¼	54	23.62½	94	41.12½
24	10.50	55	24.06¼	96	42.
25	10.93¾	56	24.50	98	42.87½
26	11.37½	57	24.93¾	100	43.75
27	11.81¼	58	25 37½	125	54.68¾
28	12.25	59	25.81¼	150	65.62½
29	12.68¾	60	26.25	175	76.56¼
30	13.12½	61	26.68¾	200	87.50
31	13.65¼	62	27.12½	225	98.43¾

At 50 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.50	32	16.	63	31.50
2	1.	33	16.50	64	32.
3	1.50	34	17.	65	32.50
4	2.	35	17.50	66	33.
5	2.50	36	18.	67	33.50
6	3.	37	18.50	68	34.
7	3.50	38	19.	69	34.50
8	4.	39	19.50	70	35.
9	4.50	40	20.	71	35.50
10	5.	41	20.50	72	36.
11	5.50	42	21.	73	36.50
12	6.	43	21.50	74	37.
13	6.50	44	22.	75	37.50
14	7.	45	22.50	76	38.
15	7.50	46	23.	78	39.
16	8.	47	23.50	80	40.
17	8.50	48	24.	82	41.
18	9.	49	24 50	84	42.
19	9.50	50	25.	86	43.
20	10	51	25.50	88	44.
21	10.50	52	26.	90	45.
22	11.	53	26.50	92	46.
23	11.50	54	27.	94	47.
24	12.	55	27.50	96	48.
25	12.50	56	28.	98	49.
26	13.	57	28.50	100	50.
27	13.50	58	29.	125	62.50
28	14.	59	29.50	150	75.
29	14.50	60	30.	175	87.50
30	15.	61	30.50	200	100.
31	15.50	62	31.	225	112.50

At 56¼ Cents, or 9/16 of a Dollar.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.56	32	18.	63	35.43¾
2	1.12½	33	18.56¼	64	36.
3	1.68¾	34	19 12½	65	36.56¼
4	2.25	35	19.68¾	66	37.12½
5	2.81¼	36	20.25	67	37.68¾
6	3.37½	37	20.81¼	68	38.25
7	3.93¾	38	21.37½	69	38.81¼
8	4.50	39	21.93¾	70	39.37½
9	5.06¼	40	22.50	71	39.93¾
10	5.62½	41	23.06¼	72	40.50
11	6.18¾	42	23.62½	73	41.06¼
12	6.75	43	24.18¾	74	41.62½
13	7.31¼	44	24.75	75	42.18¾
14	7.87½	45	25.31¼	76	42.75
15	8.43¾	46	25.87½	78	43.87½
16	9.	47	26 43¾	80	45.
17	9.56¼	48	27.	82	46.12½
18	10.12½	49	27 56¼	84	47.25
19	10.68¾	50	28.12½	86	48.37½
20	11.25	51	28.68¾	88	49.50
21	11.81¼	52	29.25	90	50.62½
22	12.37½	53	29.81¼	92	51.75
23	12.93¾	54	30.37½	94	52.87½
24	13.50	55	30.93¾	96	54.
25	14.06¼	56	31.50	98	55.12½
26	14.62½	57	32.06¼	100	56.25
27	15.18¾	58	32.62½	125	70.31¼
28	15 75	59	33.18¾	150	84.37½
29	16.31¼	60	33 75	175	98.43¾
30	16.87½	61	34.31¼	200	112.50
31	17.43¾	62	34.87½	225	126.56¼

At 87½ Cents, or 7/8 of a Dollar.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	.87½	32	28.	63	55.12½
2	1.75	33	28.87½	64	56.
3	2.62½	34	29.75	65	56.87½
4	3.50	35	30.62½	66	57.75
5	4.37½	36	31.50	67	58.62½
6	5.25	37	32.37½	68	59.50
7	6.12½	38	33.25	69	60.37½
8	7.	39	34.12½	70	61.52
9	7 87½	40	35.	71	62.12½
10	8.75	41	35.87½	72	63.
11	9 62½	42	36.75	73	63.87½
12	10.50	43	37.62½	74	64.75
13	11.37½	44	38.50	75	65.62½
14	12.25	45	39.37½	76	66.50
15	13.12½	46	40.25	78	68.25
16	14.	47	41.12½	80	70.
17	14.87½	48	42.	82	71 75
18	15.75	49	42.87½	84	73.50
19	16.62½	50	43.75	86	75.25
20	17.50	51	44.62½	88	77.
21	18.37½	52	45.50	90	78.75
22	19.25	53	46.37½	92	80.50
23	20.12½	54	47.25	94	82 25
24	21.	55	48 12½	96	84.
25	21.87½	56	49.	98	85.75
26	22.75	57	49.87½	100	87.50
27	23.62½	58	50.75	125	109.37½
28	24.50	59	51.62½	150	131.25
29	25.37½	60	52.50	175	153.12½
30	26.25	61	53.37½	200	175.
31	27.12½	62	54.25	225	196.87½

At $1.25 Cent .

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	1.25	36	45.	71	88.75
2	2.50	37	46.25	72	90.
3	3.75	38	47.50	73	91.25
4	5.	39	48.75	74	92.50
5	6.25	40	50.	75	93.75
6	7.50	41	51.25	76	95.
7	8.75	42	52.50	77	96.25
8	10.	43	53.75	78	97.50
9	11.25	44	55.	79	98.75
10	12.50	45	56.25	80	100.
11	13.75	46	57.50	81	101.25
12	15.	47	58.75	82	102.50
13	16.25	48	60.	83	103.75
14	17.50	49	61.25	84	105.
15	18.75	50	62.50	85	106.25
16	20.	51	63.75	86	107.50
17	21.25	52	65.	87	108.75
18	22.50	53	66.25	88	110.
19	23.75	54	67.50	89	111.25
20	25.	55	68.75	90	112.50
21	26.25	56	70.	91	113.75
22	27.50	57	71.25	92	115.
23	28.75	58	72.50	93	116.25
24	30.	59	73.75	94	117.50
25	31.25	60	75.	95	118.75
26	32.50	61	76.25	96	120.
27	33.75	62	77.50	97	121.25
28	35.	63	78.75	98	122.50
29	36.25	64	80.	99	123.75
30	37.50	65	81.25	100	125.
31	38.75	66	82.50	125	156.25
32	40.	67	83.75	150	187.50
33	41.25	68	85.	175	218.75
34	42.50	69	86.25	200	250.
35	43.75	70	87.50	225	281.25

At $1.50 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	1.50	36	54.	71	106.50
2	3.	37	55.50	72	108.
3	4.50	38	57.	73	109.50
4	6.	39	58.50	74	111.
5	7.50	40	60.	75	112.50
6	9.	41	61.50	76	114.
7	10.50	42	63.	77	115.50
8	12.	43	64.50	78	117.
9	13.50	44	66.	79	118.50
10	15.	45	67.50	80	120.
11	16.50	46	69.	81	121.50
12	18.	47	70.50	82	123.
13	19.50	48	72.	83	124.50
14	21.	49	73.50	84	126.
15	22.50	50	75.	85	127.50
16	24.	51	76.50	86	129.
17	25.50	52	78.	87	130.50
18	27.	53	79.50	88	132.
19	28.50	54	81.	89	133.50
20	30.	55	82.50	90	135.
21	31.50	56	84.	91	136.50
22	33.	57	85.50	92	138.
23	34.50	58	87.	93	139.50
24	36.	59	88.50	94	141.
25	37.50	60	90.	95	142.50
26	39.	61	91.50	96	144.
27	40.50	62	93.	97	145.50
28	42.	63	94.50	98	147.
29	43.50	64	96.	99	148.50
30	45.	65	97.50	100	150.
31	46.50	66	99.	125	187.50
32	48.	67	100.50	150	225.
33	49.50	68	102.	175	262.50
34	51.	69	103.50	220	300.
35	52.50	70	105.	250	337.50

At $1.75 Cents.

No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.	No.	Dols. Cts.
1	1.75	18	31.50	35	61.25	52	91.	69	120.75	86	150.50
2	3.50	19	33.25	36	63.	53	92.75	70	122.50	87	152.25
3	5.25	20	35.	37	64.75	54	94.50	71	124.25	88	154.
4	7.	21	36.75	38	66.50	55	96.25	72	126.	89	155.75
5	8.75	22	38.50	39	68.25	56	98.	73	127.75	90	157.50
6	10.50	23	40.25	40	70.	57	99.75	74	129.50	91	159.25
7	12.25	24	42.	41	71.75	58	101.50	75	131.25	92	161.
8	14.	25	43.75	42	73.50	59	103.25	76	133.	93	162.75
9	15.75	26	45.50	43	75.25	60	105.	77	134.75	94	164.50
10	17.50	27	47.25	44	77.	61	106.75	78	136.50	96	168.
11	19.25	28	49.	45	78.75	62	108.50	79	138.25	98	171.50
12	21.	29	50.75	46	80.50	63	110.25	80	140.	100	175.
13	22.75	30	52.50	47	82.25	64	112.	81	141.75	125	218.75
14	24.50	31	54.25	48	84.	66	113.75	82	143.50	150	262.50
15	26.25	32	56.	49	85.75	65	115.50	83	145.25	175	306.25
16	28.	33	57.75	50	87.50	67	117.25	84	147.	200	350.
17	29.75	34	59.50	51	89.25	68	119.	85	148.75	225	393.75



Rate of Wages, from $1 to $21 Per Week.

Days.	50 Cts.	62½ Cts.	75 Cts.	87½ Cts.	Days.	50 Cts.	62½ Cts.	75 Cts.	87½ Cts.
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.		Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.2	.2½	.3	.3½	4½	.37½	.46.	.56¼	.65½
½	.4	.5¼	.6¼	.7¼	4¾	.39½	.49¼	.59¼	.69¼
¾	.6¼	.7¾	.9¼	.10¾	5	.41½	.52	.62½	.73
1	.8¼	.10½	.12½	.14½	5¼	.43¾	.54⅓	.65½	.76½
1¼	.10½	.13	.15½	.18¼	5½	.45¾	.57¼	.68¾	.80
1½	.12½	.15½	.18¾	.22	5¾	.47¾	.59¾	.71¾	.83¾
1¾	.14½	.18	.21¾	.25½	6	.50	.62½	.75	.87½
2	.16½	.20¾	.25	.29	7	.58¼	.72¾	.87½	1.02
2¼	.18¾	.23½	.28	.32¾	8	.66½	.83⅓	1.	1.16½
2½	.20¾	.26	.31¼	.36½	9	.75	.93¾	1.12½	1.31¼
2¾	.23	.28¾	.34¼	.40	10	.83¼	1.04	1.25	1.45¾
3	.25	.31¼	.37½	.43¾	11	.91¾	1.14⅓	1.37½	1.60¼
3¼	.27	.33¾	.40½	.47¼	12	1.	1.25	1.50	1.75
3½	.29	.36¼	43¾	.51	18	1.50	1.87½	2.25	2.62½
3¾	.31¼	.39	.46¾	.54½	24	2.	2.50	3.	3.50
4	.33⅓	.41½	.50	.58¼	26	2.16½	2.71	3.25	3.79
4¼	.35¼	.44	.53	.62					

Days.	$1	$1.12½	$1.25	$1.37½	Days.	$1.50	$1.62½	$1.75	$1.87½
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.		Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.4	.4¾	5¼	.5¾	¼	.6¼	.6¾	.7¼	.7¾
½	.8½	.9¼	.10½	.11½	½	.12½	.13½	.14⅓	.15½
¾	.12½	.14	.15⅓	.17¼	¾	.18¾	.20¼	.21¾	.23½
1	.16⅓	.18¾	.20¾	.23	1	.25	.27	.29	.31¼
1¼	.20¾	.23½	.26	.28⅓	1¼	.31¼	.33¾	.36¼	.39
1½	.25	.28	.31¼	.34⅓	1½	.37½	.40½	.43¾	.46¾
1¾	.29	.32¾	.36½	.40	1¾	.43¾	.47¼	.51	.54¾
2	.33¼	.37½	.41½	.45¾	2	.50	.54	.58¼	.62½
2¼	.37½	.42¼	.46¾	.51½	2¼	.56¼	.61	.65½	.70¼
2½	.41½	.46¾	.52	.57¼	2½	.62½	.67¼	.73	.78
2¾	.45¾	.51½	.57¼	.63	2¾	.68¾	.74½	.80½	.86
3	.50	.56¼	.62½	.68¾	3	.75	.81¼	.87½	.93¾
3¼	.54	.61	.67¾	.74½	3¼	.81¼	.88	.94¾	1.01½
3½	.58¼	.65½	.72¼	.80¼	3½	.87½	.94¾	1.02	1.09¼
3¾	.62½	.70¼	.78	.86	3¾	.93¾	1.01½	1.09½	1.17¼
4	.66½	.75	.83⅓	.91½	4	1.	1.08¼	1.16½	1.25
4¼	.70¾	.79¾	.88½	.97¼	4¼	1.06¼	1.15	1.23¾	1.32¾
4½	.75	.84⅓	.93¾	1.03	4½	1.12½	1.21¾	1.31¼	1.40½
4¾	.79	.89	.98¾	1.08¾	4¾	1.18¾	1.28½	1.38½	1.48¼
5	.83¼	.93¾	1.04	1.14½	5	1.25	1.35¼	1.45¾	1.56¼
5¼	.87½	.98¼	1.09¼	1.20¼	5¼	1.31¼	1.42¼	1.53¼	1.64
5½	91¾	1.03	1.14½	1.26	5½	1.37½	1.49	1.60½	1.71¾
5¾	.95¾	1.07¼	1.19¼	1.31¾	5¾	1.43¾	1.55¾	1.67¼	1.79¼
6	1.	1.12½	1.25	1.37½	6	1.50	1.62½	1.75	1.87½
7	1.16⅓	1.31¼	1.45¾	1.60⅓	7	1.75	1.89⅓	2.04	2.18¾
8	1.33¼	1.50	1.66½	1.83¼	8	2.	2.16⅔	2.33¼	2.50
9	1.50	1.68¾	1.87½	2.06¼	9	2.25	2.43¾	2.62½	2.81¼
10	1.66½	1.87½	2.08⅓	2.29	10	2.50	2.70¾	2.91⅔	3.12½
11	1.83¼	2.06¼	2.29	2.52	11	2.75	2.98	3.20¾	3.43¾
12	2.	2.25	2.50	2.75	12	3.	3.25	3.50	3.75
18	3.	3.37½	3.75	4.12½	18	4.50	4.87½	5.25	5.62½
24	4.	4.50	5.	5.50	24	6.	6.50	7.	7.50
26	4.33¼	4.87½	5.42	5.96	26	6.50	7.04	7.58¼	8.12½

Days.	$2	$2.50	$3	$3.50
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.08¼	.10½	.12½	.14½
½	.16½	.20¾	.25	.29
¾	.25	.31¼	.37½	.43¾
1	.33¼	.41½	.50	.58¼
1¼	.41½	.52	.62½	.72¾
1½	.50	.62½	.75	.87½
1¾	.58¼	.73	.87½	1.02
2	.66½	.83¼	1.	1.16½
2¼	.75	.93¾	1.12½	1.31¼
2½	.83¼	1.04	1.25	1.45¾
2¾	.91½	1.14½	1.37½	1.60¼
3	1.	1.25	1.50	1.75
3¼	1.08¼	1 35½	1.62½	1.89½
3½	1.16½	1.46	1 75	2.04
3¾	1.25	1.56¼	1.87½	2.18¾
4	1.33¼	1.66½	2.	2.33¼
4¼	1.41½	1.77	2.12½	2.47¾
4½	1.50	1.87½	2.25	2.62½
4¾	1.58¼	1.97¾	2.37½	2.77
5	1.66½	2.08¼	2.50	2.91½
5½	1.83¼	2.29	2.75	3.20¾
6	2.	2.50	3.	3.50
7	2.33¼	2.91½	3.50	4.08¼
8	2.66½	3.33¼	4.	4.66½
9	3.	3.75	4.50	5.25
10	3.33¼	4.16¾	5.	5.83¼
11	3.66½	4.58¼	5.50	6.41½
12	4.	5.	6.	7.
18	6.	7.50	9.	10.50
24	8.	10.	12.	14.
26	8.66½	10.83¼	13.	15.16½

Days.	$4	$4.50	$5	$5.50
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.16½	.18¾	.20¾	.23
½	.33¼	.37½	.41½	.45¾
¾	.50	.56¼	.62½	.68¾
1	.66½	.75	.83¼	.91½
1¼	.83¼	.93¾	1.04	1.14½
1½	1.	1.12½	1.25	1.37½
1¾	1.16½	1.31¼	1.45¾	1.60½
2	1.33¼	1.50	1.66½	1.83¼
2¼	1.50	1.68¾	1.87½	2.06¼
2½	1.66½	1.87½	2.08¼	2.29
2¾	1.83¼	2.06¾	2.29	2.52
3	2.	2.25	2.50	2.75
3¼	2.16½	2.43¾	2.70¾	2.98
3½	2.33¼	2.62½	2.91¾	3.20¾
3¾	2.50	2.81¼	3.12½	3.43¾
4	2.66½	3.	3.33¼	3.66½
4¼	2.83¼	3.18¾	3.54¼	3.89½
4½	3.	3.37½	3.75	4.12½
4¾	3.16½	3.56¼	3 95¾	4.35½
5	3.33½	3.75	4.16½	4.58¼
5½	3.66½	4.12½	4.58¼	5.04
6	4.	4.50	5.	5.50
7	4.66½	5.25	5.83¼	6.41½
8	5.33¼	6.	6.66½	7.33¼
9	6.	6.75	7.50	8.25
10	6.66½	7.50	8.33¼	9.16½
11	7.33¼	8.25	9.16½	10.08¼
12	8.	9.	10.	11.
18	12.	13.50	15.	16.50
24	16.	18.	20.	22.
26	17.33¼	19.50	21.66½	23.83¼

Days.	$6	$7	$8	$9
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.25	.29	.33¼	.37½
½	.50	.58¼	.66½	.75
¾	.75	.87½	1.	1.12½
1	1.	1.16½	1.33¼	1.50
1¼	1.25	1.45¾	1.66½	1.87½
1½	1.50	1.75	2.	2.25
1¾	1.75	2.04	2.33¼	2.62½
2	2.	2.33¼	2.66½	3.
2¼	2.25	2.62½	3.	3.37½
2½	2.50	2.91½	3.33¼	3.75
2¾	2.75	3.20¾	3 66½	4.12½
3	3.	3.50	4.	4.50
3¼	3.25	3.79	4 33¼	4.87½
3½	3.50	4 08¼	4.66½	5.25
3¾	3.75	4.37½	5.	5.62½
4	4.	4.66½	5.33¼	6.
4¼	4.25	4.95¾	5.66½	6.37½
4½	4.50	5.25	6.	6.75
4¾	4.75	5 54	6.33¼	7.12½
5	5.	5 83¼	6 66½	7.50
5½	5.50	6.41½	7.33¼	8.25
6	6.	7.	8.	9.
7	7.	8.16½	9.33¼	10.50
8	8.	9.33¼	10 66½	12.
9	9.	10.50	12.	13.50
10	10.	11.66½	13.33¼	15.
11	11.	12.83¼	14.66½	16.50
12	12.	14.	16.	18.
18	18.	21.	24.	27.
24	24.	28.	32.	36.
26	26.	30.33¼	34.66½	39.

Days.	$10	$11	$12	$13
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.41⅔	.46	.50	.54
½	.83½	.91⅔	1.	1.08½
¾	1.25	1.37½	1.50	1.62½
1	1.66⅔	1.83½	2.	2.16⅔
1¼	2.08½	2.29	2.50	2.71
1½	2.50	2.75	3.	3.25
1¾	2.91⅔	3.21	3.50	3.79
2	3.33½	3 66⅔	4.	4.33½
2¼	3.75	4.12½	4.50	4.87½
2½	4.16⅔	4.58½	5.	5.41⅔
2¾	4.58½	5.04	5.50	5.96
3	5.	5.50	6.	6.50
3¼	5.41⅔	5.96	6.50	7.04
3½	5.83½	6.41⅔	7.	7.58½
3¾	6.25	6.87½	7.50	8.12½
4	6.66⅔	7.33½	8.	8.66⅔
4¼	7.08½	7.79	8.50	9.21
4½	7.50	8 25	9.	9.75
4¾	7.91⅔	8.71	9.50	10.29
5	8.33½	9.16⅔	10.	10.83½
5½	9.16⅔	10.08½	11.	11.91⅔
6	10.	11.	12.	13.
7	11.66⅔	12.83⅓	14.	15.16⅔
8	13.33½	14.66⅔	16.	17.33½
9	15.	16.50	18.	19.50
10	16.66⅔	18.33½	20.	21.66⅔
11	18.33½	20.16⅔	22.	23.83½
12	20.	22.	24.	26.
18	30.	33.	36.	39.
24	40.	44.	48.	52.
26	43.33½	47.66⅔	52.	56.33½

Days.	$14	$15	$16	$17
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.58½	.62½	.66⅔	.71
½	1.16⅔	1.25	1.33⅓	1.41⅔
¾	1.75	1.87½	2.	2.12½
1	2.33⅓	2.50	2.66⅔	2.83½
1¼	2.91⅔	3.12½	3.33½	3.54
1½	3.50	3.75	4.	4.25
1¾	4.08½	4.37½	4.66⅔	4.96
2	4.66⅔	5.	5.33½	5.66⅔
2¼	5.25	5.62½	6.	6.37½
2½	5.83⅓	6.25	6.66⅔	7.08½
2¾	6.41⅔	6.87½	7.33½	7.79
3	7.	7.50	8.	8.50
3¼	7.58½	8.12½	8.66⅔	9.21
3½	8.16⅔	8.75	9.33½	9.91⅔
3¾	8.75	9.37½	10.	10.62½
4	9.33½	10.	10.66⅔	11.33½
4¼	9.91⅔	10.62½	11.33½	12.04
4½	10.50	11.25	12.	12.75
4¾	11.08½	11.87½	12.66⅔	13.46
5	11.66⅔	12.50	13.33½	14 16⅔
5½	12.83½	13.75	14.66⅔	15.58½
6	14.	15.	16.	17.
7	16.33½	17.50	18.66⅔	19.83½
8	18.66⅔	20.	21.33½	22.66⅔
9	21.	22.50	24.	25.50
10	23.33½	25.	26.66⅔	28.33½
11	25.66⅔	27.50	29.33½	31.16⅔
12	28.	30.	32.	34.
18	42.	45.	48.	51.
24	56.	60.	64.	68.
26	60.66½	65.	69.33½	73.66⅔

Days.	$18	$19	$20	$21
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
¼	.75	.79	.83⅓	.87½
½	1.50	1.58⅓	1.66⅔	1.75
¾	2.25	2.37½	2.50	2.62½
1	3.	3.16⅔	3.33⅓	3.50
1¼	3.75	3.96	4.16⅔	4.37½
1½	4.50	4.75	5.	5.25
1¾	5.25	5.54	5.83⅓	6.12½
2	6.	6.33⅓	6.66⅔	7.
2¼	6.75	7.12½	7.50	7.87½
2½	7.50	7.91⅔	8.33⅓	8.75
2¾	8.25	8.71	9.16⅔	9.62½
3	9.	9.50	10.	10.50
3¼	9.75	10.29	10.83⅓	11.37½
3½	10.50	11.08½	11.66⅔	12.25
3¾	11.25	11.87½	12.50	13.12½
4	12.	12.66⅔	13.33⅓	14.
4¼	12.75	13.46	14.16⅔	14.87½
4½	13.50	14.25	15.	15.75
4¾	14.25	15.04	15.83⅓	16.62½
5	15.	15.83½	16.66⅔	17.50
5½	16.50	17.41⅔	18.33½	19.25
6	18.	19.	20.	21.
7	21.	22.16⅔	23.33⅓	24.50
8	24.	25.33½	26.66⅔	28.
9	27.	28.50	30.	31.50
10	30.	31.66⅔	33.33⅓	35.
11	33.	34.83⅓	36.66⅔	38.
12	36.	38.	40.	42.00
18	54.	57.	60.	63.
24	72.	76.	80.	84
26	78.	82.33½	86.66⅔	91.

RATE OF BOARD BY THE WEEK.

Time.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.
W. D.	$2.00	$2.25	$2.50	$3.00	$3.50
1	.29	.32	.36	.43	.50
2	.57	.64	.71	.86	1.
3	.86	.96	1.07	1.29	1.50
4	1.14	1.26	1.43	1.71	2.
5	1.43	1.61	1.79	2.14	2.50
6	1.71	1.93	2.14	2.57	3.
1.1	2.29	2.57	2.86	3.43	4.
1.2	2.57	2.89	3.21	3.86	4.50
1.3	2.86	3.21	3.57	4.29	5.
1.4	3.14	3.54	3.93	4.71	5.50
1.5	3.43	3.86	4.29	5.14	6.
1.6	3.71	4.18	4.64	5.57	6.50
2.	4.	4.50	5.	6.	7.
2.1	4.29	4.82	5.36	6.43	7.50
2.2	4.57	5.14	5.71	6.86	8.
2.3	4.86	5.46	6.07	7.29	8.50
2.4	5.14	5.79	6.43	7.71	9.
2.5	5.43	6.11	6.79	8.14	9.50
2.6	5.71	6.43	7.14	8.57	10.
3.	6.	6.75	7.50	9.	10.50
3.1	6.29	7.07	7.86	9.43	11.
3.2	6.57	7.39	8.21	9.86	11.50
3.3	6.86	7.71	8.57	10.29	12.
3.4	7.14	8.04	8.93	10.71	12.50
3.5	7.43	8 36	9.29	11.14	13.
3.6	7.71	8.68	9.64	11.57	13.50
4.	8.	9.	10.	12.	14.

Time.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.
W. D.	$4.00	$4.50	$5.00	$5.50	$6.00
1	.57	.64	.71	.79	.86
2	1.14	1.29	1.43	1.57	1.71
3	1.71	1.93	2.14	2.36	2.57
4	2.29	2.57	2.86	3.14	3.43
5	2.86	3.21	3.57	3.93	4.29
6	3.48	3.86	4.29	4.71	5.14
1.1	4.57	5.14	5.71	6.29	6.86
1.2	5.14	5.79	6.43	7.07	7.71
1.3	5.71	6.43	7.14	7.86	8.57
1.4	6.29	7.07	7.86	8.64	9.43
1.5	6.86	7.71	8.57	9.43	10.29
1.6	7.43	8.36	9.29	10.21	11.14
2.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
2.1	8.57	9.64	10.71	11.79	12.86
2.2	9.14	10.29	11.43	12.57	13.71
2.3	9.71	10.93	12.14	13.36	14.57
2.4	10.29	11.67	12.86	14.14	15.43
2.5	10.86	12.21	13.57	14.93	16.29
2.6	11.43	12.86	14.29	15.71	17.14
3.	12.	13.50	15.	16.50	18.
3.1	12.57	14.14	15.71	17 29	18.86
3.2	13.14	14.79	16.43	18.07	19.71
3.3	13.71	15.43	17.14	18.86	20.57
3.4	14.29	16.07	17.86	19.64	21.43
3.5	14.86	16.71	18.57	20.43	22.29
3.6	15.43	17.36	19.29	21.21	23.14
4.	16.	18.	20.	22.	24.



WE have seen that logarithmic tables may be used as a substitute for many lengthened operations in arithmetic. It is evident that the value of all methods of computation lies in their brevity. Algebra must be considered as one of the most important departments of mathematical science, on account of the extreme rapidity and certainty with which it enables us to determine the most involved and intricate questions. The term *algebra* is of Arabic origin, and has a reference to the resolution and composition of quantities. In the manner in which it is applied, it embodies a method of performing calculations by means of various signs and abbreviations, which are used instead of words and phrases, so that it may be called the system of symbols. Although it is a science of calculation, yet its operations must not be confounded with those of arithmetic. All calculations in arithmetic refer to some particular individual question, whereas those of algebra refer to a whole class of questions. One great advantage in algebra is, that all the steps of any particular course of reasoning are, by means of symbols, placed at once before the eye, so that the mind, being unimpeded in its operations, proceeds uninterruptedly from one step of reasoning to another, until the solution of the question is attained.

Symbols are used to represent not only the known, but also the unknown quantities. The present custom is to represent all known quantities by the first letters of the alphabet, as a, b, c, etc and the unknown quantities by the last letters, x, y, z.

The symbols used in arithmetic to denote addition, subtraction, etc., belong properly to algebra. Thus the sign + *plus* denotes that one quantity is to be added to another, and is called the positive or additive sign; all numbers to which it is prefixed are called *positive*. The sign − *minus* denotes that one quantity is to be subtracted from another; it is called the negative or subtractive sign, and all quantities to which it is prefixed are called *negative*. If neither + nor − be prefixed to a quantity, then the sign + *plus* is understood.

The general sign to denote that one number is to be multiplied by another is ×; but it often occurs that one letter has to be multiplied by another, and this is represented by placing those letters one after another, generally according to the order in which they stand in the alphabet; thus a multiplied by b is expressed by ab. The multiplication of quantities consisting of more than one term, as, for instance, $a+b$ by $c+d$, may be represented by any one of the following methods: $\overline{a+b} \times \overline{c+d}$, or $\overline{a+b} \cdot \overline{c+d}$, or $(a+b)\,(c+d)$. The bar drawn over $a+b$ and $c+d$, which in the first two examples marks them as distinct quantities, is called a *vinculum*, but brackets or parentheses for the same purpose, as in the last example, are now in more frequent use.

When a letter is multiplied by any given number, it is usual to prefix that number to the letter. Thus, twice a, three times b, four times c, six times x, etc., are expressed thus: $2a$, $3b$, $4c$, $6x$; and the numbers 2, 3, 4, 6, thus prefixed, are called the *coefficients* of the letters before which they stand.

The sign ÷ between two numbers shows, as in arithmetic, that the former of those numbers is to be divided by the latter; thus, $a \div b$ means that a is to be divided by b. It is, however, more usual to place the number to be divided above that by which it is to be divided, with a small line between, in the form of a fraction; thus $\frac{a}{b}$ denotes that a is divided by b.

In arithmetic the powers of quantities are denoted by a small figure, called the exponent or index of the power. Thus $a \times a$, or the square of a, is expressed by a^2; $b \times b \times b$, or the cube of b, is expressed by b^3, etc. The cube of $x+b$ is expressed thus: $(a+b)^3$.

The roots of quantities are represented by the sign $\sqrt{}$ with

the proper index affixed; thus $\sqrt[2]{a}$, or, more simply, $\sqrt{a}$, expresses the square root of a; $\sqrt[3]{a}$ the cube root of a; $\sqrt[4]{a+b}$ represents the 4th or biquadratic root of $a+b$. Fractional indices are also frequently used to denote the roots of quantities, thus:—

$a^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is the square root of a.

$a^{\frac{1}{3}}$ is the cube root of a.

$a^{\frac{1}{4}}$ is the 4th root of a, etc.

Again, $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$ is the cube root of a^2, or of the square of a.

$a^{\frac{3}{2}}$ is the square root of a^3, or of the cube of a.

$a^{\frac{2}{5}}$ is the 5th root of a^2.

When two or more letters or quantities are connected together by signs, the combination is called an algebraic expression, and each letter or quantity is called a *term*.

Quantities of one term are called simple quantities; as c, $2a$, $3b$, etc.

A quantity of two terms, as $b+c$, is called a *binomial*.

When the binomial expresses the difference between two quantities, it is called a *residual*, as $a-b$.

A quantity consisting of 3, 4, or many terms, are called respectively *trinomials*, *quadrinomials*, *multinomials*.

The sign $=$ placed between two quantities shows, as in arithmetic, the *equality* of those quantities.

When quantities are connected by this sign, the expression is called an *equation:* thus, $2+4=6$, is an equation, as also $a+b=c-f$.

The symbol $>$ or $<$ is called that of *inequality*, it being placed between two quantities, of which one is greater than the other; the open part of the symbol is always turned towards the greater quantity: thus, $a > b$ denotes a to be greater than b; and $c < d$ denotes d to be greater than c. The sign of difference $\sim$, is only used when it is uncertain which of two quantities is the greater; thus $e \sim f$ denotes the difference between e and f when it is uncertain which is the greater.

The word *therefore*, or *consequently*, often occurring in algebraical reasoning, the symbol $\therefore$ has been chosen to represent it: thus, the sentence "Therefore $a+b$ is equal to $c+d$," is thus expressed in algebra, $\therefore a+b=c+d$.

Like quantities are such as consist of the same letter or letters, or power of letters: thus, $6a$ and $2a$ are like quantities, and also $4abc$ and $9abc$. *Unlike* quantities are such as consist of different letters: as, $4a$, $5b$, $6ax^2$, $4cd$, which are all unlike quantities.

ADDITION.

The operation of addition in arithmetic consists, as has been shown, simply in joining or adding several quantities together: thus, $4+8+7+6=25$. This same process is always used in algebra, whenever *like* quantities with *like* signs are required to be added: thus, $2a+3a+6a=11a$; and $-7b-4b-6b=-17b$. But as it often happens that like quantities which are to be added together have unlike signs, addition has in algebra a far more extended signification than in arithmetic. Thus, to add $7x+4a$ to $8a-3a$, it is evident that, after $7a+4a+8x$ have been added according to the usual method, $3a$ must be subtracted. Hence the general rule for the addition of *like* quantities with *unlike* signs is to add first the coefficients of the positive terms, and then to add those of the negative terms; the less sum must be subtracted from the greater, and to this difference the sign of the greater must be annexed, with the common letter or letters. Thus, let it be required to add $7c-3a+4a+5a-6a-2a$ and $9a$; $25a$ will be found the sum of the positive terms, and $11a$ that of the negative; $11a$, being the less number, must therefore be subtracted from $25c$, the greater, leaving a remainder of $14a$, which is the required amount.

Unlike quantities can only be added by collecting them in one line, and prefixing the proper sign of each; thus, the sum of $3a+2b+4c-2d$ can only be rendered $3a+2b+4c-2d$; this will be evident by reflecting that different letters in the same algebraical expression always represent different quantities, which cannot of course be added into one sum unless their precise value be known. Thus, the addition of a and b cannot be represented by $2a$ or $2b$, because that would imply that a is equal to b, which it is not necessarily; neither could it be represented by ab, because ab denotes the multiplication of the two quantities; the only method then of expressing these sums is thus, $a+b$. When like and unlike quantities are mixed together, as in the following example, the like quantities must first be collected together according to the method above described, and all unlike quantities must be annexed in order:—

$$\begin{array}{r} 9a + 5xy - 8ay \\ -8xy - 10x + 2xy \\ 3x - 7ay - 5x \\ 5ax - 6ax + 11y \\ -xy - 4a + 9ax \\ 2ay + 12x - 2a \\ \hline -10y - 3xy + 13ay \\ \hline 3a - 8ax - 5xy + y \end{array}$$

Subtraction.

When two like quantities, having like signs, are to be subtracted the one from the other, the process is precisely the same as that already described in arithmetic: thus, $3a$ subtracted from $7a$, leaves as a remainder $4a$. From $8a+5a$ take $6a+2a$, and the remainder will be $2a+3a$, or $5a$.

But supposing it were required to subtract $6a-4a$ from $9a$, it is evident that some other process must be adopted; because, if $6a$ be subtracted from $9a$, the proposed operation will not be performed; for it is not $6a$, but $6a-4a$, that is, $2a$, which is required to be subtracted from $9a$; $6a$ subtracted from $9a$ leaves $3a$, which is $4a$ less than would result

from subtracting $2a$ from $9a$; but if to $3a$ we add the other term, namely, $4a$, the sum will be the remainder sought, because $3a + 4a = 7a$; and if $2a$ be subtracted from $9a$, which is just the same question in another form, for $6a - 4a$ is $= 2a$, the remainder is just $7a$ as before. So, if $a - b$ is to be subtracted from c, the remainder would be $c - a + b$, and for the same reason. It may therefore be given as a general rule, that all the signs of a quantity which is required to be subtracted from another must be changed: thus, when $4x - 3y$ is subtracted from $7a + 5b$, the remainder is written thus, $7a + 5b - 4x + 3y$.

When like quantities are to be subtracted from each other, it is usual to place them in two rows, the one above the other; the signs of the quantities to be subtracted must, for the reason above adduced, be conceived to be changed; and the several quantities must be added, as shown in the following example:—

From $5ax + 7xy - 2y$
Take $3y + 3ax - 6xy$
Remainder, $2ax + 13xy - 5y$

Multiplication.

The multiplication of two quantities is performed by multiplying, as in arithmetic, the coefficients of the quantities, and then prefixing the proper sign and annexing letters: thus, the product of $3a$, multiplied by $5b$, is $15ab$, and $7a \times 4ab = 28a^2b$.

When the signs of both quantities are alike, the sign + is to be prefixed; but when unlike, the sign — must be prefixed, which may be thus shown at one view:—

1. + multiplied by + produces +
2. — multiplied by — produces +
3. + multiplied by — produces —
4. — multiplied by + produces —

Hence the technical rule generally given is, that "like numbers produce *plus* +, and unlike produce *minus* —." This, however, is not perfectly true when more than two quantities are to be successively multiplied; because although the product of an even number of negative quantities is positive, yet the product of an odd number of negative quantities is always negative; thus,

$$-a \times -b \times -d = -abd$$
$$\text{and } -a \times -b \times -d \times -e = abde.$$

When the same letter occurs in both quantities, the indices must be added; thus, $a^2 \times a^3 = aaaaa = a^5$. In the multiplication of compound quantities, it is usual to commence from the left-hand figure; the multiplication, for instance, of $8ab - 4ac + x$ by $2a$, is thus performed:—

$$\begin{array}{r} 8ab - 4ac + x \\ 2a \\ \hline 16a^2b - 8a^2c + 2ax \end{array}$$

To multiply two compound quantities, each term of the one must, as in arithmetic, be multiplied by each term of the other; these particular or partial products must be added according to the rules of addition, and their sum will give the whole product, as shown in the following instance:—

Multiply $3a + 8b$
By $a - b$
$3a^2 + 8ab$
$-3ab - 8b^2$
Product, $3a^2 + 5ab - 8b^2$

Division.

The operations of division being in algebra, as in arithmetic, merely the converse of those of multiplication, the same rules respecting signs apply in both. Thus, $6ab^2$, divided by $2b$, is equal to $3ab$,

$$\text{And } -8cx^2 \div 4x, \text{ or } -\frac{8cx^2}{4x} = -2cx.$$

In division, all letters common to both quantities must be omitted in the quotient; and when the same letters occur in both with different indices, the index of the letter in the divisor must be subtracted from that in the dividend; thus,

$$abx \div ab, \text{ or } \frac{abx}{ab} = x: \text{ and}$$
$$6a^5 \div 2a^3 \text{ or } \frac{6a^5}{2a^3}, = 3a^2$$

When the exponent of any letter in the divisor exceeds that of the same letter in the dividend, the latter exponent must be subtracted from the former, and the quotient will be in the form of a fraction; thus,

$$-12a^3x^2 \div 8ax^5 = -\frac{12^2a^3x^2}{8ax^5} = -\frac{3a^2}{2x^3}$$

When the number to be divided is a compound quantity, and the divisor a simple one, then each term of the dividend must be divided separately, and the result will be the answer; thus,

$$\frac{6a + 24ab + 8a^2 + 12ac}{2a} = 3 + 12b + 4a + 6c$$

When the divisor and dividend are both compound quantities, the rule is the same as that of long division in arithmetic. When there is a remainder, it must be made the numerator of a fraction, under which the divisor must be put as the denominator; this fraction must then be placed in the quotient, as in arithmetic. The compound quantities must, however, be previously arranged in a particular way, namely, according to the descending powers of some letter, as of b in the following example; and this letter is called the *leading* quantity. The following is an example of the division of compound quantities:—

$$
\begin{array}{l}
-x)\ b^3 - 3\,b^2x + 3\,bx^2 - x^3\ (b^2 - 2\,bx + x^2 \\
\quad b^3 - \ b^2x \\
\quad\ * - 2\,b^2x + 3\,bx^2 \\
\quad\quad - 2\,b^2x + 2\,bx^2 \\
\quad\quad\ * \qquad bx^2 - x^3 \\
\quad\quad\quad\quad\ bx^2 - x^3 \\
\quad\quad\quad\quad\ *
\end{array}
$$

Fractions.

The rules regulating the management of fractions in algebra are similar to those in arithmetic.

A mixed quantity is reduced to a fraction by multiplying the whole or integral part by the denominator of the fraction, and annexing the numerator with its proper sign to the product; the former denominator, if placed under this sum, will give the required fraction. Thus, the mixed quantity $2\,x + \frac{5\,av}{6\,e}$ may be thus reduced to a fraction: $2\,x \times 6\,e = 12\,ex$, and as $5\,ab$ must be added to form the numerator, and the former denominator be retained, the required fraction is the following: $\frac{12\,ex + 5\,ab}{6\,e}$. An operation exactly the reverse of this would of course be requisite, were it proposed to reduce a fraction to a mixed quantity. Thus, the fraction $\frac{12\,ex + 5\,ab}{6\,e}$ may be reduced to a mixed number by dividing the numerator by the denominator; the numerator of the fractional part must be formed by that term which is not divisible without a remainder; the following is therefore the required mixed quantity: $2\,a + \frac{5\,ab}{6\,e}$. A fraction is reduced to its lowest terms, in algebra as in arithmetic, by dividing the numerator and denominator by any quantity capable of dividing them both without leaving a remainder. Thus, in the fraction $\frac{10\,a^3 + 20\,ab + 5\,a^2}{35\,a^2}$, it is evident that the coefficient of every term can be divided by 5, and as the letter a enters into every term, $5\,a$ may be called the greatest common measure of this fraction, because it can divide both the numerator and the denominator. The numerator, $(10\,a^3 + 20\,ab + 5\,a^2) \div 5\,a = 2\,a^2 + 4\,b + a$; and the denominator, $35\,a^2 \div 5\,a = 7\,a$; hence the fraction, in its lowest terms, is $\frac{2\,a^2 + 4\,b + a}{7\,a}$.

Sometimes the greatest common measure of two quantities is not so obvious as in the example just adduced, in which case recourse must be had to the following operation:—The quantity, the exponent of whose leading letter in the first term is not less than that in the other, must first be divided by the other; the divisor must then be divided by the remainder; each successive remainder is made the divisor of the last divisor, until nothing remains, when the divisor last used will be the greatest common measure. Quantities which have no common measure or divisor except 1, are called *incommensurable*; thus, 7, 5, 3, and 11, are incommensurable quantities, and are also said to be *prime* to each other. When fractions are required either to be added or to be subtracted, they must necessarily be first reduced to a common denominator, which is effected by multiplying each numerator by every denominator but its own, to produce new numerators, and all the denominators together for the common denominator. The new numerators can then be either added or subtracted according as the case may require, and the new denominator must be left unchanged. Multiplication of fractions is performed by multiplying all the numerators together for a new numerator, and their denominators together for a new denominator; it is then usual to reduce the resulting fraction to its lowest terms. Division of fractions is effected by multiplying the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor. The reciprocal of any quantity is unity, or 1, divided by that quantity, or simply that quantity inverted: thus, the reciprocal of a or $\frac{a}{1}$ is $\frac{1}{a}$, and the reciprocal of $\frac{a}{b}$ is $\frac{b}{a}$; therefore, to divide a fraction, as $\frac{8\,a^2}{4}$, by $\frac{4\,a}{5}$, the dividend, $\frac{8\,a^2}{4}$, must be multiplied by the reciprocal of $\frac{4\,a}{5}$, which is $\frac{5}{4\,a}$; therefore, $\frac{8\,a^2}{4} \times \frac{5}{4\,a} = \frac{40\,a^2}{16\,a}$; this last fraction, divided by its greatest common measure, $8\,a$, is the fraction required, namely, $\frac{5\,a}{2}$.

Involution and Evolution.

The raising of a quantity to any required power is called involution, and is performed by multiplying the quantity into itself as often as it is indicated by the given power. When the quantity has no index, it is only necessary to place the given power above it, in order merely to indicate the power: thus, the 4th power of a is a^4, and the cube or 3d power of $a + b$ is $(a + b)^3$.

When the quantity has an index, that index must be multiplied by the given power; thus, the fourth power of a^2 is a^8, because $2 \times 4 = 8$. If the quantity required to be raised be a fraction, both the numerator and the denominator must be multiplied by the given power: thus, the square of $\frac{a^2}{d^3}$ is $\frac{a^4}{d^6}$. When the sign of the quantity is +, then all the powers to which it can be raised must be +; if −, then all the even powers will be +, and all the odd powers −. Thus $x \times x = x^2$; $-a \times -a = +a^2$; $-a \times -a \times -a = -a^3$.

A compound quantity, that is, one consisting of more than

one term, is raised to any given power by multiplying it into itself the number of times denoted by the power. This is done according to the method already described in multiplication. Thus, the square of $x + 4y$, is thus found:—

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Multiply } x + 4y \\ \text{By} \quad x + 4y \\ \hline x^2 + 4xy \\ \quad 4xy + 16y^2 \\ \hline \text{Square} = x^2 + 8xy + 16y^2 \end{array}$$

The operations of evolution are the reverse of those of involution, being designed to discover the square root, cube root, etc., of any given quantity. The roots of numerical coefficients are found as in arithmetic: thus, the square root of 49 a^2, is 7 a, because $7 \times 7 = 49$. The index of the given quantity must be divided by 2 for the square root, by 3 for the cube root, by 4 for the 4th root, etc.: thus, the cube root of a^6 is a^2.

The square root of compound quantities may be extracted by a method very similar to that described in arithmetic, and of which an example was there given. The cube root may likewise be extracted by a similar process.

Irrational Quantities, or Surds.

Some numbers have no exact root; for instance, no number multiplied into itself can produce 5. The roots of such quantities are expressed by fractional indices, or by the sign $\surd$, which is called the radical sign, from the Latin *radix*, a root: thus, the square root of 5, and the cube root of $(a + b)^2$, may be expressed either by $\surd 5$, $\sqrt[3]{(a + b)^2}$, or by $5^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $(a + b)^{\frac{2}{3}}$.

The approximate value of such quantities can be ascertained to any required degree of exactness by the common rules for extracting roots: thus, the square root of 2 is 1 and an indefinite number of decimals: but as the exact value can never be determined, the name of *irrational* is given to such quantities, to distinguish them from all numbers whatever, whether whole or fractional, of which the value can be found, and which are therefore termed *rational*. Irrational numbers are generally called *surds*, from the Latin *surdus*, deaf or senseless.

Equations.

When two quantities are equal to each other, the algebraical expression denoting their equality is called an *equation*. Thus, $x - 2 = 4 + 3$ is an equation, denoting that if 2 be deducted from some unknown quantity represented by x, the remainder will be equal to $4 + 3$, that is, to 7; therefore, the value of x in this equation is evidently $7 + 2$, or 9.

The doctrine of equations constitutes by far the most important part of algebra, it being one of the principal objects of mathematics to reduce all questions to the form of equations, and then to ascertain the value of the unknown quantities by means of their relations to other quantities of which the value is known.

Many problems, which are now quickly and readily determined by being reduced to equations, used formerly to be solved by tedious and intricate arithmetical rules; and they may still be found in old treatises on arithmetic, arranged under the titles of Double and Single Position, False Position, Allegation, etc. Equations receive different names, according to the highest power of the unknown quantities contained in them. An equation is said to be *simple*, or of the *first degree*, when it contains only the first power of the unknown quantity: thus, $x \times b = 35a - 2$ is a simple equation, the unknown quantity being represented by x, as it generally is in other equations, and the known quantities by the other letters and figures. $x^2 + 4 = 8a$, is a *quadratic* equation, because x, the unknown quantity, is raised to the second power.

$x^3 = a + 3b$ is a *cubic* equation, the unknown quantity being raised to the third power.

$x^4 - a = 25c$ is a *biquadratic* equation, because x is raised to the 4th power. If equations contain unknown quantities raised to the 5th, 6th, or higher powers, they are denominated accordingly.

The quantities of which an equation is composed, are called its *terms*; and the parts that stand on the right and left of the sign $=$, are called the *members* or *sides* of the equation.

When it is desired to determine any question that may arise respecting the value of some unknown quantity by means of an equation, two distinct steps or operations are requisite; the first step consists in translating the question from the colloquial language of common life into the peculiar analytical language of the science. The second step consists in finding, by given rules, the answer to the question, or in other words, the solution of the equation. Expertness and facility in performing the former operation cannot be produced by any set of rules; in this, as in many other processes, practice is the best teacher. Every new question requires a new process of reasoning; the conditions of the question must be well considered, and all the operations, whether of addition, subtraction, etc., which are required to be performed on the quantities which it contains, are to be represented by the algebraic signs of $+$, $-$, etc.: the whole problem must be written down as if these operations had been already performed, and as if the unknown quantities were discovered, which can be done very briefly by substituting the first letters of the alphabet for the known quantities, and the last letters for the unknown, prefixing to each the signs of addition, multiplication, etc., which may be denoted in the question.

The second operation in determining a question may be said to consist in contrivances to get x, or the unknown quantity, to stand alone on one side of the equation, without destroying the equality or balance between the two sides; because, in

such an equation, for instance, as the following, $x = 4 + 2$, the value of x is at once seen; if 6 were to be put in the place of x, the question would be said to be *fulfilled*, because then it would stand thus, $6 = 6$; therefore, 6 is the *root* or solution of the equation $x = 4 + 2$. In some questions, the unknown quantity is so much involved with known quantities, that it is often a difficult, although always a highly interesting, process to separate it from them. Many rules for effecting this are given in most algebraical treatises, but they may all be comprised in one general observation, namely, that any operation, whether of addition, subtraction, etc., may be performed on one side of an equation, provided only that the very same operation be performed on the other side, so as not to destroy their equality. Thus, in the equation $x + 5 = 12$, it is evident that, if 5 could be removed from the left to the right side of the equation, x would stand alone, and its value at once be ascertained; it having been already stated that any operation may be performed on one side of the equation, provided only the same operation be performed on the other, it follows that 5 may be subtracted from the left side, if subtracted likewise from the right; therefore, $x + 5 - 5 = 12 - 5$; but $5 - 5$ being equal to 0, the equation would more properly be expressed thus, $x = 12 - 5$; that is to say, the value of x is 7. Again, in the equation $x - 10 = 27$, add ten to each side of the equation; then, $x - 10 + 10 = 27 + 10$; but $-10 + 10 = 0$; therefore, $x = 27 + 10$. When the same quantity is thus subtracted from both sides of an equation, or added to both sides, the operation is technically, though perhaps incorrectly, termed, "*transposing* quantities from one side of an equation to the other."

The reason why the same operation performed upon both sides of an equation does not alter their equality, is simply because "if equal quantities be added to, or subtracted from, equal quantities, the value of the quantities will still be equal." To illustrate this, supposing a wine-merchant has 2 casks of wine, each cask containing 36 gallons, it is evident that, if he draws off the same number of gallons from each cask, the quantity of gallons remaining in each cask will still be equal; so, if he were to replace the same number of gallons of wine in each cask, the number of gallons contained in each would still be equal to each other. For the same reason, if the two sides of an equation were either multiplied or divided by the same number, their equality to each other would still remain; in the equation $3x = 27$, the value of x may be discovered by dividing both sides of the equation by its coefficient, 3; thus $\frac{3x}{3} = \frac{27}{3}$; but $\frac{3x}{3} = x$, and $\frac{27}{3} = 9$; $\therefore x = 9$. In the same way, if the unknown quantity in an equation is required to be divided by some known quantity, each side of the equation may be multiplied by the divisor: thus, in the equation $\frac{x}{4} = 32$, if each member be multiplied by 4, the result will be $x = 32 \times 4 = 128$. This is technically called clearing an equation of fractions.

ON SIMPLE EQUATIONS CONTAINING TWO OR MORE UNKNOWN QUANTITIES.

It may be given as a general rule, that when a question arises as to the value of two or more unknown quantities, each of these quantities must be represented by one of the last letters of the alphabet, and as many separate equations must be deduced from the question as there are unknown quantities. A group of equations of this kind is called a *system of simultaneous equations*.

If it be required to solve a system of two simple equations, containing two unknown quantities, the most natural method seems to be to determine first the value of one of the unknown quantities by means of both the equations. Then as "things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other," it follows that the two sets of numbers or letters in the two equations, which have been ascertained to be equal to the value of x, will also be equal to each other, and may be reduced to an equation, which will contain only one unknown quantity. This process is technically called *elimination*. Let it, for instance, be required to find the length of two planks of wood: the length of both planks together is 20 feet, and one plank is 8 feet longer than the other plank. This is evidently a question involving two unknown quantities, namely, the length of each of the two planks of wood. To translate this question into algebraical language, call the longer plank x, and the shorter plank y, then the facts above mentioned may be thus stated: $x + y = 20$, and $x - y = 8$. The value of x may be ascertained by means of both the equations, in the following manner:—

The first equation gives $x = 20 - y$
And the second, $x = 8 + y$

The two values of x, thus ascertained, must form a new equation, thus:—

$$20 - y = 8 + y$$
$$20 = 8 + 2y$$

So that it is evident from this last equation that $2y$ is equal to 12, because $20 - 8 = 12$; therefore $y = 6$, and $20 - 6 = 14$. The length of both the planks is thus ascertained, the longer being 14 feet in length, and the shorter 6 feet.

This problem is not only given as an example of *elimination*, but also as an illustration of the general theorem, that "the greater of two numbers is equal to half their sum, *plus* half their difference; and that the less number is equal to half the sum, *minus* half the difference." Thus the above question might have been solved in the following manner:—

$$\frac{20}{2} + \frac{8}{2} = 14, \text{ and } \frac{20}{2} - \frac{8}{2} = 6$$

The following is the method of demonstrating this curious theorem algebraically:—Let a and b be any two numbers of which a is the greater, and let their sum be represented by s, and their difference by d;

Then, $a + b = s$
and $a - b = d$

$$2a = s + d$$
$$\text{and} \quad a = \frac{s}{2} + \frac{d}{2}$$
$$\text{Also,} \quad 2b = s - d$$
$$\text{and} \quad b = \frac{s}{2} - \frac{d}{2}$$

QUADRATIC EQUATIONS.



A quadratic equation literally means a *squared equation*, the term being derived from the Latin *quadratus*, squared; a quadratic equation, therefore, is merely an equation in which the unknown quantity is squared or raised to the second power. Quadratic equations are often called equations of two dimensions, or of the second degree, because all equations are classed according to the index of the highest power of the unknown quantities contained in them.

There are two kinds of quadratic equations, namely, pure and adfected. *Pure* quadratic equations are those in which the first power of the unknown quantity does not appear: there is not the least difficulty in solving such equations, because all that is requisite is to obtain the value of the square according to the rules for solving simple equations, and then, by extracting the square root of both sides of the equation, to ascertain the value of the unknown quantity. For instance, let it be required to find the value of x in the equation $x^2 + 4 = 29$. By deducting 4 from each side of the equation, the value of x^2 is at once seen to be as follows: $x^2 = 29 - 4 = 25$; the square root of both sides of this equation will evidently give the value of x, thus, $x = \sqrt{25} = 5$. *Adfected* or *affected* quadratic equations are such as contain not only the square, but also the first power of the unknown quantities.

There are two methods of solving quadratic equations; we are indebted to the Hindoos for one of these methods, of which a full account is given in a very curious Hindoo work entitled *Bija Ganita*. The other method was discovered by the early Italian algebraists. The principle upon which both methods are founded is the following: It is evident that in an adfected equation, as for instance, $ax^2 + bx = d$, the first member, $ax^2 + bx$, is not a complete square; it is, however, necessary for the solution of the equation that the first side should be so modified as to be made a complete square, and that, by corresponding additions, multiplications, etc., the equality of the second side should not be lost; then, by extracting the square root of each side, the equation will be reduced to one of the first degree, which may be solved by the common process.



GYMNASTICS is a system of exercises which develop and invigorate the body, particularly the muscular system. If properly directed, gymnastics will enlarge and strengthen the various muscles of the trunk, neck, arms, and legs, and will expand the chest so as to facilitate the play of the lungs, will render the joints supple, and will impart to the person grace, ease, and steadiness of carriage, combined with strength, elasticity, and quickness of movement; but an injudicious mode of exercise will frequently confirm and aggravate those physical imperfections for which a remedy is sought, by developing the muscular system unequally.

WALKING, RUNNING, JUMPING, AND LEAPING.

In **Walking**, the arms should move freely by the side, the head be kept up, the stomach in, the shoulders back, the feet parallel with the ground, and the body resting neither on the toe nor heel, but on the ball of the foot. On starting, the pupil should raise one foot, keep the knee and instep straight, the toe bent downward. When this foot reaches the ground, the same should be repeated with the other. This should be practised until the pupil walks firmly and gracefully.

In **Running**, the legs should not be raised too high; the arms should be nearly still, so that no unnecessary opposition be given to the air by useless motions. In swift running the swing of the arms should be from the shoulder to the elbow, the fore-arm being kept nearly horizontal with the chest. Running in a circle is excellent exercise, but the direction should be changed occasionally, so that both sides of the ground may be equally worked: as if the ground be not kept level, the runners will find it difficult to maintain their equilibrium.

Jumping.—The first rule is, to fall on the toes, and never on the heels. Bend the knees, that the calves of the legs may touch the thighs. Swing the arms forward when taking a spring; break the fall with the hands if necessary; hold the breath, keep the body forward, come to the ground with both feet together, and, in taking the run, let your steps be short, and increase in quickness as you approach the leap.

Leaping.—*The Long Leap.*—Make a trench, which widens gradually from one end to the other, so that the breadth of the leap may be increased daily. Keep the feet close together, and take your spring from the toes of one foot, which should be quickly drawn up to the other, and they should descend at the same instant; throw the arms and body forward, especially in descending. Take a run of about twenty paces.

The Deep Leap.—This is performed from the top of a wall, or a flight of steps, increasing the depth according to the progress of the pupil. The body should be bent forward, the feet close together, and the hands ready to touch the ground at the same time with, or rather before the feet.

The High Leap.—This leap can best be taken over a light fence that will give way in the event of its being touched by the feet. It may be taken either standing or with a run: for the former, the legs should be kept together, and the feet and knees raised in a straight direction; for the latter, we recommend a short run, and a light tripping step, gradually quickened as the object to be leaped over is approached. You should be particularly careful not to alight on your heels, but rather on the toes and balls of the feet.

Let a set of apparatus be erected after the pattern we are about to give, and use be made of it as we shall recommend, and we will guarantee that there shall be fewer accidents in a

whole year than may be looked for in any ordinary high field-day at football; nay, more than this—that it shall prove not only a less perilous pastime than *any* of the regular outdoor sports, but actually a preservative against accidents from other causes.

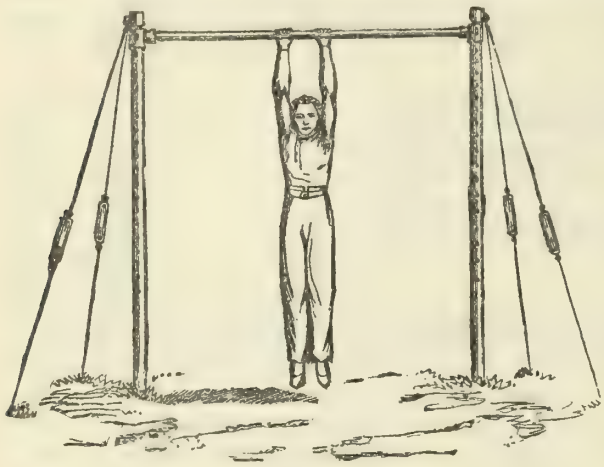


Fig. 1.

Our apparatus will consist of the following: horizontal bar, hanging bar, parallel bars, vaulting-horse, ladder, hanging ropes, and the usual *et ceteras*. Of these latter, however, we shall not take notice here; our attention will be entirely directed to the more advanced exercises.

The **Horizontal Bar** should be set up as follows: If intended as a permanency, two strong posts must be let into the ground or into iron sockets, standing seven feet apart and about eight feet in height; these are to support the bar, which must be made to shift up and down in grooves cut in the posts, so as to be easily adapted to the height of the performer. This bar should be of straight-grained ash, seven feet between the uprights, an inch and three-quarters in diameter, perfectly round, with a steel core an inch thick running through the centre. This last is a very important point.

If there be no steel core, then the bar must be reduced at least one foot in length and increased to two inches diameter; both of which, especially the latter, as making it clumsy to the grasp of an ordinary hand, will detract much from its practical value.

The bar must be so fastened to the uprights that there shall be no unsteadiness or vibration. A wabbly bar is a terrible nuisance, and is apt to throw one out of all calculation just at the critical point of a feat.

If for private use, or it be thought desirable to make it portable, the method of construction figured in our cut (Fig. 1) will be found very convenient and serviceable, and, what is more, thoroughly trustworthy.

The **Hanging Bar** must be very carefully constructed. The ropes should be attached securely to a good, firm, unyielding support, about fifteen or eighteen feet from the ground—this will be quite sufficient height—and the bar, which should be about twenty-six inches long by one-and-a-quarter in diameter, with a steel core as before, must be firmly attached to the ropes, so as to afford a safe hold. *Above all things, it must not revolve in the grasp.* The height from the ground must be regulated by the stature of the performer.

The **Parallel Bars** are very seldom constructed with anything like correctness of shape or proportions. A couple of clumsy rails—one might almost say beams—laid across two pairs of posts at any height from the ground and at any distance apart, are set up, dubbed "parallel bars," and are supposed to be all that could be desired. But, as might be supposed if people only took the trouble to think, parallel bars, to be of any real service, require as nice an adaptation to their purposes as any other mechanical contrivance.

The bars or rails, being intended for the grasp of the hands, must be of such size and shape as will afford the best grasp, and their height and distance apart must be adapted to the stature of those for whose use they are intended.

The *size* of the bars is especially important: if they be too large for a fair grasp, not only is the hand likely to slip and a heavy fall to result, but there is great danger to the wrist and thumb of serious sprains or dislocation. Moreover, when a fair grasp is impossible, many of the exercises—most of them, indeed—are also *ipso facto* impossible, and thus many beginners are disgusted at the outset: they are told to begin with such and such exercises, as simple preliminaries to others more advanced; they find after repeated trials that they cannot even make a commencement, and naturally soon give up the whole thing in despair.

For ordinary purposes, that is, for people not of exceptional stature, the most useful dimensions are these: height from the ground, four feet eight inches; distance apart, eighteen inches, or nineteen at most; for boys, seventeen or even sixteen will be sufficient. The length should not be less than seven feet, and the bars should be *round*, and of a diameter of two-and-an-eighth inches.

Oval bars are sometimes used, but we prefer the round ones,

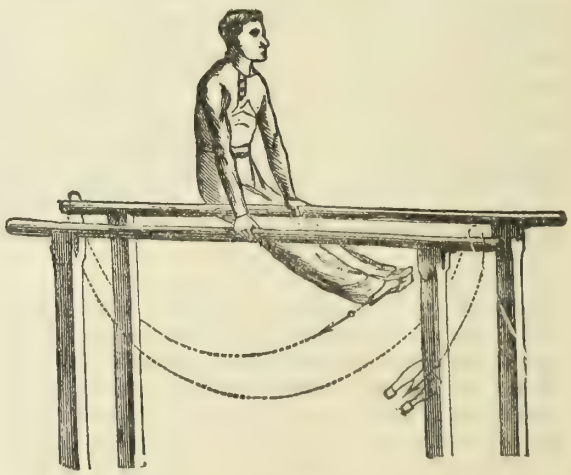


Fig. 2.

as they feel more natural, most of the other apparatus being of similar form.

For the uprights no dimensions need be given: all that is

needful is that they should be sufficiently strong. They should be fitted into a stout wooden frame, firmly morticed together. When in use, this frame must be fastened to the floors by screws. If required for a playground, or any place where it is necessary to have them fixed, they may readily be secured by wooden stakes or wedges driven into the ground.

A more convenient way is to sink the posts permanently into the ground; but then they are liable to decay from the damp, and thus to become unsafe.

The **Vaulting-Horse** is of all gymnastic apparatus that which has been hitherto most neglected.

There are various lengths for these horses, but the one you will find to be the most generally useful is six feet long and about sixteen inches across the back. It is covered with cow-hide all over and evenly padded, and is generally made with one end a little raised, with a slight bend corresponding to the neck of the animal which is its prototype; and this gives some form to it, and is useful as a mark where to place the hands.

There are two pommels placed about the centre, eighteen inches apart, and movable, so that the horse may be used without them if required; and in this case flush pommels, level with the back of the horse, are inserted into the grooves.

The legs must be made to slide up and down after the manner of a telescope, so that the horse may be used at heights varying from about three feet six inches to six feet.

It is also necessary to have a solid deal board, about three feet square, rising in thickness from a feather-edge to three inches, for taking what is technically termed a "beat" off

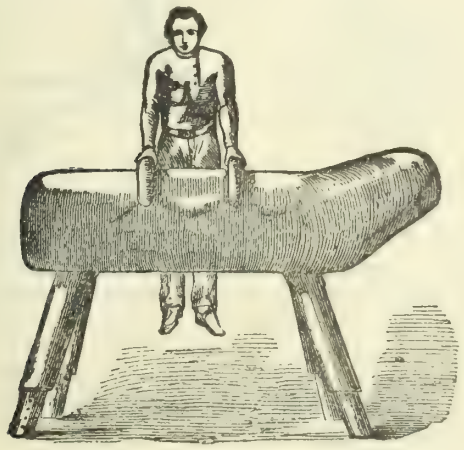


Fig. 3.

which is very useful in exercises which require to be performed lengthways on the horse. Of course it is not used as a spring-board, but only to give a firm foundation for the feet in jumping, and particularly to mark the place of starting when increasing or diminishing the distance from the horse.

The ladders, hanging ropes, and so on, we need not describe. There are, however, two more requisites to which we should wish to direct attention. One is the **Hand-Rings**: two ropes, as if for a hanging bar, but terminating instead each in an iron ring covered with leather, and large enough for the hand to grasp comfortably. These rings are made of various shapes; but that which we recommend as the most practically useful is the *stirrup*.

One other requisite, indispensable for safety in first essays at many of the feats we shall describe, is the **Lungers**, so called. This is a strong broad leather belt to buckle round the waist, with an iron ring or eye at each side. To these eyes are strongly attached ropes, one on each side, of sufficient strength to support the weight of the wearer. The figure will indicate the method of using it." (Fig. 4.)

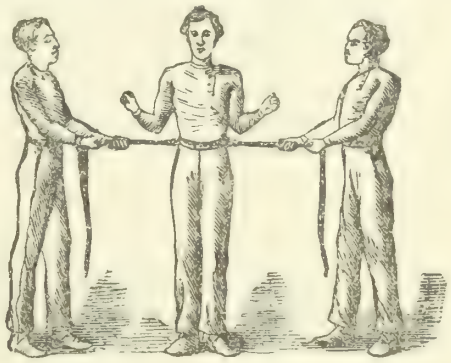


Fig. 4.

This is an invaluable safeguard for novices, and enables many to learn quickly—simply by the fearlessness it engenders—many a difficult feat which they would otherwise never dream of attempting.

We cannot help thinking that a similar appliance, only a little more above the centre of gravity, would prove of immense service in learning difficult figures in skating. Ladies, too, might profit by it in their first efforts, as all fear of unseemly falls would be quite dispelled.

So much for the construction of an apparatus; now for the use to be made of it. We will begin with

THE HORIZONTAL BAR.

But before we begin it must first be put into *good condition*. Most likely there will be a little grease on it from previous practice, which it is highly important should be removed before commencing. This is done in the following manner: Take a wet cloth (without soap or soda, as any kind of alkali will raise the grain of the wood and make it rough), and rub the bar with it; then get a few feet of rope—I find thick sash-line the best—give it one turn round the bar, and taking hold of each end, rub it up and down, gradually moving it from one end to the other. The friction will dry the wood remove the grease or dirt, and put on a good surface.

The bar being now in good condition, wash your hands perfectly clean, and you are ready to commence. You will find that there is no *resin* required, which every gymnast is compelled to use if the bar is not kept in good order. The use of resin is bad for various reasons: it will dirty your hands, and if you have not practiced much it will cause blisters sooner than otherwise. I have sometimes seen the skin of hard hands torn, and wounds ensue, preventing further practice for some

time. But if you are obliged to use resin, do it judiciously: powder a little, and rub only the *tips* of the fingers in it; avoid, above all things, getting it into the palm of the hands, as it will make them stick to the bar, and it is also very likely to cause jerks in swinging, and the grip will not be so certain as when the hands move smoothly round. These details may appear rather tedious, but you will find them useful, as they apply to all apparatus where the wood is handled.

Now, there is another thing you must bear in mind, and that is, the way in which you must take hold of the bar.

Some say that you should take hold of it as you would a handle, with the thumb underneath; but we think there is no doubt that the proper way is the same as that in which a monkey holds the branch of a tree—the thumb on the same side as the fingers. If the thumb be underneath, in all ordinary swinging exercises it has a tendency to draw the fingers off; although in some few slow movements it may be under, yet, as a rule, it is better above.

Now, keeping what has been said in mind, let us try some actual exercises.

Jump up at the bar, and hang with the hands, the body, arms, and legs perfectly straight, and the feet close together.

Hardly anything looks worse than to see the legs swinging about in all directions when you are performing an exercise; be careful, therefore, to keep them quite quiet; every unnecessary movement, you must recollect, is so much wasted force, and so much, therefore, taken from your chance of performing the feat.

To perform all feats quietly and easily shows the finished gymnast; and so far from violent exertions being the test of difficulty, the reverse is generally the case, and the easiest-looking feats are very often the hardest, and *vice versa*, and, besides, these irregular movements only tend to tire you.

Now, having hold of the bar with both hands, draw yourself up until the chin is above the bar; then lower the body until the arms are quite straight again.

Practice this exercise as often as you can without tiring, or until you can perform it six or eight times in succession, which you will not do until you have practiced for some little time.



Fig. 5.

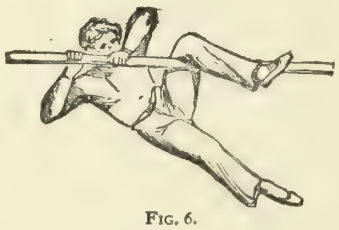


Fig. 6.

Beginners must now try a few gentle exercises, such as hanging by each hand alternately, the other close to the side.

Then begin to walk along the bar by the hands, taking alternate steps with them, making the steps as equal as possible, and keeping, as we said before, the legs hanging quietly down. Go in this manner from one end to the other, then reverse the hands, and back again.

Now draw yourself up, with your chin above the bar, as in Fig. 5, and repeat the walk in this position.

Next try a few good swings backward and forward at arms' length: you will find that you will swing farther each time, until you can swing your body almost into a horizontal position.

All these little exercises should be repeated as often as possible; they help to strengthen the muscles, and accustom the hands to the feel of the bar.

To Get on the Bar.—Draw yourself up as in the last figure (Fig. 5), then suddenly drop the whole of the right side, raising at the same time the left leg and throwing it over the bar, as in Fig. 6. Now establish a good swing with the right leg, and you will bring your body well over the bar, when a sudden exertion of muscle will bring you sitting in the attitude of Fig. 7. This is by no means an easy thing to do at first; but persevere, and, after a few failures, you will suddenly find you have succeeded: once accomplished, it will come easy enough.

At first you will find it hard matter enough to get your legs up to the bar at all. Beginners mostly try to lift the toes without bending the knees, and, of course, find it beyond their powers. Bring your knees up to your chin, doubling your feet well into your body, and you will find it come easy enough.



Fig. 7.



Fig. 8.

There is another method of getting on to the bar, by bringing the leg up through the hands, and with one good swing bringing yourself roundly up.

You may try either of these methods, but nothing but continued practice will enable you to master either of them; but when you do, and can get on to the bar in a respectable manner, you may consider you are making some progress. We now proceed to

The Leg-Swing.—Being in your original position, as in Fig. 7, throw your right leg as far behind you as possible, at the same time slipping the other leg backward, and catching by the bend of the knee, as in Fig. 8. Then throw the head back with a good swing (keeping the arms straight), and you will thus make one turn backward round the bar.

You will find at first you are apt to make a half-turn too much; but after a little practice you will be able to regulate the first swing so as to go round once, and come up into your first position with a good balance.

Next try two or three turns without stopping; but always endeavor to finish *above* the bar, as at starting. It is bad to stop as in Fig. 9, as you are disabled for the next exercise.



Fig. 9.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 11.

For the forward swing, reverse the hands, keeping the whole weight of the body on the arms, throw the head well to the front, and with one plunge forward—keeping tight hold with the hands, and the body erect, as in Fig. 10—you will make one forward revolution round the bar.

After some practice, you will be able to go round several times without stopping.

This exercise is actually easier than the former, but it requires more confidence, for the want of which you are apt to keep too close to the bar, and thus you do not get sufficient swing to bring you up again.

Practice both these exercises with right and left legs alternately.

Sitting on the Bar.—Having accomplished the backward leg-swing, we will now proceed to something a little more difficult.

You will now get on to the bar as in Fig. 7, with leg over; now try to balance yourself in this position without holding by your hands; having succeeded, take hold of the bar with both hands behind you, and pass the hanging leg over the bar into a sitting position, as in Fig. 11.

Now practice a few different balances while sitting; that is, with the bar under different parts of the thigh.



Fig. 12.



Fig. 13.

Try to sit almost straight, and again with the bar just within the angle of the knee. This must be done without touching the bar with the hands.

We now come to

The Sit-Swing.—This is so called from its being a swing performed while sitting on the bar, and we will commence with the backward swing.

The "sit-swing" is somewhat similar to the leg-swing, but, of course, more difficult, as in the latter the weight of the body is mostly on the leg; but in the present exercise the whole weight is thrown upon the arms, therefore requiring more strength.

While sitting on the bar, as in the last figure, but holding with the hands, straighten the arms, and let them support a great part of the weight of the body; now throw yourself backwards with a good swing, still keeping a firm hold of the bar with both hands.

Now, the object of this movement is to go quite round the bar in the swing, and thus make one complete revolution, which is called the "sit-swing backward;" but of course no one can expect to accomplish this feat at once.

The first few times you attempt it, you will most likely find yourself hanging with the weight of the body beneath the bar, and with the momentum of the swing gone.

In this case, all you can do is to let your legs pass through your arms, and thus drop on to the ground; but you must repeat the movement until you are able to swing quite round.

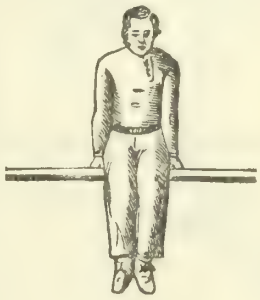


Fig. 14.

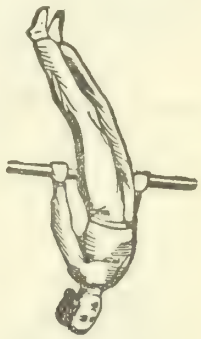


Fig. 15.

The way to practice this is, to swing about three-quarters round, and then to come back into the sitting posture again. This will give you confidence, and after a time you will feel yourself able to go all the way round, and to come up into your original position.

For some time you will find that you will come up in rather an awkward manner, without having swing enough to balance yourself, and therefore you will fall forward again; in which case you must be prepared to let go with the hands, and to throw yourself off the bar on to your feet; or, what is much better, to have some one standing in front, in readiness to catch you as you come off.

But you may take comfort, for when you can get thus far the feat is nearly achieved, and after a few more trials you will be rewarded by feeling yourself able to accomplish the "sit-swing."

In the forward sit-swing, the first start is the principal thing, as the impetus gained will be sufficient to bring you up again. In order to get a good start, you must raise the body as far

away from the bar as possible, supporting the whole weight on the arms, as in Fig. 13; now throw the chest out and the head back, with the legs rather straight, then with a good plunge forward, keeping the arms straight as in Fig. 15, you will go quite round; that is to say, you will in time, for you must not think of succeeding at first in any of these feats, but perseverance will soon enable you to accomplish them.

You will find in practicing this exercise, that some of your strength will be expended in getting on to the bar again after each failure. I will now show you a very good way of getting into the sitting position again, while hanging, as in Fig 9. Straighten the body as in Fig. 15, and draw your center of gravity a little above the bar, then, bending the body again slightly, you will roll quite over so as to come into a sitting position again. This movement is called the "Plymouth."

Hanging by the Legs.—Get on to the bar in a sitting position, and then throw yourself off backward, as for a sit-swing; but, instead of going round, drop the body and bend your knees, and thus let them catch on the bar, getting a firm grip with them, at the same time letting go your hands as in Fig. 17.

A young beginner should practice this on a low bar, so that, when he hangs by the legs, his hands will touch the ground; and thus, when he is getting tired and cannot raise himself, he may let his legs drop, and come on to his hands on the floor



Fig. 17.

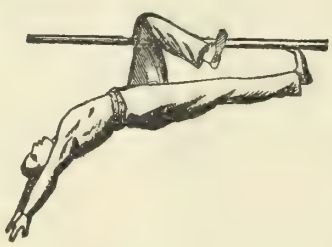


Fig. 18.

safely. He may then get on to the bar again, hanging by the knees as before, and practice swinging backward and forward as high as he can. At first the friction will make the legs a little sore, but the muscles will soon harden with practice.

There are a few other leg exercises which may be practiced with advantage, and which will afford variety, and also help to bring all the muscles into play.

One of these is shown in Fig. 18, where you hang on the bar with one leg, stretching the other straight out with the toe against the under side of the bar, and the exercise is to bend the body up and down. This should be done with right and left legs alternately.

A performance which is also very showy (although we should not advise any one to attempt it without very good nerve and also strength in the legs), is **the standing balance on the bar.**

This may be practiced on a bar as low as you like, so that you can easily jump off; but of course it looks better on a bar of ordinary height.

While sitting on the bar, lift one foot and gradually bring it on to the bar, as in Fig. 19, and then raise yourself up standing, as in Fig. 20, a feat which, of course requires great



Fig. 19.



Fig. 20.

strength in the legs, and a good command of balancing power. Now endeavor to walk forward and backward by shifting the feet; and if you lose your balance, jump off the bar altogether, without trying to recover it, and get up again.

Hanging by the Toes.—This will make a good finish after the standing balance on the bar. To do it artistically, stand first on one foot, then on the other, turn round, let yourself down, and drop quietly and smoothly beneath the bar, hook your toes on to it, and hang down quite straight with your arms folded across your chest. (See Fig. 21.)



Fig. 21.

This, if done without stopping, has a good effect; but of course you must not expect to accomplish anything in this style for some time, and therefore must be content simply to hang by your hands, and then bring your legs up, and hook your toes over the bar, taking care, the moment you let go with your hands, to straighten the body and stretch out your arms, so as to save your head if you should chance to slip.

Vaulting over the Bar is a very useful exercise, and quite as well performed on the horizontal bar as on the vaulting-horse, if your choice of apparatus should be limited.

Try it first on a bar about three feet six inches from the ground, and gradually raise it; but take care not to overtask your powers by having it too high for you, as very often, when young gymnasts find that they are getting on respectably, they are very apt to be too ambitious, and to attempt heights far beyond their powers. About four feet six inches is a fair height for a person about five feet four or five, to begin with. Learn to clear this clean and in correct style, before you attempt anything higher.

As vaulting is by no means a difficult feat, to look well it

should be done in good style. To make a clean vault, the body should be kept as straight and as far away from the bar as possible (see Fig. 22), and should be practiced right and left alike.

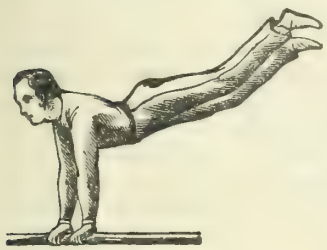


Fig. 22.

No careful gymnast need ever be afraid of injury if he uses his brain as well as his body, and you will find that, if a mishap occurs, it is generally to some one who attempts exercises without taking into consideration in what different positions he may come off the apparatus; but all these exercises may be gone through safely if sufficient precautions are taken at first. Mr. Spencer says on this head:

"I am sure I can speak for myself, having often in former times made myself quite a laughingstock at the gymnasium from the careful way in which I have tried new exercises which had any risk attending them. But 'let those laugh who win.'

"I first put on the 'lungers' (which you will find represented and described on page 251), with a comrade on each side to hold the ropes, and something soft underneath (such as a mattress, tan bark, or any other suitable material), and having some one in front to prevent my pitching forward when I came down.

"This is as you might have seen me when trying my first 'fall-back,' or other difficult exercises; and what was the result? Why, I tried many times, and fell many times, and should have hurt myself many times had I not been caught.

"But I knew I was perfectly safe, from the precautions taken (I did not mind the *look*), and this gave me confidence, and left me at liberty to give my whole attention to the feat I was attempting; and since then I have done that, and many other more difficult feats, numerous times, without the slightest injury."

HANGING BAR.

The exercises on this will be much the same as those on the fixed bar. We shall not, therefore, with the limited space at our disposal, do more than recommend it as an agreeable change from the fixed bar. Its use as a flying trapeze is too dangerous for ordinary boys to attempt, and we shall therefore not introduce it here.

THE PARALLEL BARS.

You may commence with the parallel bars, as in the horizontal bar, with the simple movements which any one would naturally perform upon them; such as standing between them, and with a spring placing a hand upon each, and thus supporting the weight of the body.

When you have become somewhat used to them in this way, commence swinging backwards and forwards, with the legs straight down, trying to go higher each time.

Of course, if you have practiced on the horizontal bar, the preliminary exercises will be mastered at once; but as it is possible that some may commence on the parallels, I give this short description of these simple movements.

The first exercise after you are on the bars should be

The Walk.—This is very simple, being performed by jumping up and placing one hand on each bar, with the body hanging suspended between them as before.

Now walk along the bar by taking steps with the arms, making them as evenly and regularly as you can, keeping the head well up, and the body perfectly straight.

Walk in this way from one end to the other, and when you can do this easily, walk back in the same way, without turning round. Then let the body sink down as in Fig. 23, and hop from one end to the other backward and forward. This you will find capital practice for the muscles of the arms, although rather tiring at first.



Fig. 23.



Fig. 24.

When this hopping movement is done with a good swing so as to go forward or backward some considerable distance, it has a very good effect, and is called "The Grasshopper."

Vaulting Movements are performed by getting up between the bars as for the walk, placing yourself near the centre of the bars.

Now swing backwards and forwards until you are able to throw both legs over one side of the bars in front of you, as in Fig. 24.

Now with another swing bring them back again, and throw them over behind you on the same side as before. (Fig. 25.)

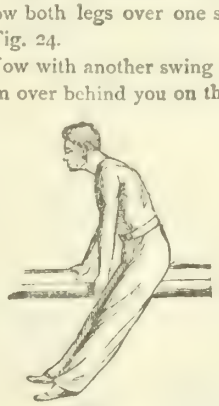


Fig. 25.



Fig. 26.

There are several of these movements which may be practiced with great advantage to the muscles. Another is shown in Fig. 26.

This is one of many which may be gone through while in

this position on the bars, the dotted line showing the serpentine course of the movement.

All these exercises should be performed with the body as straight as possible, and when done neatly, with the legs close together, have a very pretty effect, and are very good practice.

There are several similar movements, such as those represented in Figs. 27 and 28, which are done by first swinging backwards and forwards, and then throwing the legs over the outside of the bars in front, one on each side; then bending back a little, and bringing the legs over back again between the bars, and then, without stopping, throwing them over again behind you, one on each side as before. This you should practice until you can repeat it several times without stopping.

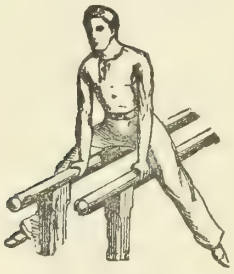


FIG. 27.



FIG. 28.

The next exercises are good practice. Stand between the bars, and place the hands on the under side of them, even with the shoulders, then gradually raise the legs until they turn over and bring the body into an inverted position, as in Fig. 29; then continue the movement right over, until you are hanging as in the position shown in Fig. 30.

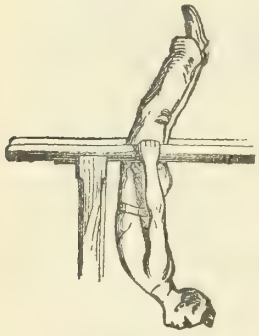


FIG. 29.

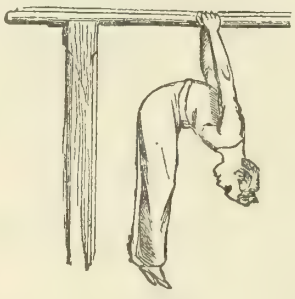


FIG. 30.

You should practice this until you can do it several times without touching the ground with the feet, and you will find it very good practice for the front and back horizontal movements, previously shown on the horizontal bar.

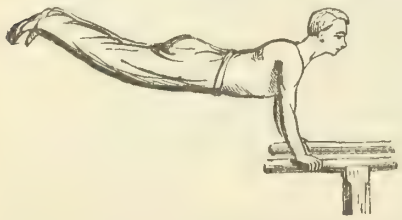


FIG. 31.

The Pumping Movement is one of the finest exercises for developing the muscles of the chest. You must first practice the swing until you can bring yourself up horizontally, as show in Fig. 31; then, by bending the arms, drop the body into Fig. 32, and then swing round, your feet describing a semicircle, and come up again into Fig. 33, finishing the movement by swinging backwards again in the same manner into Fig 31, as on commencing the movement.

The Vaulting Horse.—There are no simple preliminary exercises on the horse but what may be just as well performed on the parallels; and, indeed, such is the similarity in some of them, that we have invariably noticed that any gymnast who is good on the one is not likely to be a novice on the other.

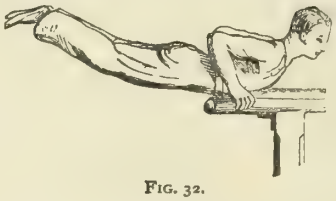


FIG. 32.

For this reason we shall endeavor to make as much variety as possible, and shall therefore not describe exercises which may be as well gone through upon the parallels, but only give those which have a distinctive character.

Commence by jumping on to the horse, with the hands one



FIG. 33.



FIG. 34.

on each of the pommels, and supporting the whole weight of the body; the legs hanging straight down as in Fig. 3.

Now bring one leg over the body of the horse in between the pommels, as in Fig. 34; then bring it back again without



FIG. 35.



FIG. 36.

touching the horse with the foot, and pass the other leg through in the same manner.

Now try and change the legs simultaneously; that is, while

the one is being brought back, pass the other through forward; the body, of course, still supported by the arms.

The Leg-Spring is the next exercise, and is performed in the following manner:

Get on to the horse as in Fig. 3, and then bring both legs up on to the back in a kneeling position, as in Fig. 35; then, while the body is thus gathered, give a good spring up, throwing up the arms as in Fig. 36, and you will come over to the other side on to your feet on the ground.

If you are nervous in attempting this at first, get the assistance of some one to hold your hand, and you will accomplish it without much difficulty.

The next exercise must be practiced at first with the horse as low as possible, and the jumping-board placed about a foot from the horse.

Jumping Through the Hands.—Take a short run, and jump on to the board with both feet down at once, flat-footed. Place your hands one on each pommel, spring up, and pass the legs through the hands, as in Fig. 37, shooting them out in front of you over the horse, so as to come neatly down on the other side. Of course you must measure your distance, so that you may rise high enough while passing over for the back to clear the top of the horse.



Fig. 37.

Another form of this exercise is to jump over the horse with the legs *outside* the hands, and is performed in a similar manner to the last, but is rather more difficult, as you will need a much greater spring to raise yourself sufficiently high to pass clear over; and you must also take care to let go with the hands at the proper moment, when in the position shown in Fig. 38.



Fig. 38.

If you retain your hold of the pommels too long, you will lose command of yourself, and they will have a tendency to pull you back and cause you to pitch head first on to the ground; but when you commence to practice this movement, it is necessary to have some one standing in front, to catch you in case your feet do not quite clear the top of the horse, more especially if it should be at all too high for you.

Saddle Vaulting.—Get on to the horse as in Fig. 39, sitting across as in a saddle, but *behind* the pommels; then, bearing the whole weight upon the arms, throw your legs right up, and giving yourself a kind of twist, describe a semicircle with them, and bring yourself round with the face the other way; your hands being one upon each pommel, your course will naturally be towards the one which holds the aftermost.



Fig. 39.

The Long Fly is a very fine exercise for the whole of the body, and more especially the lower extremities.

You commence practice for this movement by placing the jumping-board about three feet from the largest end of the horse, then with a run, pitch with your hands on to the end, as in Fig. 40.

Now move the board a little farther off, and repeat the movement; and thus continue the exercise, increasing the distance each time, until you can pitch on to the end from about five or six feet.

Now vary this movement by jumping from different distances, and pitching on the hands first, and then bringing up the feet on to the back of the horse, as in Fig. 41.



Fig. 40.



Fig. 41.

And when you are in this position, pitch with the hands on to the extreme end of the horse, and go over as at "leapfrog."

Having now sufficiently practiced these preliminaries, place the board about a foot from the end of the horse (having first had the high pommels taken out, and the flush ones substituted).

Now take a run and jump, pitching with your hands on the first pommel, landing yourself astride, as near the middle of the horse as possible; repeat this exercise, gradually increasing the jump, until at last you clear the whole length, as in Fig. 42, coming down safely on the ground in front of the horse.

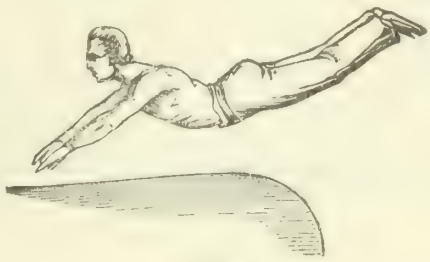


Fig. 42.

When you can get near the neck and are likely to come right over in a few more trials, have some one standing in front to catch you in case you do not quite clear the end, and come instead into a sitting position on the neck of the horse, as in this case the sudden stop is likely to throw you over head forwards in a rather ignominious manner; but if you practice assiduously, when you feel that you can do it, and make up your mind for it, you are almost certain to clear it.

It will, of course, take some time to master this thoroughly; but it is a fine dashing feat, well worth the trouble of acquiring. Only don't think you are doing it if you are satisfied to pitch short and paddle along on your hands for the rest of the distance; you ought to pitch clear over at one movement.

horses of various lengths are available, they will prove of immense service in practicing this exercise.

Hanging Rings.—These are very useful for developing the muscles of the arms and shoulders. We have, therefore, found room for a few exercises upon them as a guide to the young gymnast, who will find little difficulty in supplementing our instructions with exercises of his own.



FIG. 43.



FIG. 44.

Commence by drawing yourself up, as in Fig. 43, holding one ring at arm's length, and the other close to the body.

Draw in the outstretched arm and straighten the other, and repeat this as often as you like, as it is very good preliminary exercise for the trapeze.

Now, from this position gradually spread the arms wide apart, suspending the body between them, as in Fig. 44, and then let the body gradually sink down until you hang straight down by the arms again.

There are many other strength movements on the hand-rings, but you will soon find them out for yourself; we will, therefore, pass on to the swinging exercises.

Commence swinging simply backward and forward, increasing your momentum by drawing yourself up by contracting the arms as you ascend, and when at the highest, lowering your body with a drop, and by this means you will swing higher each time, until you are able to bring your arms and legs straight and nearly into a horizontal position, as in Fig. 45.

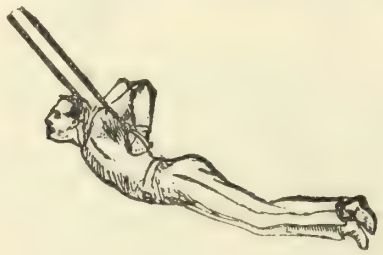


FIG. 45.

Also swing in different positions in order to get command of yourself while swinging.

Practice by drawing the legs over the head when at the end of the swing, as in Fig. 46, passing back in this position to the other end, and then bringing the legs smartly over, and shooting them straight out (in order to preserve the momentum), and coming back all straight again to the starting point.



FIG. 46.

Repeat this several times, and you will find it very good work for the muscles.

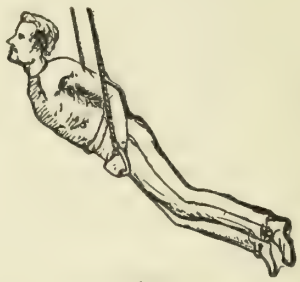


FIG. 47.

Also swing with the hands close to the groin, and the arms nearly straight by the side, and supporting the body, as in Fig. 47; keeping yourself from pitching your head and shoulders too much forward, at the end of the swing, by bending the arms



FIG. 48.

and projecting the legs, as in Fig. 48, which represents the bent position which you assume when beginning to descend.



FIG. 49.

Another variety of this swing is shown in Fig. 49, where the body is kept horizontal throughout.

CLIMBING LADDERS, ROPES, POLES, etc., etc.

Climbing the rope is a very useful exercise, which should be practiced by every one, as it may often be the means of saving life in case of fire or shipwreck, etc.



FIG. 50.



FIG. 51.

We mean climbing by the use of both legs and arms. Fig. 50 shows the way of taking hold of the rope, and Fig. 51 the position when climbing.

At a gymnastic festival lately, some of the competitors ascended on a rope in this way to the height of upwards of one hundred feet.



FIG. 52.



FIG. 53.

Another method is by holding on and raising yourself by using the hands only, but this is more difficult.

Another exercise is by climbing the knotted rope, and also one with short cross-bars fixed at frequent intervals.

Climbing the pole, either fixed or hanging, as in Fig. 52, only varies from the same exercise on the rope by its being rather more difficult to grasp, from being thicker and also rigid.

Climbing ladders, fixed both in vertical and horizontal positions, and at various angles, furnishes a good variety of exercise for the arms, and is very easy to commence with. Fig. 53 shows an exercise on the horizontal ladder, in which you hold by the outside, and progress by moving the hands forward alternately. Fig. 54 represents another movement,



FIG. 54.

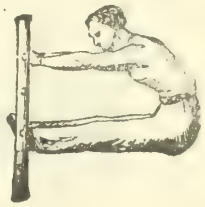


FIG. 55.

in which you walk along under the ladder, increasing the length of the step by holding the rounds at some distance apart, the intervening ones being passed. Fig. 55 shows one of the movements upon the perpendicular ladder, in which the object is to keep the arms and legs as straight as possible while the steps are taken. Fig. 56 is the oblique ladder, which may be practiced by moving both up and down by the hands.

The "giant's stride" is a very good exercise for beginners, and consists of a very strong and firmly fixed upright, about fifteen feet in height, having an iron cap at the top which will revolve easily, and around which ropes are fixed, each having a short cross-bar at the bottom, so that several may exercise at once, each one holding a bar and running round, increasing the speed until the body takes the same angle as the rope. Various evolutions may be gone through in this manner, which will be found very amusing.



FIG. 56.

It is hardly necessary to say that there are some simple rules to be observed in practicing.

One is, never over-tire yourself by practice, as that will do more harm than good. And be careful not to get into a heat without having a wrapper handy to put on when you leave off; and do not practice after a full meal.

Dress must also be suitable, as it is highly important to have all the limbs free and unfettered; and therefore light and loose garments and gymnastic shoes should be worn. A belt may be used by those who require it, but it is not indispensable.

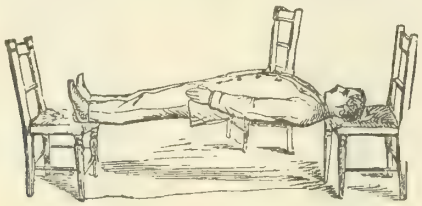
GYMNASTICS WITHOUT SPECIAL APPARATUS.

THE THREE CHAIRS.

Even should the young gymnast be without any apparatus, he can train his body in various ways, so that when he obtains apparatus, its work will be half done.

For example, he may practice the "Three Chairs" exercise, which will strengthen the loins immensely; that being just the portion of the body that is least exercised in the artificial life of the present day.

The young gymnast should take three chairs, and set them



in a row, the two endmost chairs facing each other, and the central one set sideways. They should be just so far apart that the back of the head and the heels rest on the two endmost chairs, and that the central chair supports the middle of the body.

Now curve the body a little upwards, so as to take its weight off the center chair; take the chair with the right hand, draw it from under you, pass it over you to the other side, and with the left hand replace it under your body. This should be done several times, so as to pass the chair from side to side.

The easiest way of learning this really useful exercise is to begin by putting the head and nape of the neck on one chair, and allowing the feet to reach nearly to the middle of the other. This will greatly take off from the difficulty; and as you feel yourself getting stronger, move the chairs gradually apart, so that at last you lie exactly as shown in the illustration.

KICKING THE CORK.

This is a capital exercise, and has the advantage of being exceedingly amusing.



Draw two lines on the ground (like a ⊥ reversed), one at right angles to the other. Place your right foot with the heel just touching the cross-line of the ⊥, and the foot pointing along the upright line. Next, put your left foot in front of the right, with the heel just touching its toe, and then place the right foot in advance of left in a similar manner. You will thus make three short steps, each the exact length of your foot.

Exactly in front of the advanced foot, stand a common wine cork upright.

Now, go back to the cross-line, place your left heel against it as before, and with the right foot try to kick down the cork, as shown in the illustration, without losing the balance of the body or allowing the left foot to touch the ground. At first it will be found utterly impossible to do so, the toe not reaching to within an inch of it; but a little practice wil enable the young gymnast to perform the feat without very much difficulty. The best plan is to reach forward until you judge that your foot is close to the cork, and then, with a slight sideways kick, strike at the cork, and bring yourself again to the upright position.

This exercise is exceedingly valuable for strengthening the legs and giving pliability to the whole body.

THE STOOPING STRETCH.

This exercise does for the arms what the preceding does for the legs.

Take the same lines as before, and stand with both toes on the cross-line. Now throw yourself forward on your hands, and with the right hand make a chalk-mark on the floor as far as you can stretch. Having done this, spring up to the upright position by means of the left arm, taking care not to move the toes from the cross-line. Each competitor at this exercise tries to chalk his mark as far as possible.



When this exercise is first attempted, it seems utterly impossible to reach to any distance, the spring of the left arm being found insufficient to bring the body upright again. After a time, however, when the muscles of the arms become strengthened, the player finds that he can rapidly extend the length of stretch, until at last he can throw himself nearly flat on the ground, and yet spring up again.

In order to strengthen both arms equally, they should be used alternately.

One secret in performing this exercise is to chalk the mark and spring back as quickly as possible, as every second of time takes away the strength of the supporting arm.

STILTS.

There are various forms of stilts and modes of using them. Some, such as those which are employed by professionals, are strapped to the ankles and have no handles. These should not be tried until the young gymnast is skilled with the handle-stilts, as a fall is really dangerous.

Others have long handles, and the feet are received into leathern loops nailed on the stilt; but by far the best are those which, like the stilts represented in the illustration, are furnished merely with two wooden projections on which the feet can rest.

The easiest way of getting on the stilts is to stand with the back against the wall, and take the handles of the stilts under

the arms, as shown in the illustration. Then place the right foot on the step of one stilt, raise yourself, with your back still leaning against the wall, and then place the left foot on the step of the other stilt.



Now try to walk, raising each stilt alternately with the hands, and lifting the foot with it. A very short time will get you into the way of doing this, and in a few days you ought to be able to walk with freedom.

Having obtained some degree of proficiency, you should race with other stilt-walkers, ascend and descend steps, planks, or stairs, pirouette on one stilt, holding the other above your head, and then replace the feet without coming to the ground, and perform similar feats. Accomplished stilt-walkers can even ascend and descend ladders laid at a considerable slope.

The height of the feet from the ground rather diminishes than adds to the difficulty of walking on stilts. If the stilt-walker should feel himself losing his balance, he should at once jump to the ground, and not run the risk of damaging himself by trying to recover his balance. After some little skill has been attained, the young athlete ought to be able to get on his stilts without needing the support of the wall, a short run and a spring being quite enough for the purpose.

THE WALL-SPRING.

A very good preliminary exercise is that which is called the "Wall-spring."

The young gymnast stands at some little distance from a wall, places his right hand behind his back, and throws himself against the wall, supporting himself by the left hand. He then springs back to the upright position without moving his



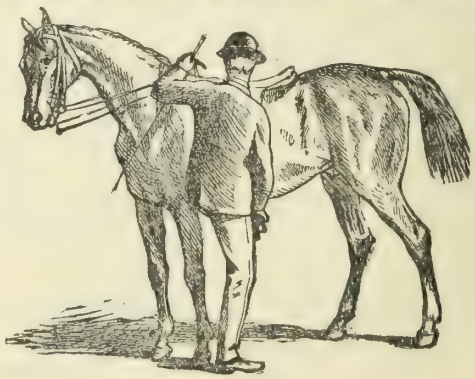
toes from the spot on which they had been placed. This, like all similar exercises, should be done with both arms alternately, and the gymnast should learn to throw the strength of all his body, as well as of the arms, into the spring.

RIDING.

Your head and your heart keep boldly up;
Your hands and your heels keep down;
Your legs keep close to your horse's side;
And your elbows keep close to your own.
CHEFNEY'S SECRET OF RIDING.

ALL boys, and most men, are ambitious of the triumphs of horsemanship; and, with many, a knowledge of horses and dogs stands in the place of a polite education. The child escaped from leading-strings, bestrides his father's walking-stick, and, with a pack-thread rein, toddles over the carpet on his mimic steed, with as much glee as a fox-hunter gallops after the hounds. From riding a cane, the same spirit and feeling makes a gate with string stirrups an acceptable means for a few first lessons in equitation, and renders a rocking-horse a perfect idol. The trim saddle of the painted steed, the *real* reins (made fast by tin tacks), the horse-hair mane and tail supported by a wooden crupper—all these are sources of as great a triumph as Alexander felt when he subdued Bucephalus; a deed that history seems proud to tell of, and which painters love to depict, as our artist has. From the rocking-horse the young rider takes another step upwards in the scale of equitation, by mounting a real live donkey, who kicks and shies, and stands stock-still, and rubs against a post or backs into a pond, and by these various tricks gives another morsel of experience to the youthful horseman. The day of gladness comes to him at last, when the grand creature, which has long been his admiration, stands before him ready to be mounted.

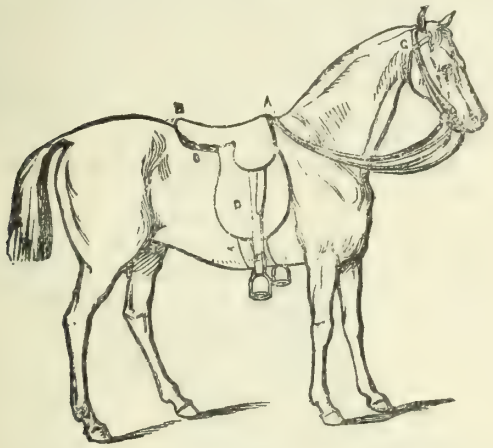
Mounting.—When about to mount, stand before the left shoulder of the horse, hold the whip in the left hand with the lash downwards, leave the curb-rein loose on the neck, and take the snaffle-reins at their center, between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, with which draw them up evenly between the fore and third fingers of the left hand (the middle or longest finger dividing them), until they are sufficiently tightened for you to feel the bearing of the horse's mouth. Throw the loose ends over the middle joint of the forefinger, so as to drop down on the off-side of the horse's neck. Then take the center of the curb-reins between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, as already described, and allowing them to hang more slackened than the snaffle-reins, separate them with the little finger of the left hand, passing the loose ends up the palm, and casting them to the off-side over the ends of the snaffle-reins. Take with the right hand a lock of the mane, and wind it once or twice round the left thumb, closing the hand so as firmly to grasp the reins and mane. The left hand may now be rested on the neck of the horse near to the withers, and within about six or eight inches of the pommel of the saddle. With the right hand, hold the stirrup until the left foot is placed in it; the right hand should



now be put on the cantle, the body raised until the feet are side by side, and both knees press the saddle; move the right hand from the cantle to the pommel, and throw the right leg quickly, but not hastily, or with a jerk, across the horse, and sink easily (no jerking or bumping) into the saddle. By turning the toe of the boot slightly inwards, so as to strike the right stirrup gently, the movement will cause it to swing partly round; by this means the foot obtains possession of it without the aid of the hand, which should never be employed when the stirrups are lost; after a little practice the stirrups may be dropped even when galloping, and quickly regained by striking both toes simultaneously inwards.

Get into the habit of making your horse stand steady during and immediately after mounting. When an animal has been in careless hands, he not unfrequently tries to move off immediately he feels your weight on the stirrup. This is not only an unpleasant but also a dangerous proceeding, especially when a lady is mounting. It may be checked by keeping the

reins tight, and, if necessary, using the curb-rein. The horse is so docile an animal, though a creature of habit, that it can easily be taught what is required, or cured of its defects, provided only that its master is patient and intelligent. Thus,



A. Pommel. C. D's on Saddle. E. Stirrup leathers.
B. Hind Arch. D. Saddle-flaps. F. Girths.

when mounted, instead of immediately starting off at a trot or or walk, wait a few seconds, and thus teach your horse that he is not to rush away immediately he feels your weight in the saddle.

In order to discover the proper length for your stirrups, sit comfortably down on your saddle, keep the body upright, let the legs hang loosely at first, then clasp the horse slightly with them, turn the toe in and rather up; then the stirrup ought just to support the foot. Then stand up in the stirrups with the legs straight, and see whether the fork will clear the pommel of the saddle: it ought just to do so if the stirrups are the correct length. Having once ascertained what is the correct length for the stirrups, you should measure from the finger-tip to armpit the length from the buckle to the end of



the stirrups, and thus you can always on future occasions tell whether any alterations are required before mounting.

Being now seated on the horse, which we will suppose is a quiet, well-trained animal, it would be advisable that a groom or some friend should lead the horse for a time, in order that we may get accustomed to the motion of the horse and to sitting in the saddle.

The seat in the saddle should be obtained by sitting *well down*, leaning rather backwards than forwards, and grasping the horse with a tolerably firm grip of both legs. There are two seats to be avoided, but which nearly all beginners at first practice: one is leaning forward as if in readiness to go over the horse's head; the other is sitting on the saddle as though it were red hot. The very best method of getting "shaken down in the saddle," as the term is, is to quit the stirrups—that is, take the feet out of them—and trot round and round a circle. This can be easily done by having a rope attached to a head-collar on the horse, and getting this rope held by an attendant. After a few days of this kind of bumping, we learn how to grasp with the legs so that we scarcely move from the saddle, and we do not then adopt the dangerous and unsightly practice of depending mainly on the stirrups for our equilibrium.

During the time that we are "jogging" in the trot, the reins should be held one in each hand, and so that we "feel"



gently the horse's mouth: at no time should the reins become slack, but an uniform "feel" should be maintained. A horse soon becomes accustomed to the hand of its rider, and learns to obey the slightest change. Many horses, especially those gifted with tender mouths, will become restive, or will rear, attempt to run away, etc., when their riders either suddenly slacken, then tighten the reins, or in other ways alter their hold upon them.

The Trot.—Having passed through the process of being shaken down in the saddle, we may then take our stirrups and learn how to sit down in the saddle, keep our stirrups, and yet not to rise in them when the horse trots; after which we may practice rising to the trot. There is scarcely a more ridiculous exhibition than that of a rider working laboriously to rise to his horse's trot, using much more exertion than the animal he bestrides, whilst he works his arms and body as though riding were a very painful matter. The very slightest movement of the instep and a spring from the knee is sufficient to prevent the bumping produced by a horse's trot; and the skill or awkwardness of a rider is never more prominent than when his horse is indulged in a long slashing trot.

The Canter.—To "raise a horse into a canter" from a trot, we should slightly pull the left rein, at the same time closing the legs. By a steady hand on the reins we may increase or decrease the speed of the horse, or again reduce his pace to a trot.

Nothing but practice and instruction will ever give a rider a good firm seat on a horse; but at the same time, practice alone may produce a strong seat but a very awkward one, unless the defects of the seat are pointed out early.

Vices and their Treatment.—Having attained a certain amount of skill in sitting on a horse and in handling the reins, the horseman may devote his attention to certain matters which are not unlikely to happen to every equestrian performer. These may be classed under the head of the vices of the horse, and are principally as follows: running away, shying, rearing, bucking, and refusing to move; kicking, biting, and stumbling.

Running Away.—A runaway horse is a most dangerous animal, and for an unskilled rider to keep such a creature is not advisable. Many so-called runaway horses, however, are merely high-spirited animals whose former riders were unable to manage them. As an example: we possessed for three



years a horse which we regularly hunted, and on which we placed a lady, and which had been sold because he was a determined runaway. Only once did this horse run away with us, and that was in consequence of the reins breaking. That horses do run away, however, is a fact; and we will now consider the best means of dealing with this vice.

A runaway horse is usually one with a very hard mouth, which is unaffected by any amount of pulling applied merely as a dead pull. A horse is stronger than a man, and therefore to pull against him is useless.

A particular kind of "bit" is requisite for a runaway horse; the best that we have found being a powerful "Pelham." The reins should be very stout, so as to afford a firm grasp, with no fear of breaking. Stout strong reins also do not slip through the fingers as do those which are thin.

We will now suppose that a rider is seated on a horse, and starts for a canter on a nice bit of turf. His horse, probably fresh, bounds off, and the rider soon finds the animal pays no attention to his "Woa, woa!" or to the pull at the reins. A bad rider has at this point come to the end of his expedients, and usually does nothing more than give a dead pull at the reins until he gets cramp in his arms and fingers, and is unable to use them effectively, when he is at the mercy of his horse. Some riders vary the "dead pull" by sawing their horses' mouths by alternately pulling the right and left rein. This sometimes, but rarely, has the effect of stopping a horse; the common result being that the animal throws up its head, changes its feet in the gallop, but still goes on, probably with a temper not improved by the fact of its mouth bleeding in consequence of this ill treatment.

As an effectual method for pulling up a runaway horse we have never found any equal to the following:

The reins being very strong, and the bit a "Pelham," or one which will not slip through a horse's mouth, we gather the reins short up in the left hand, so short that the hand is pressed against the horse's mane; then pass the right hand down the right rein until it grasps this rein within a few inches of the bit; with a firm hold pull this round towards the right knee, taking care that the horse does not snatch the rein out of your hand, as he will try to do if he be an accomplished runaway. When the horse's head is thus pulled round he cannot gallop, nor can he do more than twist round. We have by this method the advantage of a lever pulling round the horse's head with enormous power.

Against this plan it has been urged that we are very likely to throw a horse down. Grant this; and it is perhaps the less of the two evils that we throw a horse down where we like, selecting a soft piece of turf, than that we get dashed to pieces by coming in collision with a carriage or cart, a lamp-post or railing, or slip up on stone pavement, etc. But in answer to this objection we can say that, on an average, once a week the horse we before mentioned *tried* to run away with us, but we invariably stopped him by this plan, and never, during three years, did we ever throw him down. Two other horses that we rode also on one or two occasions tried to run away, and were instantly stopped by this method; thus we have practical proof of its efficacy, against the theoretical objection urged against it.

To a bad or timid rider, or even to one not capable of dealing with it, a runaway horse is a dangerous possession; unless, therefore, a rider is well skilled, well nerved, and strong armed, our advice is, never mount a known runaway horse.

As, however, every horse may, some time or other, try to run away, the preceding advice should not be neglected, as it may save a fall, a broken arm, leg, or neck.

Shying.—Shying is a very common practice of horses, particularly of young horses. It may arise from defective sight, or from mere frolic. To a good rider it is of no consequence, but to a bad horseman a fall may result. After a brief acquaintance with an animal, we can tolerably well tell at what objects he usually shies. To overcome this practice we should never be off our guard, but should ever keep a watch on our horse's ears. When we notice that he suddenly raises his ears, and looks attentively at any object, it is probable that he may shy. To avoid such a result, we should endeavor to distract the animal's attention by patting his neck and speaking to him, a slight movement of the reins to arouse him, or by letting the whip rest on his neck, his attention may be withdrawn from the object that alarms him. A brutal and igno-

rant horseman usually commences thrashing his horse when it shies, and thus only adds to its fear, and causes it to repeat its vice with double effect.

The late Mr. Rarey used to say that a horse never could surprise him, because its ears always told him what it was thinking of doing. There is much truth in this remark, as every one accustomed to horses must know, and those unaccustomed to them may learn.

Rearing.—Rearing is one of the most dangerous and incur-



able of vices; it may, however, arise from a harsh use of the curb; but a rearing horse may at any time cause his rider's death by falling back on him. When a horse rears we should sit quietly on him, and well forward. A rider without a firm seat may lean back, holding on to the reins, and will thus pull the horse over on him. A sharp pair of spurs may be used with advantage on a rearing horse, but the reins must be very delicately handled—the cause of rearing being in many cases due to that abominable habit of bad riders of continually jerking their horse's mouth, for no other reason, apparently, than that they *are* themselves bad riders.

Buck-jumping.—Bucking is an endeavor to unseat a rider, and consists in a series of bucks in the air, or a sort of rocking motion produced by a succession of jumps. The horse tries to get its head down between its legs, arches its back, and springs several times from the ground. There is no other means left than to sit the horse through its performance, which generally takes place when first mounted, after which it not unusually will travel quietly all day.

Refusing to Move.—This is not a very common vice, except with a horse which has been cruelly ill-used. We once found a horse belonging to a friend which possessed this vice, and we cured it by getting two leather straps, like handcuffs; by these we fastened the horse's fore legs together so that it could not move, and then sat patiently on its back. In about ten minutes the animal got tired of standing still; but we determined on giving it a lesson, so we kept it hobbled for fully an hour, after which it at once moved on. On every occasion afterwards, either the exhibition of these handcuffs or the attempt to put them on, at once was received as a hint, and the horse was ready to start off.

Kicking.—A kicking horse is always dangerous; when, however, we are on his back, it is well to remember that he cannot kick with both hind legs whilst his head is held up. We should, however, be very careful how we allow any one to approach him; also when in the stable great caution is requisite. The same remarks apply to a biting horse; it is better at once to get rid of such a brute, for we are never safe from his vicious habit.

Stumbling.—Stumbling may arise from careless riding or from the imperfect form of a horse. An animal which in its walk or trot does not raise its feet much will usually be a stumbler; and if its fore feet, when they come to the ground, are not placed in advance of the shoulder, the horse is likely to be a dangerous stumbler.

Those who wish to become adepts in regard to horses should, when the opportunity offers, study the form and action of a well-known good horse; the shape of his shoulders, set on of the head, and, in fact, every peculiarity should be noticed.

There is no indicator equal to the eyes and the ears for telling the character of a horse; the eye of a vicious horse never will look good-tempered, nor can he conceal its vicious look. The ears of a playful horse may, to the inexperienced, seem to indicate vice; for a horse that is playful, well bred, and fond of its master or groom, will often put back its ears and bite at its manger when its master approaches it; but this is not vice, and should not be misunderstood for such. Experience in this respect is needed to prevent mistakes.



The bits in most general use are the *Plain Snaffle*, the *Curb*, the *Pelham*, and the *Hanoverian Bit*.

The Snaffle is used for horses with good mouths, and may, in the hands of a skillful rider, be used even for hard-mouthed, pulling animals.



THE SNAFFLE.

The Curb is often used with the snaffle. It is more powerful, and will pull up most horses; it also makes a horse carry his head well, and is a favorite bit with military riders.

The Pelham bit is very powerful, and is that which we recommend for a run-

away horse. It can be used either as a snaffle or curb, and is a very serviceable bit.



THE PELHAM. THE HANOVERIAN.

The Hanoverian bit is more powerful even than the Pelham, but cannot be used as freely or like a snaffle. It is very similar to the curb, the mouth-piece being bigger.



When a rider has become sufficiently skilled to sit a horse well during its trot and canter, it is not improbable that he will wish to try a leap with it, or he may be desirous of hunting. Should this be the case, the first precaution is to find whether your horse *can* leap.

It is not to be expected that a horse is to know how to do anything which he has not been taught any more than that a man should. Some horses may have reached the age of four or five years, and have never taken a leap; they don't know how to do it, and should be taught. If we ride a strange horse at a stile or stout fence, we may very probably find that the animal has been called upon to perform a feat as difficult to him as for a boy to leap with a pole, when he has never before attempted to do so.

Remarking upon the number of accidents that annually occur in consequence of foolhardy conduct with firearms, when some boy points a gun at his friend, and says, "I'll shoot you!" and straightway does so, whilst the boy shrieks, "Oh dear! I didn't know it was loaded!" a veteran sportsman once recommended us "*always to treat a gun as if it were loaded and on full cock*, then we shall never have an accident;" so we would recommend a young horseman always to treat a horse as though he were likely to run away, likely to shy, and were unable to leap a stile safely, until we *have personally proved the contrary*. We can easily test our horse's leaping power by trying him at small safe fences; but we must bear in mind that many good horses will often refuse a leap at which they are not ridden in a determined manner. A horse is very quick at finding out whether his rider really means to ride at a leap, or is "just a little nervous" about it; and as few animals care to exert themselves unnecessarily, the horse is not likely to take a leap unless he believes his rider means it.

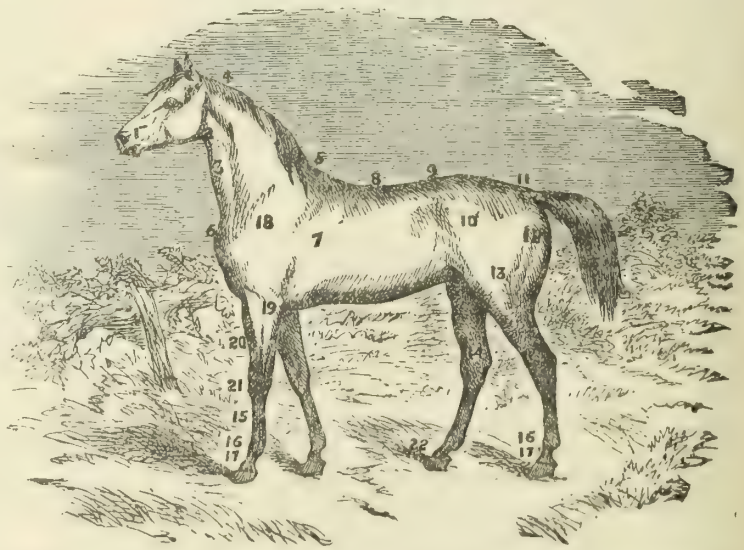
Many horses which have been badly ridden, or bullied by bad riders, have bad tempers, which show themselves by refusing leaps, or refusing other things. A good rider, or even an observant person, will soon discover what irritates his horse, and will avoid any acts which produce this effect.

Horses that are usually ridden, vary in age from about four years to seven or eight. Whenever your horse commits any fault, bear in mind that he is not so old as you are, and, in fact, is a mere child in years; treat him accordingly, try to assist his weaker mental powers by your skill, and you will always find him a good and faithful servant; bully and ill treat him, and he is partially your enemy. When once, by ill treatment, you have produced any particular vice in a horse, it is almost impossible to eradicate it.

The age of a horse may be known by his teeth, and the following will aid the tyro in learning how to discover a horse's age.

When a colt is two years old, its teeth are called "milch teeth," the center of which is whitish.

At three years old the two center milch teeth are displaced



1. Muzzle and parts about the muzzle.
2. Gullet.
3. Windpipe
4. Crest.
5. Withers.
6. Chest.
7. Girth.
8. Back.
9. Loins.
10. Ilium or Hip.
11. Croup.
12. Haunch or Quarters.
13. Thigh.
14. Hock.
15. Shank or Cannon.
16. Fetlock.
17. Pastern.
18. Shoulder-bone of Scapula.
19. Elbow.
20. Fore-arm.
21. Knee.
22. Coronet.

by two which are called "permanent teeth," and are distinguished by being broader, larger, and in the center upper surface having dark cavities.

When a horse is four years old there will be four instead of two permanent teeth in the lower jaw, and between four and five years old the tusks begin to appear in males. Up to four years old a male is called "a colt," after this age "a horse."

At five years of age the horse's permanent teeth are complete, and the age after this is known by the wearing down of the cavities of the permanent teeth.

At six years old the dark oval mark on the center teeth is worn down, whilst the cavities in the other teeth are more filled up. The tusks of the horse are longer than when five years old, but are still sharp, and not much worn.

At seven years old the cavities of the second pair of nippers are filled up; the tusks are blunted by wear, and are longer than formerly.

At eight years the horse is sometimes said "not to have a good tooth in its head," that is, the corner nippers are filled up, and the age teeth are nearly all alike, the tusks exhibit greater signs of wear and tear, and are very blunt.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

Be kind and conciliatory to the noble beast that bears you, and never show the spirit of the coward by acting cruelly or with unnecessary severity, towards a creature so docile, so intelligent, and so useful as the horse. Let the young horseman remember that this creature is endowed not only with strength for our service, and beauty for our admiration, but with nerves sensitive to pain, and a nature keenly alive to ill-usage. To a kind master, a good-tempered horse will by many signs show his attachment, which will increase as he becomes better acquainted with him.

INDOOR GARDENING



O articles of home decoration are cheaper or more effective than living plants, nor is there any means of diversion more within the capacity of all classes of people. It must be admitted, also, that nothing is quicker than an indoor plant to resent neglect or other bad treatment.

In the warmer months of the year almost all kinds of plants that can be cultivated in pots may be successfully grown on window ledges; to give sufficient water and to avoid the baking of the soil by the fierce rays of the sun is almost the only necessary attention. It is in winter, however, when flowers cannot be grown out-of-doors, and when the cheapest at the florist's seem costly, that plants are most desirable for the house and require most care.

All varieties of plants that flourish in greenhouses have also been grown successfully in residences, but the amateur with little or no experience would do well to begin with varieties that require least care and that are least susceptible to the house-enemies of all life, human as well as vegetable. These enemies are foul air, overdried and overheated air, and darkness. Precautions against these, for the sake of plants, will be of great benefit to the inmates of the house; large house-gardens have often saved more than their cost in reducing the home demand for physicians and medicines.

Beginners at indoor culture of plants should start by buying potted stock from florists. The cheapest, most enduring and most floriferous plant is the flowering geranium, which may be obtained in many varieties of color; some kinds are beautiful merely through the variegations of their leaves. For indoor decoration, through foliage alone, the plant that best endures house air is the palm; this is now to be had in great variety; small specimens are cheap and may be obtained, even by mail, from any prominent florist. They grow rapidly and confer an air of distinction on their surroundings. The india-rubber plant, naturally a vine but trained for indoor use as a bush or single stem, never fails to please; its leaves are very large, thick and glossy, and they endure dry, hot air well. For a mass of foliage, however, nothing is cheaper or of more rapid growth than the vine best known as the German ivy; so long as the earth about the roots is not allowed to become dry the shoots will grow several inches a week, and in sunny windows the plant will often bloom, the blossoms being in small yellowish-white clusters. The shoots of this ivy may be trained about picture-frames and over windows and cornices, but they are so brittle that great care must be observed when the plant is taken down to be washed, as will be described hereafter. A stronger and more rapidly growing vine is that of the passion-flower; it will not bloom in the house except in highly favoring circumstances, but it is a rampant grower. The variety known as Pfordii has a large, light-green leaf; Constance Elliott, with a smaller and very dark leaf, is a stronger variety.

The flowering plants most desired indoors are roses, violets and carnations; they are also the most difficult to rear. They require more light and fresher air than can be found in residences in general; they manifest discontent with their surroundings by becoming covered with insects that are not easily disposed of; nevertheless roses, violets and carnations have been successfully raised in houses that have open fires, loose-jointed windows and sunny exposure. A free-blooming plant that does not demand strong light is the fuchsia, of which there are many beautiful varieties, and all are cheap. Begonias, too, deserve the attention of any amateur; they are quick-growing and of abundant bloom; even while "resting" they are interesting through their foliage, every leaf of which looks as if newly varnished. The bloom is in panicles, or clusters,

and the plant roots so readily from cuttings that the stock may be readily increased without cost. The period of bloom of new plants of the begonia or fuchsia is quite long. In a sunny window of any room that is not heated above seventy degrees, that is properly aired several times a day, the Chinese primrose and the Cyclamen will bloom for several successive weeks. The leaves of the primrose seem to resent wetting when the plant is grown indoors.

If in the house there is a window that need not be disturbed it can be made a thing of beauty by growing two or three plants of climbing asparagus in it and training them on strings; the foliage is extremely delicate, and well-grown plants can often spare some sprays for table decoration. For this same purpose nothing is more useful than ferns, and these grow best in the coolest, least-lighted rooms, from which they can be brought for special decoration when required. The finer varieties will not endure heat, but any one can transplant and grow the "shield" fern, native and wild in almost all the States, and the leaf, when mature, contains so much silex that it will endure the air of almost any living-room.

For many reasons the plants commercially known as "Holland bulbs" are most desirable for indoor culture by amateurs. They are cheaper than any other plants, many of them are extremely fragrant, some are entirely free of the insect enemies, and most of them are so easy of culture that only lack of water can bring failure Their botanical structure is so simple and at the same time so advanced that while the bulb is still dry it contains the flower-bud, and so susceptible is this to moisture and warmth that many hastily packed bulbs have bloomed in their cases in the depths of a steamship's hull while en route from Holland to this country. Like most other plants, they detest the hot, dry rooms and stale air in which some human beings exist, but unless killed by thirst they will in their proper time bloom anywhere, whether in darkness or daylight, in heat or in any cold that is not below freezing. Extreme heat will cause their stems to droop, their flowers to fade rapidly and their leaves to elongate and bend, but there will be no diminution in the number of flowers nor in the volume of perfume.

Holland bulbs, which are imported in early autumn and remain fit for use until New Year's Day—perhaps longer, may be purchased and planted by any amateur, and cared for with little or no trouble until they are ready to bloom. In appearance they greatly resemble onions of different sizes. They will grow in any soil, or even in water, yet will repay special treatment according to suggestions given on following pages.

The leader of this class of bulbous plants is the hyacinth, the florets of which may be had in many shades of any color but green. In most varieties the bulb sends up a single stem which has from twenty-five to fifty florets. In some varieties, and especially the Roman, the bulb sends up several stalks, each displaying a few small florets, of high perfume. The single varieties are preferable for house culture; double florets seem to require cooler, moister air. Prices of hyacinths vary according to size of the bulbs and comparative rarity of varieties, but good standard kinds and of average size may be had at ten cents each or a dollar per dozen; unnamed bulbs sell by the dozen at five cents each, and professional florists usually content themselves with hyacinth bulbs costing not more than two cents each by the hundred.

Next in value to the hyacinth, for home culture, comes the narcissus family. Here the colors are restricted to yellow and white, except that one variety has a tiny circlet of red on the edge of its cup. The narcissi are divided into classes according to shapes of flower and other peculiarities of bloom; any prominent florist's autumn catalogue will contain illustrations showing differences of size and form. The flowers differ, also, in quantity and quality of perfume; some are highly scented, while others are entirely devoid of odor.

After hyacinths and narcissi the amateur should pay some attention to the tulip, selecting double varieties, unless he has a cool room in which to forward his plants. Tulips are unequaled for brilliancy of color and perfection of form, but the latter, in the single varieties, is quickly marred by heat and by dry air. Insect pests seldom or never appear on the hyacinth and narcissus, but they delight in the tulip, although very rich soil usually prevents their appearance. Were it not for its attractiveness to insects, the crocus would also be a valuable bulb for indoor use. Freesias, scillas and snowdrops are also likely to become covered with insects when grown indoors. All bulb dealers advertise the ranunculus and anemone, but not one amateur in a hundred ever succeeded in coaxing flowers from these roots indoors. Aside from Holland bulbs there are two bulbous plants—the "Bermuda" lily and the Lilium longiflorum—that should be planted in autumn and that usually do well indoors.

Bulbous plants will root and bloom in any kind of soil except stiff clay; most of them will do fairly well even in water, but to get the best results the soil should be both light and rich without rankness. If potting soil can be purchased from a florist it will answer the purpose, particularly if the florist pays special attention to bulbs. Amateurs who must prepare soil for themselves may try any of several ways, according to the materials available; the best plan is to mix equal parts, by weight, of leaf-mould or genuine muck, sand and thoroughly rotted manure; if the latter is at all "fresh" it should not be used at all, for bulbs are ruined by any stimulation that is not gentle. If leaf-mould or muck cannot be had, use the best garden soil obtainable; well-rotted turf is so desirable, instead, that many amateurs begin a year in advance to prepare it, but it can seldom be had to order. If sand cannot be got use sifted coal ashes to lighten the soil. The soil should be sifted or otherwise handled so as make sure that all worms are excluded.

Bulbs will do fairly well in boxes, tin cans or any kind of crockery, but they flourish best when planted in ordinary flower-pots. These should be soaked before they are used; if they are old, they should be scrubbed, inside and outside, to clear the pores, for no plant does well in a dirty pot. For one ordinary hyacinth or large narcissus bulb the pot should be not less than four

inches in diameter at the top; five inches is a better size. In potting a hyacinth fill the pot with earth, scoop a hole in the center and bury only the bottom half of the bulb; this is to prevent the bulb opening and sending up several small flower stalks instead of one large one. A narcissus bulb may be entirely covered, or a portion of the blossom-end may remain exposed if the pot is small. In a five-inch pot three or four tulips may be planted, close to the side of the pot, with their tops entirely covered. Any lily bulb larger than a hyacinth should have a six-inch pot and be covered to the depth of an inch.

After planting, water thoroughly and set the pots in a dark corner of a cellar, or in a dark room or closet, otherwise the tops will start before the roots and the bloom will be small. For more than a month they will require no attention but a thorough watering about once a week.

More satisfactory than potting, to persons who can buy bulbs freely, is to use seed-pans. One of these, made of ordinary pot-clay, but far wider in proportion to depth, and ten inches in diameter, will accommodate half a dozen hyacinths or large narcissi, or a dozen tulips; the cost will be less than that of six pots and the effect much finer. All bulbs planted in a seed-pan should be of the same variety, so that all may be of equal height as well as of the same period of blooming.

In ordering hyacinths the novice will do well to leave the selection of varieties to the dealers, specifying that they are for indoor planting. Roman hyacinths should be named if wanted, for they are a class by themselves; they are cheaper as well as smaller than the Dutch hyacinths proper; they have the special merit of blooming several weeks earlier than other varieties, and of producing flower-clusters small enough to wear. Three of them may be planted in a five-inch pot. They are sold by color, not by special name; they may be had in yellow, pink, rose, light-blue, and white, the latter being the earliest.

Hyacinths grow freely and bloom well in water alone. Glasses made for the purpose should be used; they are in several shapes, the best and most effective in appearance being of what is known in the trade as "Tye's shape"—a low vase with a broad bottom. The glass should be so nearly filled with clear water that the bottom of the bulb nearly touches the surface. The glass should be set in a dark, cool place until the roots reach the bottom; then it may be brought to the light. A hyacinth grown in water will be useless for subsequent planting; potted hyacinths may be used a second year, but their bloom will be smaller.

Hyacinths in pots should remain in a dark, cool place until the leaves are well started and the flower-head has been forced so high that the stem may be seen. When brought into rooms they should be kept from the sun and strong light for several days. At first their leaves and buds will appear pallid—almost white—but they rapidly regain their proper color. They should also be placed in saucers or trays, which should never be without water while the plants are in bloom. They do not require sunshine.

The narcissi should receive the same general treatment as hyacinths, except that they may be brought to the light earlier, for as their flowers appear at tips of long stalks they cannot easily bloom before getting above their sheathing of leaves, as hyacinths will do if too soon exposed.

Not all the narcissi do well indoors. One of the best varieties for beginners is also one of the cheapest and is of rich fragrance; it is called the campernel, and bears two or more large single yellow flowers on each stalk. By the dozen it costs about two cents per bulb, or one cent by the hundred. Three may be planted in a five-inch pot or a dozen in a ten-inch pan, and each will send up several flower-stalks in succession. The campernel is of the jonquil class, which contains also the single and double jonquil, both yielding small flowers of exquisite perfume; half a dozen of these may be planted in a single pot. Of "show" varieties, more remarkable for beauty and size than for fragrance, the finest are Emperor, Empress, Golden Spur, Horsfieldii, and Sir Watkin; they cost from ten to twenty cents each, and will delight any one who plants them. They should have about as much space as hyacinths. Cheap and satisfactory double varieties are Orange Phœnix (white), and Von Sion (yellow); either costs about five cents per bulb.

All amateurs should try the water narcissus commonly called the "Chinese Lily"; the bulbs, which are very large and cost about ten cents each, should be set on stones in a pan or dish of water, singly or several together, with bits of stone about them to keep them from moving. Each bulb throws up several stalks of fragrant flowers, and the foliage remains luxuriant and ornamental long after the flowers have faded.

Still another section of narcissi—the polyanthus, or many-flowered—is cheap and interesting. All the narcissi—except the so-called Chinese Lily, which does not bloom a second time—improve with age, the bulbs slowly increasing by division.

The flower-stalks of bulbs should be cut away as soon as the bloom fades and water should be given more sparingly; the plants will be ornamental, through their foliage alone, for several weeks, but they can at once be removed to cellar or elsewhere if their places are needed for blooming plants. When the leaves begin to turn yellow water should be almost entirely withheld. In the late spring the leaves and roots will have died; the bulbs should then be taken from the earth and kept in as dry and cool a place as possible until the following autumn.

The blooming season of even a small collection of bulbs may be made to extend over almost half a year by successive plantings. If some bulbs are purchased and planted as soon as they reach the market (in late August or early September) some of the white Roman hyacinths may be hurried into bloom at Thanksgiving by bringing them to the light three weeks after planting. Others will rapidly succeed these, after which will bloom the Chinese lilies, followed by other narcissi, which will be succeeded by early varieties of the Dutch hyacinths. Successive plantings in mid-October, at Thanksgiving and at Christmas will provide for succession. From a dozen hyacinths or narcissi of various

kinds, planted at one time, not more than three plants are likely to endeavor to bloom in a single week. Of all the bulbous plants named, tulips are of slowest growth.

All house-plants mentioned above, whether bulbous or otherwise (except the primrose), need and deserve an occasional washing to remove dust from their leaves and stems. The best method is to place pot and plant in a bathtub or washtub and sprinkle thoroughly: any method of sprinkling will answer, although the work can be done easiest and best with the rubber bulb sprinkler that is made for the purpose.

A sharp watch should be kept for insects, although not many of the plants above-named are subject to them. The most common one is the plant-louse, a light-green bug a little larger than the head of a pin; it appears first on the youngest, tenderest shoots of soft-wooded plants and vines and multiplies with great rapidity. It may be banished by frequent use of a strong decoction of tobacco—say an ounce to a quart of hot water; this water, when cold, can be applied to the affected parts of small plants with a camel's-hair brush. Should the plant be large and badly affected, it should be sprinkled with tobacco solution or dipped in it.

THE SEVEN WONDERS OF THE WORLD.

(According to the Ancients.)

The Pyramids of Egypt.
The Hanging Gardens of Babylon.
The Temple of Diana (at Ephesus).
The Statue of Jupiter (at Olympia).
The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus.
The Colossus at Rhodes.
The Pharos (lighthouse) at Alexandria.

LESSONS IN BICYCLE RIDING.

BUY one of the old-fashioned to begin upon; these may be got at a reasonable price, as many have been discarded for the modern ones. They are called "practicers," or, more familiarly, "bone-shakers." In learning to ride, it is advisable to have a competent teacher, who cannot only show what is wanted, but can also put the beginner in the way of doing it himself; but as many may be unable, from distance or other causes, to avail themselves of this kind of assistance, the following instructions are intended for those who are thus thrown upon their own resources. Of course it is necessary to have recourse to a friendly arm, and there may be many cases in which *two* friends are desirous to learn the bicycle, and can give mutual help.

The old-fashioned bicycle is of this construction, that is, of moderate height and the most solid build, and altogether very different from its latest development, with its enormous driving-wheel and general lightness of make. These machines, with comparatively little difference in the height of the wheel, are best for beginners, as, being *low*, the getting on and off is easier and safer, and they are in every way adapted for the purpose; and it is only when tolerable command of this kind is acquired, that the modern large-wheeled bicycle may be adventured with fair prospect of success.

But even with these some discrimination is necessary. In choosing a machine on which to begin practicing, we strongly advise the learner to select one of the size suitable to his height, as, if it is too small, his knees will knock against the handles, and if too large, his legs will not be long enough fairly to reach the throw of the crank. We know it is not uncommon to begin with a boy's machine, and on an inclined plan; but the benefit of these is very doubtful, unless you are totally without help, and have no one to lend you a helping hand.

The best guide in measuring oneself for a bicycle to learn on is, we consider, to stand by its side and see that the saddle is in a line with the hips. The point of the saddle should be about six inches from the upright which supports the handles; for if the saddle is placed too far back, you decrease your power over the driving-wheel, especially in ascending a hill.

When you have secured a good velocipede, well suited to your size, you will find it useful to practice wheeling it slowly along while holding the handles. While thus leading it about, of course you will soon perceive the fact that the first desideratum is to keep the machine perfectly upright, which is done by turning the handles to the right or left when there is any inclination to deviate from the perpendicular. If inclining to the right, turn the wheel *in the same direction*, and *vice versa*, as it is only the rapidly advancing motion that keeps it upright, on the principle of the boy's hoop, which, the faster it rolls, the better it keeps its perpendicular, and which, when losing its momentum, begins to oscillate, and finally must fall on one side or the other.

Now for the—

FIRST LESSON.

Having become accustomed to the motion of the machine, and well studied its mode of traveling, the next thing is to get

the assistant to hold it steady while you get astride, and then let him slowly wheel it along.

Do not attempt at first to put your feet on the treadles, but let them hang down, and simply sit quiet on the saddle, and take hold of the handles, while the assistant moves you slowly along, with one hand on your arm and the other on the end of the spring.

It is hardly necessary to say that the best place to learn is a large room or gallery, with smooth-boarded floor or flagstone pavement.

Now, directly you are in motion you will feel quite helpless, and experience a sensation of being run away with, and it will seem as if the machine were trying to throw you off; but all you have to do is to keep the front wheel straight with the back wheel by means of the handles, and the assistant will keep you up and wheel you about for a quarter of an hour or so, taking rest at intervals. When you want to turn, move the handle so as to turn the front wheel in the direction required, but avoid turning too quickly, or you will fall off the reverse way.

Observe that in keeping your balance, all is done by the hands guiding the front wheel Do not attempt to sway your body, and so preserve your balance, but sit upright, and if you feel yourself falling to the left, turn the wheel to the *left*; that is to say, guide the machine in the direction in which you are falling, and it will bring you up again; but this must be done the *same moment* you feel any inclination from the perpendicular. Do not be violent and turn the wheel too much, or you will overdo it, and cause it to fall the other way.

Practice guiding the machine in this way until you feel yourself able to be left to yourself for a short distance, and then let the assistant give you a push, and leaving his hold, let you run by yourself for a few yards before you incline to fall. Should you feel that you are losing your balance, stretch out the foot on the side on which you incline, so that you may pitch upon it, and thus arrest your fall.

SECOND LESSON.

Having pretty well mastered the balancing and keeping the machine straight, you may now take a further step, and venture to place your feet on the treadles, and you will now find the novel movement of the legs up and down liable to distract your attention from the steering or balancing; but after a few turns you will get familiarized with the motion, and find this difficulty disappear; and it will seem within the bounds of possibility that you may some time or other begin to travel without assistance.

Of course, in this and the former lesson, some will take to it more quickly than others, and the duration of the lessons must depend on the learner himself, and the amount of mechanical aptitude which he may be gifted with. Some we have known to take six times as much teaching as others.

THIRD LESSON.

Now, having in the first lesson ridden with the feet hanging down, and in the second with them on the treadles, in the third lesson you should be able to go along for a short distance, working the treadles in the usual way.

Of course, when we speak of the *first* and *second* lessons, we do not mean that after practicing each of them *once* you will be able, of necessity, to ride at the *third* attempt; although we have taught some who seemed to take to it all at once; but that these are the progressive steps in learning to ride, and you must practice each of them until tolerably proficient.

When you are sufficiently familiar with the working of the treadles while held by the assistant, it depends entirely on yourself, and the amount of confidence you may possess, to determine the time at which he may let go his hold of you, and you may begin to go alone; but of course for some time it will be advisable for him to walk by your side, to catch you in case of falling. When you have arrived at this stage, you only require practice to make a good rider, and the amount of practice taken is generally a guide to the amount of skill gained.

To Get On and Off.—Having now learnt to ride the velocipede without assistance, we will now proceed to getting on and off in a respectable manner, in case you have not a step, which all modern machines are now provided with. The proper way is to vault on and off, which is the easiest way of all, *when you can do it*, but it certainly requires a little courage and skill.

At first, it may be, from want of confidence in yourself, you will jump *at* the machine and knock it over, both you and it coming down. But what is required to be done is, to stand on the *left*-hand side of the bicycle, and throw your *right* leg over the saddle. Stand close to the machine, holding the handles firmly; then run a few steps with it to get a sufficient momentum, and then, leaning your body well over the handles, and throwing as much of your weight as you can upon them, with a slight jump throw your right leg over the saddle.

This may sound formidable, but it is in reality no more than most equestrians do every time they mount, as the height of the bicycle to be cleared is little more than that of the horse's back when the foot is in the stirrup, only the horse is supposed to stand quiet, and therefore you can jump with a kind of swing.

You must be very careful that while running by the side you keep the machine perfectly upright, particularly at the moment of jumping. Perhaps at first you will vault on, forgetting to keep the machine quite perpendicular, and as an inevitable consequence you will come to the ground again, either on your own side, or, what is worse, you may go right over it, and fall with it on the top of you on the *other* side.

Of course it is much better to have an assistant with you at your first attempts at vaulting, and it is good practice to let him hold the machine steady while you vault on and off as many times as you can manage. You must not forget to put all the weight you can on the handles, and although at first this seems difficult, it is comparatively easy when the knack is acquired.

You will not attempt any vaulting until you can manage the machine pretty well when you are on, up to which time the assistant should help you on and set you straight.

To get on with the help of the *treadle* is a very neat and useful method, but requires considerably more practice than vaulting.

Stand with the left foot on the treadle, and taking a slight spring or "beat" from the ground with the right foot, give the machine a good send forward, of course following it yourself, and with a rise bring the right foot over to the saddle. The secret of this movement is that you put as little weight as you can on the treadle, merely following the movement, which has a tendency to lift you, and keep the greater part of your weight on the *handles*.

You may mount the bicycle in another way, and that is by running by its side, and watching the time when one of the treadles is at its lowest, then place your foot upon it, and as it comes up, the momentum thus gained will be sufficient to lift you quite over on to the saddle. In this movement also, as in most others, it is much better to have assistance at first.

To vault off, you have merely to reverse all the movements just described.

Another capital way of alighting from the machine while in motion is to throw the right leg over the handles. You hold the left handle firmly, and raise your right leg over and into the center of the handles, previously raising your right hand to allow the leg to pass under. Then lifting your *left* hand for the same purpose, you will be able to bring your leg over into a side-sitting posture, and drop on to the ground with the same movement.

But at this time pay strict attention to the *steering*, and take care never to let go one hand until you have a firm hold with the other, or you and the whole affair may come to extreme grief.

This we consider one of the easiest methods of getting off, although it looks so difficult.

To Ride Side-saddle.—Riding in a side-sitting position is very simple, but you must first learn the foregoing exercises. First vault on the usual way, and work up to a moderate speed, then throw the right leg over the handles as in the act of getting off, but still retain your seat, and continue working with the left leg only. Now from this position you may practice passing the right leg back again into its original position when sitting across the saddle in the usual way.

To Rest the Legs.—A very useful position is that of stretching out the legs in front when taking long journeys, as it rests the legs, and also, as sometimes you do not require to work the treadle descending an incline, the weight of the machine and yourself being sufficient to continue the desired momentum.

In this position the *break* is generally used; but when putting it on, mind you do not turn the handles with *both* hands at once, but turn with one first and then with the other; as, if the spring should be strong, and you attempt to use both hands in turning it, as a matter of course when you let go to take fresh hold the handles will fly *back*, to your great annoyance.

To Ride without using the Hands.—This is a very pretty and effective performance, but of course it is rather difficult, and requires much practice before attempting it, as the *steering* must be done with the feet alone, the arms being generally folded.

To accomplish this feat, you must keep your feet firmly *on* the treadles in the upward as well as the downward movement, taking care not to take them off at all, as you will thereby keep entire command of them, which is absolutely necessary, as in fact they are doing *double* work, both propelling and also steering the machine. You will, as you become expert in this feat, acquire a kind of *clinging* hold of the treadles, which you will find very useful, indeed, in ascending a hill when you take to outdoor traveling. Fancy riding of this kind must only be attempted on good surfaces.

Description will not assist you much here, but when you attempt it you will soon find out that when riding without using the hands, every stroke of the foot, either right or left, must be of the same force, as, if you press heavier on one treadle than on the other, the machine will have a tendency to go in that direction; and thus you must be on the watch to counteract it by a little extra pressure on the other treadle, without giving enough to turn the machine in the reverse direction.

This is all a matter of nice judgment, but when you can do it a very good effect is produced, giving spectators the idea of your complete mastery of the bicycle.

But remember that you must be always ready to seize the handles, and resume command if any interruption to your progress presents itself.

To Ride without using Legs or Hands.—As you can now ride without using the hands, let us now proceed to try a performance which, at first sight, will perhaps seem almost impossible, but which is really not much more difficult than going without hands. This is to get the velocipede up to *full* speed, and then lift your feet off the treadles and place them on each side of the rest, and when your legs are up in this way, you will find that you can let go the handles and fold your arms, and thus actually ride without using either *legs* or *hands*.

In progressing thus, the simple fact is that you overcome gravity by motion, and the machine cannot fall until the momentum is lost.

This should only be attempted by an expert rider, who can get up a speed of twelve to fourteen miles per hour, and on a very good surface and with a good run; and, in fact, from this position you may lean back, and lie flat down, your body resting on and along the spring.

At Rest.—We are now come to the last and best, or, we may say, the most useful feat of all, and this is to stop the bicycle and sit quite still upon it.

The best way to commence practicing this is to run into a position where you can hold by a railing or a wall, or perhaps the assistant will stand with his shoulder ready for you to take hold of.

Now gradually slacken speed, and when coming nearly to a standstill, turn the front wheel until it makes an angle of 45 deg. with the back wheel, and try all you know to sit perfectly still and upright.

Of course this is a question of balancing, and you will soon find the knack of it. When the machine inclines to the left

slightly press the left treadle, and if it evinces a tendency to lean to the right, press the right treadle; and so on, until, sooner or later, you achieve a correct equilibrium, when you may take out your pocket-book and read or even write letters, &c., without difficulty.

Now, we do not think that there is anything further to be said as to learning to ride the bicycle, and we can only express a hope that if you follow the advice and instruction we have been able to give, you will become an expert rider and be able to begin practicing on the "Modern Bicycle."

Choice of a Machine.—And first, as to the choice of a machine. In this case it is imperative to have the very best you can get, as it is utter folly to risk life and limb by using one of inferior make.

In choosing a bicycle, of course the first thing to be considered is the height of wheel, which greatly depends on the length of limb of the rider; as, of course, although two men may be of equal height, one may have a longer leg than the other. A good guide is to sit on the machine and let the toe touch the lower treadle without quite straightening the leg, as of course command must never be lost. For a rider of average height, say 5 feet 8 inches, a machine of 52 to 54 inches we should consider suitable. But of course any well-known and reliable maker will furnish you with a machine to suit you.

Having selected your "Modern Bicycle," the first thing you want to accomplish is to be able to mount and dismount. Of course, the saddle being nearly as high as your shoulder, it is impossible to vault on, as with the old "practicer." It is therefore necessary to provide a "step," which, in all the modern machines, is fitted on the backbone, or connecting-iron, just above the hinder fork on the left side, at a convenient height. It consists of a small round plate, jagged, to afford a firm grip for the toe when placed upon it.

There are two ways of mounting. One is to start the machine and to run by the left side, and put the left toe upon the step while in motion, throwing the right leg over on to the seat; the other is to stand at the back of the machine, standing on the right leg, with the left toe on the step, and, gently starting, hop with the right leg until you have gained a sufficient impetus to raise yourself on the step, and throw your right leg across the seat.

The first is the best plan, as you can run with greater speed, and mount; in fact, the quicker you go, the easier to get on. In many cases it is the only practicable plan, as, for instance, on remounting on a slight ascent, where it would be most difficult to get up sufficient speed by the hopping plan, which, moreover, does not present a very graceful appearance.

Now, in the second way of getting on by the step, you hold the handle with the left hand to guide the machine, placing the other on the seat. You can now run it along easily. Your object in having one hand on the seat is, that if both hands are on the handles, you are over-reached, and it is difficult to keep your balance. Now take a few running steps, and when the right foot is on the ground give a hop with *that* foot, and at the same time place the left foot on the step, throwing your right leg over on to the seat. Now, the *hop* is the principal thing to be done, as if, when running beside the bicycle at a good speed, you were merely to place the left foot on the step without giving a good hop with the other, the right leg would be left behind, and you would be merely what is called "doing the splits."

You will see at once that as the machine is traveling at good speed, you have no *time* to raise one foot after the other (as in walking up stairs), as when you lift up your foot, you are, as it were, "in the air," and nothing but a good long running hop will give time to adjust your toe on the step as it is moving. This is, of course, difficult to describe, and we need not say, requires a certain amount of strength and agility, without which no one can expect to become an expert rider.

But, in the high racing machines, no one would think of trying to mount without the assistance of a friendly arm, and a stand or stool of suitable height.

Having now mounted the high machine, you will find that the reach of the leg, and the position altogether, is very different from the seat on the "bone-shaker;" but when you get some command, you will find the easy gliding motion much pleasanter, as well as faster. You are now seated much higher, in fact, almost on the top of the wheel; and, instead of using the ball of the foot, you must use your toe; and when the treadle is at the bottom of the throw of the crank, your leg will be almost at its fullest extent, and nearly straight.

Now you must pay a little attention to the process of alighting.

In getting off by the step, all you have to do is to reach back your left foot until you feel the step, and, resting upon the handles, raise yourself up, and throw the right leg over the seat on to the ground

But we consider getting off by the treadle much the preferable way when you can manage it; but you must be very careful when first trying not to attempt it until the machine is perfectly at rest. Get some one to hold you up, the bicycle being stationary, and practice getting off in the following manner: First, see that the left hand crank is at the bottom, and with your left foot on that treadle practice swinging your right leg backwards and forwards, in order to get used to the movement. Now while in position, throw your right leg with a swing backwards, resting as much as you can of your weight upon the handles, and raise yourself with your right foot into position, continuing your swinging movement until you are off the seat and on the ground.

When you are well able to get off in this way, with the bicycle at rest, you may attempt it when slackening speed to stop. As it is, of course, easier to get off the slower you are going, you must come almost to a standstill, just keeping way enough to prevent the machine falling over, as, if you attempt it when going at all quickly, you will have to run by its side after you are off, which is a difficult feat for any but a skillful rider.

The great advantage of getting off in this way is that, with practice, you can choose your own time, which is very useful when an obstacle suddenly presents itself, as in turning a corner; and in getting off the other way you are liable to lose time in feeling for the step

There are different styles of riding, and of course at first

you are glad to be able to get along in any way you can ; but when you come to have any command over your machine, and and have time to think about *style*, you cannot do better than take for your model some graceful rider, whose upright and graceful seat gives an impression of quiet power. Very different is the appearance presented by some well-known riders, who, although going at really good speed, present a painful appearance, hanging forwards over the handles as if about to topple over, and favoring the beholders with such a variety of facial contortions.

Hints on Training.—It is very difficult to give any rules that will apply to all, as constitutions differ so widely ; but the simple rules of regular diet, rest, and exercise will apply to every one, whether they are going, as the saying is, "to race for a man's life," or merely trying to get themselves into the best frame of body to endure moderate exertion. The daily use of the cold bath, or tepid if necessary, cannot be too strongly insisted upon ; and also early rising and going to rest ; and the avoidance of all rich viands, such as pork, veal, duck, salmon, pastry, etc., etc. Beef, mutton, fowls, soles, and fish of similar kind, should form the principal diet. The severity of the rules of professional training has been much relaxed of late years, and many things, such as vegetables, stimulants in great moderation, etc., are now allowed, which before were rigidly excluded.

In training for any special effort, of course it is necessary to have professional assistance ; but with moderate attention to diet and regimen, any one may soon get himself into good condition, and particularly if he becomes an habitual bicycle-rider.

SWIMMING.

SWIMMING is the art of keeping the body afloat and propelling it by means of the body and hands. The swimming of man is artificial, but as the specific gravity of the human body is very little greater than that of water, it can be floated with very little difficulty.

Every boy should be taught to swim, and if he reads the following pages and abides by the instructions, he can easily teach himself.

The first care of the intending swimmer is, of course, to find a proper piece of water in which to learn his first lessons. The very best water that can be found is that of the sea, on account of its saltness and bitterness, whereby two great advantages are obtained.

The first advantage is, that, on account of the salt and other substances which are dissolved in it, the sea-water is so much heavier than fresh that it gives more support to the body, and enables the beginner to float much sooner than he can expect to do in fresh water.

The other advantage is, that the taste of the sea-water is so nauseous that the learner takes very good care to keep his lips tightly shut, and so does not commit the common error of opening the mouth, which is fatal to all swimming, and is sure to dishearten a beginner by letting water get down his throat and half-choke him.

As to place, there is nothing better than a sloping sandy shore, where the tide is not very strong. In some places the tide runs with such a force, that if the beginner is taken off his legs he will be carried away, or, at least, that he will have great difficulty in regaining his feet.

We strongly recommend him to walk over the spot at low water, and see whether there are any stones, sticks, rocks, or holes, and if so, to remove all the movable impediments and mark the position of the others.

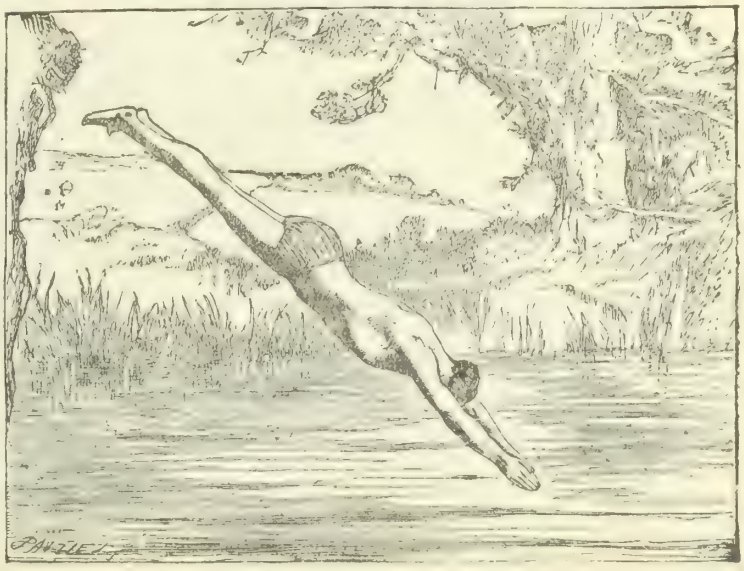
Take a special care of the holes, for there is nothing so treacherous. A hole of some six or seven inches in depth and a yard in diameter looks so insignificant when the water is out that few persons would take any notice of it; but, when a novice is in the water, these few inches may just make the difference between safety and death.

On sandy shores the most fertile source of holes is to be found in large stones. They sink rather deeply into the sand and form miniature rocks, round which the water courses as the tides ebb and flow, thus cutting a channel completely round the stone. Even when the stone is removed, the hole will remain unfilled throughout several tides.

The next best place for learning to swim is a river with a fine sandy bed, clear water, and no weeds.

When such a spot has been found, the next care is to examine the bed of the river and to remove very carefully everything that might hurt the feet. If bushes should grow on the banks, look out carefully for broken scraps of boughs, which fall into the stream, become saturated with water, sink to the bottom, and become fixed to one of the points upwards.

If human habitations should be near, beware of broken glass and crockery; fragments of which are generally flung into the river, and will inflict most dangerous wounds if trodden on.



If the bed of the stream should be in the least muddy, look out for mussels, which lie imbedded almost to their sharp edges, that project upwards and cut the feet nearly as badly as broken glass.

Failing sea and river, a pond or canal is the only resource, and furnishes the very worst kind of water. The bed of most ponds is studded with all kinds of cutting and piercing objects, which are thrown in by careless boys, and remain where they fell. Then, the bottom is almost invariably muddy, and the water is seldom clean. Still, bad as is a pond, it is better than nothing, and the intending swimmer may console himself with the reflection that he is doing his duty, and with the prospect of swimming in the sea some time or other.

Of course the large public baths possess some of the drawbacks of ponds; but they have, at all events, the advantage of a regulated depth, a firm bank, and no mud.

As the very essence of swimming lies in confidence, it is always better for the learner to feel secure that he can leave the water whenever he likes. Therefore, let him take a light rope of tolerable length, tie one end to some firm object on the bank, and let the rest of the rope lie in the water. "Manilla" is the best kind of rope for this purpose, because it is so light that it floats on the surface instead of sinking, as is the case with an ordinary hempen rope.

If there is only sand on the shore, the rope can be moored quite firmly by tying it to the middle of a stout stick, burying the stick a foot or so in the sand, and filling up the trench. You may pull till you break the rope, but you will never pull the stick out of its place. If you are *very* nervous, tie two sticks in the shape of a cross and bury them in like manner.

The rope need not be a large one, as it will not have to sustain the whole weight of your body, and it will be found that a cord as thick as an ordinary washing-line will answer every purpose.

On the side of a stream or pond, tie the rope to a tree, or hammer a stake in the ground. A stake eighteen inches in length, and as thick as an ordinary broomstick is quite large enough. Hammer it rather more than two-thirds into the ground, and let it lean boldly away from the water's edge. The best way of fixing the rope to it is by the "clove hitch."

Now, having your rope in your hand, go quietly into the water *backwards*, keeping your face towards the bank. As soon as you are fairly in the water, duck completely beneath the surface. Be sure that you really do go fairly under water, for there is nothing more deceptive than the feel of the water to a novice. He dips his head, as he fancies, at least a foot beneath the surface; he feels the water in his nose, he hears it in his ears, and thinks he is almost at the bottom, when, in reality, the back of his head is quite dry.

The best way of "ducking" easily is to put the left hand on the back of the head, hold to the rope with the right hand, and then duck until the left hand is well under water.

The learner should next accustom himself to the new element by moving about as much as possible, walking as far as the rope will allow him, and jumping up and down so as to learn by experience the buoyancy of the water.

Perhaps the first day may be occupied by this preliminary process, and on the second visit the real business may begin.

In swimming, as in most other pursuits, a good beginning is invaluable.

Let the learner bestow a little care on the preliminaries, and he will have no bad habits to unteach himself afterwards. It is quite as easy to learn a good style at first as a bad style, although the novice may just at the beginning fancy that he could do better by following his own devices.

The first great object is to feel a perfect confidence in the sustaining power of the water, and, according to our ideas, the best method of doing so is by learning to float on the back.

Floating on the Back.

Take care that the cord is within easy reach, so that it may be grasped in a moment, should the novice become nervous, as he is rather apt to do just at first. Take it in both hands, and lay yourself very gently in the water, arching the spine backwards as much as possible, and keeping the legs and knees perfectly straight and stiff.

Now press the head as far back as possibly can be done, and try to force the back of the head between the shoulder-blades. You can practice this attitude at home, by lying on two chairs and seeing whether your attitude corresponds with that which is given in the illustration.

When you have thus lain in the water you will find that you are almost entirely upheld by its sustaining power, and



that only a very little weight is sustained by the rope. On reflection you will also discern that the only weight which pulls on the rope is that of your hands and arms, which are out of water, and which, therefore, act as dead weight.

Indeed, you might just as well lay several iron weights of a pound each upon your body, for the hands and arms are much heavier than we generally fancy. Just break an arm or a leg, and you will find out what heavy articles they are.

Now let your arms sink gradually into the water, and you will see that exactly in proportion as they sink, so much weight is taken off the rope; and if you have only courage to put them entirely under water, and to loose the rope, your body will be supported by the water alone.

Swimming on the Back, Head First.

There are many modes of swimming on the back, head first; some in which the hands are the moving power, others in which the force is derived from the legs, and some in which the legs and arms are both exerted.

To practice one of these methods—viz., that commonly

called floating—you should throw your head gently back, as before, bringing your feet to the surface; let your arms lie in the water close to your sides, using the hands in the same manner as when sculling, with a swift pushing motion of the palms towards the feet, returning edgeways, thumbs first, by bending the arms; and pushing again towards the feet by straightening the arms close to the sides. This produces a very rapid progress through the water, and may be continued for some time.

Another method is as follows:—Throw yourself round on your back without stopping (which may be done with a swing of the body, while swimming in the first described method), and you will retain part of the impetus already acquired. Then throw both hands out of the water, as far as you can reach, in the direction you wish to proceed, entering again edgeways beyond your head, and describe a segment of a circle in the water, having the shoulders for a center. The hands on appearing again on the surface below the hips, should pass immediately through the air for another stroke. This mode is very serviceable when taken with cramp, or symptoms of cramp, as it removes the stress entirely off the muscles of the leg. It may be gracefully varied by using the right and left hands alternately.

For the practice of a third method the hands and arms are to be used as in the last, but the progress should be aided by the lower limbs striking out with vigor, after having been drawn up to the body by the stroke made with the arms. The kick should be made as the hands pass through the air. This is a very quick manner of swimming, and is most commonly resorted to for relief when swimming in a match.

For another method, lie on your back with your arms folded, or with your hands passed over your shoulders beneath your neck, or floating quietly by your side, drawing up your legs towards the chest as high as possible, and then striking them backwards with vigor, which will cause you to make considerable progress through the water without using the arms at all. When you draw up your feet the movement is against the surface, where there is little resistance, but, when you strike them out, the force is applied in a downward direction, where the resistance is greatest. The foregoing method is useful when your arms are tired, or you have something to carry or tow after you, the hands being perfectly free.

Steering the course is easily managed by means of the legs. If the left leg is allowed to remain still, and the right leg is used, the body is driven to the left, and *vice versa* when the left leg is used and the right kept quiet. The young swimmer must remember that when he brings his legs together they must be kept quite straight and the knees stiff. The toes should also be pointed, so as to offer no resistance to the water.

Swimming on the back is a most useful branch of the art, as it requires comparatively little exertion and serves to rest the arms when they are tired with the ordinary mode of swimming. All swimmers who have to traverse a considerable distance always turn occasionally on the back. They even in this position allow the arms to lie by the sides until they are completely rested, while at the same time the body is gently sent through the water by the legs.

Let swimming on the back be perfectly learned, and practiced continually, so that the young swimmer may always feel secure of himself when he is in that position.

The feet should be kept about twelve or fourteen inches below the surface of the water, as, if they are kept too high, the stroke is apt to drive the upper part of the head and eyes under the water.

It must always be remarked that it is impossible to arch the spine too much, or to press the head too far between the shoulders.

Swimming on the Chest.

We now come to swimming on the chest, which is the mode adopted by most persons, and which, together with swimming on the back, will enable the learner to perform almost any aquatic feat.

In order to begin with confidence, walk into the water until it is almost as high as the chest, and then turn towards the land, so that every movement may carry you from the deeper to the shallower water. Next place your hands in front of the chest, the fingers stiff and pressed together, and the thumb held tightly against the forefinger. Do not press the palms together, as too many books enjoin, but hold the hands with the thumbs together, the palms downwards and the backs upwards.

Now lean gently forward in the water, pushing your hands out before you until the arms are quite straight, and just before your feet leave the bottom give a little push forwards. You will now propel yourself a foot or two towards the land. Try



how long you can float, and then gently drop the feet to the ground. Be careful to keep the head well back and the spine arched.

Repeat this seven or eight times, until you have gained confidence that the water will support you for a few seconds. The accompanying illustration shows the proper attitude.

Now go back to the spot whence you started, and try to make a stroke. Lay yourself on the water as before, but when the feet leave the bottom draw them up close to the body, and then kick them out quickly. When they have reached their full extent, press them together firmly, keeping them quite straight and the toes pointed.

This movement will drive you onwards for a short distance, and when you feel that you are likely to sink, drop the feet as before. Start again and make another stroke, and so on until the water is too shallow.

At first you will hardly gain more than an inch or two at each stroke; but after a little practice you will gain more

and more until you can advance three or four feet without putting the legs to the ground. It is a good plan to start always from the same spot, and to try in how few strokes you can reach the land. There is a great interest in having some definite object in view, and one gets quite excited in trying to reduce the number of strokes.

The action of the legs may be seen in the illustration.

The next point is the movement of the arms.

In reality the arms are more valuable in swimming than the legs, and for this simple reason : any one who has the use of his limbs at all is obliged to use his legs daily, and that to a considerable extent. However sedentary he may be, he must walk up and down stairs twice at least in the day. He must walk from one room to another. He must get into and out of his carriage, and walk a few paces to his office. And in all these little walks his legs have to carry the weight of his body, which, to set it at the least figure, weighs from seventy to ninety pounds.

The Side-Stroke.

There is no stroke that enables the swimmer to last so long as this does, and for this reason : instead of employing both arms and legs simultaneously in the same manner, the side-stroke employs them simultaneously but in different manners; so that when the swimmer is tired of exercising one side he can just turn over and proceed with the other, the change of action resting the limbs almost as much as actual repose would do.

The side-stroke is thus managed : the swimmer lies on his right side, stretching his right arm out as far as he can reach, keeping the fingers of the right hand quite straight and the hand itself held edgewise, so as to cut the water like a shark's fin. The left hand is placed across the chest, with the back against the right breast, and the swimmer is then ready to begin.

He commences by making the usual stroke with his legs, and the right leg, being undermost, doing the greater share of the work. Before the impetus gained by the stroke is quite expended, the right arm is brought round with a broad sweep, until the palm of the hand almost touches the right thigh. At the same moment, the left hand makes a similar sweep, but is carried backwards as far as it can go.

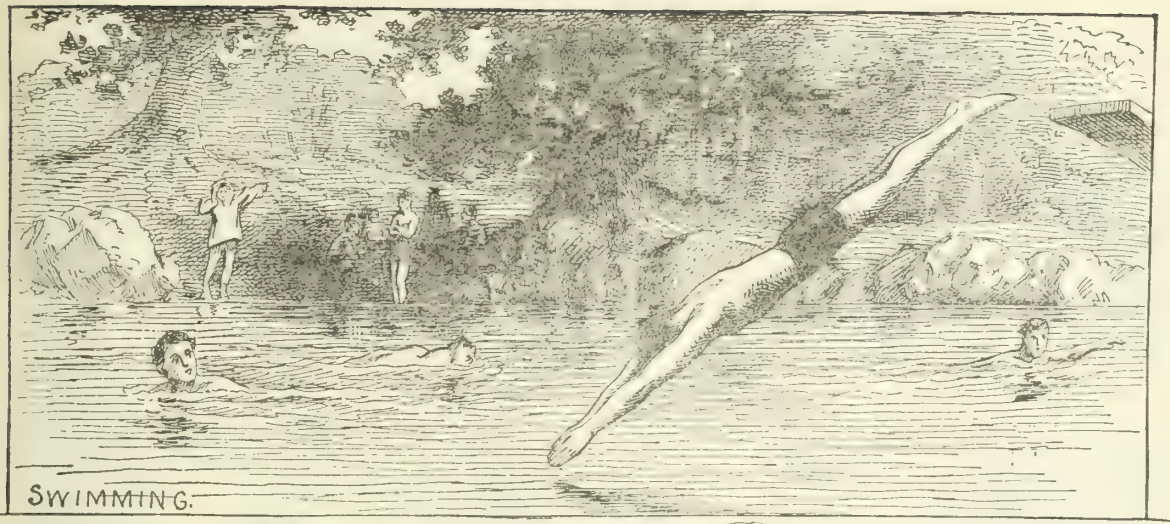
The reader will see that the hands act directly upon the



water like the blades of a pair of oars, and do not waste any of their power by oblique action.

In ordinary swimming we seldom use the left arm, but allow it to hang quietly in the water, so that it may be perfectly ready for work when wanted. Then, after some little time, we turn round, swim on the other side, and give the left arm its fair share of labor.

There is a modification of swimming on the side, which is sometimes called THRUSTING, and sometimes the INDIAN STROKE, because the North American Indians generally employ it.


SWIMMING.


ROWING.


DROWNING.



I.—Preliminary Rules.

IN cases of apparent death, either from drowning or other suffocation, send immediately for medical assistance, blankets, and dry clothing, but proceed to treat the patient *instantly* on the spot, in the open air, with the face downward, whether on shore or afloat; exposing the face, neck, and chest to the wind, except in severe weather, and removing all tight clothing from the neck and chest, especially the braces.

The points to be aimed at are: first and *immediately*, the *restoration of breathing*; and secondly, after breathing is restored, the *promotion of warmth and circulation.*

The efforts to *restore breathing* must be commenced immediately and energetically and persevered in for one or two hours, or until a medical man has pronounced that life is extinct.

Efforts to promote *warmth and circulation*, beyond removing the wet clothes and drying the skin, must not be made until the first appearance of natural breathing. For if circulation of the blood be induced before breathing has recommenced, the restoration to life will be endangered.

II.—Treatment to Restore Breathing, According to Dr. Marshall Hall's Method.

1.—*To clear the throat.*

Place the patient on the floor or ground with the face downwards, and one of the arms under the forehead, in which position all fluids will more readily escape by the mouth, and the tongue itself will fall forward, leaving the entrance into the windpipe free. Assist this operation by wiping and cleansing the mouth.

If satisfactory breathing commences, use the treatment described below to promote warmth.

If there be only slight breathing, or no breathing, or if the breathing fail, then—

2.—*To excite breathing.*

Turn the patient well and instantly on the side, supporting the head, and excite the nostrils with snuff, hartshorn, and smelling salts; or tickle the throat with a feather, &c., if they are at hand. Rub the chest and face warm, and dash cold water, or cold and hot water alternately, on them.

If there be no success, lose not a moment, but instantly—

3.—*To imitate breathing.*

Replace the patient on the face, raising and supporting the chest well on a folded coat or other article of dress.

Turn the body very gently on the side and a little beyond and then briskly on the face, back again; repeating these measures cautiously, efficiently, and perseveringly about fifteen times in the minute, or once every four or five seconds, occasionally varying the side.

By placing the patient on the chest, the weight of the body forces the air out; when turned on the side, this pressure is removed, and air enters the chest.

On each occasion that the body is replaced on the face, make uniform but efficient pressure with brisk movement, on the back between and below the shoulder blades or bones on each side, removing the pressure immediately before turning the body on the side.

During the whole of the operations let one person attend solely to the movements of the head, and of the arm placed under it.

The result is respiration or natural breathing; and, if not too late, life.

Whilst the above operations are being proceeded with, dry the hands and feet; and as soon as dry clothing or blankets can be procured, strip the body, and cover or gradually reclothe it, but taking care not to interfere with the efforts to restore breathing.

III.—Treatment to Restore Breathing, According to Dr. Silvester's Method.

Instead of these proceedings, or should these efforts not prove successful in the course of from two to five minutes, proceed to imitate breathing by Dr. Silvester's method, as follows:—

1.—*Patient's position.*

Place the patient on the back of a flat surface, inclined a little upwards from the feet; raise and support the head and shoulders on a small firm cushion, or folded article of dress placed under the shoulder blades.

2.—*To effect a free entrance of air into the windpipe.*

Cleanse the mouth and nostrils, draw forward the patient's tongue, and keep it projecting beyond the lips; an elastic band over the tongue and under the chin will answer this purpose, or a piece of string or tape may be tied round them, or by raising the lower jaw, the teeth may be made to retain the tongue in that position. Remove all tight clothing from about the neck and chest, especially the braces.

3.—*To imitate the movements of breathing.*

Standing at the patient's head, grasp the arms just above the elbows, and draw the arms gently and steadily upwards above the head, and *keep them stretched* upwards for two seconds. (*By this means air is drawn into the lungs.*) Then turn down the patient's arms and press them gently and firmly for two seconds against the sides of the chest. (*By this means air is pressed out of the lungs.* Pressure on the breast-bone will aid this.)

Repeat these measures alternately, deliberately, and perseveringly, about fifteen times in a minute, until a spontaneous effort to respire is perceived; immediately upon which cease to imitate the movements of breathing, and proceed to *induce circulation and warmth.*

Should a warm bath be procurable, the body may be placed in it up to the neck, continuing to imitate the movements of breathing. Raise the body in twenty seconds in a sitting position, and dash cold water against the chest and face, and pass ammonia under the nose. The patient should not be kept in the warm bath longer than five or six minutes.

4.—*To excite inspiration.*

During the employment of the above method excite the nostrils with snuff or smelling salts, or tickle the throat with a feather. Rub the chest and face briskly, and dash cold and hot water alternately on them.

The above directions are chiefly Dr. H. R. Silvester's method of restoring the apparently dead or drowned, and have been approved by the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society.

IV.—Treatment after Natural Breathing has been Restored.

1.—*To promote warmth and circulation.*

Wrap the patient in dry blankets, commence rubbing the limbs upwards, with firm grasping pressure and energy, using handkerchiefs, flannels, &c. (By this measure the blood is propelled along the veins towards the heart.)

The friction must be continued under the blanket or over the dry clothing.

1. Promote the warmth of the body by the application of hot flannels, bottles, or bladders of hot water, heated bricks, &c., to the pit of the stomach, the arm-pits, between the thighs, and to the soles of the feet. Warm clothing may generally be obtained from bystanders.

2. If the patient has been carried to a house after respiration has been restored, be careful to let the air play freely about the room.

3. On the restoration of life, when the power of swallowing has returned, a teaspoonful of warm water, small quantities of wine, warm brandy and water, or coffee, should be administered. The patient should be kept in bed, and a disposition to sleep encouraged. During reaction, large mustard plasters to the chest below the shoulders will greatly relieve the distressed breathing.

V.—General Observations.

The above treatment should be continued for some hours, as it is an erroneous opinion that persons are irrecoverable because life does not soon make its appearance, persons having been restored after persevering for many hours.

VI.—Appearances which Generally Indicate Death from Drowning.

Breathing and the heart's action cease entirely; the eyelids are generally half closed; the pupils dilated; the jaws clenched; the fingers semi-contracted; the tongue approaches to the under edges of the lips, and these, as well as the nostrils, are covered with a frothy mucus. Coldness and pallor of surface increase.

VII.—Cautions.

1. Prevent unnecessary crowding of persons round the body; especially if in an apartment.

2. Avoid rough usage, and do not allow the body to remain on the back unless the tongue is secured.

3. Under no circumstances hold the body up by the feet.

4. On no account place the body in a warm bath, unless under medical direction, and even then it should only be employed as a momentary excitant.



THE immense and increasing importance which the art of Rowing is assuming in this country has induced the publisher to include the subject in the MANUAL.

The publisher feels himself justified in recommending the present volume to the attention of Youths whose proclivities take the form of Rowing or Sailing.

ROWING.

WE suppose that every American man or boy who takes to rowing or sailing for amusement wishes to go fast; now, every fast boat is more or less liable to be upset, even with the best and most skillful management; and when a boat is upset, while he who can swim laughs at the adventure, he who cannot is not only himself in danger, but endangers others who feel obliged to risk their own lives in order to save his. Therefore, let every one learn to swim before he attempts either to row or sail in a fast boat; he will then be able to enjoy the amusement, and his friends on shore will feel at ease, and not wish to deter him. Having acquired this art, he may safely proceed in learning to row, and with it to learn the general management of a rowing-boat. Boys at school, and men at college, can often row very well without being *watermen*—that is to say, without understanding how the boat, the oars, the rudder, etc., ought to be fitted, or how to steer or manage a boat in difficulties, or how to row except in a boat and with an oar fitted exactly as it ought to be; but let the beginner not follow this example—let him determine to learn how to detect and correct any fault in the fittings of a boat, and how to row under difficulties. Of course any one can row better in a properly-fitted boat than in one that is not so, but grumbling at the boat and fittings is the sign of a greenhorn; a good waterman should be able to row anywhere and anyhow—with a mopstick across a tenpenny nail, if necessary, and at the same time should know how to make the best of a good boat and oars when he has got them. These arts are only to be acquired by rowing in all sorts of boats, by listening to what watermen or experienced oarsmen have to say on the subject, by always looking out to pick up something new, and to learn something every day; and, first, let the beginner learn the names and use of every part of a boat, and of its fittings.

There are several methods of fitting the oars and boat, according to the purpose required: we will begin with fresh-water boats and the style of rowing adapted for them, inasmuch as seamen hate rowing, and without exception row badly. The boats now used in fresh water are either *outriggers* or *gigs*; wherries, funnies, skiffs, etc., being almost superseded. The *outrigger* is so called from having an iron frame or *outrigger* on each side of the boat to carry the *rowlock*, and so enable a longer-handled oar to be used. They were first brought into notice by the Claspers from Newcastle, in England, and have now superseded all other boats for racing purposes. The *gig* is a broader and higher boat, and has a straight *gunwale*, a stern nearly upright, and a *transom*, or flat piece, to the stern. A *funny* is a long sculling boat, sharp at each end; a *skiff* is a stronger, shorter, heavier, and wider boat, used to carry people or goods without risk of upsetting; a *shallop* is a still larger boat, used for pleasure parties, etc., a *punt* is a strongly-built boat, with a flat bottom and square ends, used for fishing, and is usually propelled by pushing on the ground with a *punt-pole*. *Four-oars*, *six-oars* (seldom used)

and *eight-oars* are now always outriggers when used for racing, gigs for ordinary pulling. An outrigger wager sculler's boat is 30 feet long, 16 inches wide, and weighs about 40 pounds; a pair-oar wager-boat is 36 feet long, 20 inches wide; an eight-oar from 56 feet to 66 feet long, and 2 feet 3 inches wide

We proceed to give the technical names of the parts of a boat:—1. The *bows*, or front part of the boat; the *stern*, *after part*, or hind part of the boat; the rest of the boat is called the *midships*. Under the bottom of the boat, projecting about an inch, is a long piece of wood called a *keel*; where the keel turns up forward, it is called the *stem*; the upright piece of wood fitting into the keel abaft is called the *stern-post*, and to this the *rudder* is hung. In *square-sterned* boats there is, besides, the *transom*. The sides of the boat are made of planks nailed together, and called *strakes*; the lowest strakes next the keel are called the *garboards*. The strakes are strengthened and the boat is kept in shape by pieces of wood crossing the boat in the inside, like ribs, called *timbers* or *lands*. The square holes are called *rowlocks*, and consist of the *thole*, against which the oar is pulled; the *stopper*, or *after thole*, forming the other side of the rowlock; and the leather *filling*, forming the bottom of the rowlock. The seats across the boat are called *thwarts*; the pieces of wood fastening them to the sides of the boat are *knees*; the piece of board against which the feet rest, the *stretcher*; the boards for standing on at the bottom of the boat amidships are *bottom-boards* or *burdens*; the boards in the bow, the *bow-sheets*; those in the stern, the *stern-sheets*; the space between the steerer's thwart and the thwart of the stroke-oar is the *state-room*, and in large boats has seats on each side for *sitters*.

Fitted to the top of the rudder is a cross-piece of wood or brass called the *yoke*, attached to which are ropes called *yoke-lines*, for the steerer's hands. In eight-oars it is usual to have the yoke-lines attached to the side of the boat, and passing through pulleys in the yoke, in order to give more power to the steerer. The rope by which the boat is *made fast* is called the *painter*, or sometimes the *headfast*. Wager-boats are built of white fir or mahogany, gigs usually of white fir, but sometimes of oak. Fir is perhaps lighter, but oak lasts much longer. Sea-going boats are usually built of elm; and the timbers of ash.

When the rower rows with an oar in each hand, the oars are called *sculls*, and are shorter; when he uses only one oar, it is called an *oar*, and is about 13 feet 5 inches long. Sculls and oars are usually of white pine, and consist of the *handle* and the *loom*, within the rowlock, the part outside of the rowlock consisting of the shank or *small*, and the *blade*, and are fitted either with *boxing* or *filling*, and a *button*, or with *leather* and a *stop*. The sculls usually *overlap* about four inches; the handle of the oar should just clear the other side of the boat. The oars in a boat are numbered from the bow, No. 1 being the bow, No. 2 the next, and so on to No. 8, or stroke in an eight-oar. The stroke-oar is always on the *port*, *larboard*, or left side of the boat, and the oars on that side are called the *stroke* or *larboard* oars; the oars on the right side of the boat, the *bow* or *starboard oars*.

It should be recollected that pair-oar rowing is the foundation of all rowing; in a four, and still more easily in an eight, defects, especially *shirking*, may pass undetected, but not easily in a pair-oar. Let the beginner, therefore, get some experienced friend or a waterman to give the first lessons in a steady and not too light boat; if he can get some one to row stroke whilst the friend or waterman steers and instructs, so much the better; if not, let the friend or waterman pull the bow oar so as to see his pupil at his work. The *mat* must be firmly tied to the thwart, and this every man should learn to do for himself, as the men at the boat-house never do it properly. Flannel mats with strings are much the best. Let the pupil then seat himself on the thwart nearly on the *after edge* of it, bending his knees a little, and opening them about a foot, and placing his feet firmly against the stretcher, with heels close together and toes turned out straight before him; if the strap is used, the outside foot, or that nearest the middle of the boat, will be passed under it; but for the first few lessons, the strap should not be used, as a man ought to be able to row without it. The stretcher must of course be adjusted to the proper length. The pupil will then take hold of the oar with the button just inside the thole, and grasp the oar with the outside hand close to the end, but not capping it, and thumb above the oar, the inside hand about three inches from the other, just where the square loom begins, thumb under the oar. Let him then sit upright, straighten his back, flatten and drop his shoulders, keeping them perfectly square, and hold his head a very little forward, elbows close to his sides, sitting very nearly as he would be directed to sit by a drill sergeant or dancing-master, the only exception being that the knees are open and the head a little forward, and that he holds the oar. Let him then stretch forward as far as the stopper will allow the oar to go, which is about as far as he can reach, still keeping his back straight, his shoulders square, though of course a little raised, his arms extended, his outside wrist flat with the arm, his inside wrist bent convexly. And here let the pupil understand clearly that all the motions are to be made by swinging evenly backwards and forwards on his seat as on a hinge; the back is never to be bent, and though the shoulders must necessarily be raised a little in reaching forward, in going back they should be dropped as low as they can be brought. There is a common notion that rowing rounds the back and shoulders, and *bad* rowing does so, but a good oar has his shoulders and back as flat as any drill sergeant would wish them to be; when his shoulders are humped or his back rounded, it is a sign that he is tired out and done. If the rower raises one shoulder higher than the other, or does not swing evenly backwards and forwards, he makes the boat *roll*, and prevents the other men from rowing properly. Let the pupil then resume the upright position, stretch forward a little, and dip the oar into the water, taking care that the blade is upright, and the button against the thole; let him then pull a short stroke, keeping the blade upright and leaning back a little, the first stroke or two without any pressure, afterwards pressing on the oar, taking care to have the chest well bent forward towards the loom, so as to strike the water and feel resistance at once. Let the pupil continue to make short strokes like this until he can keep his oar upright and recover himself after each stroke, keeping the button against the thole, and when he can do this

pretty well, let him begin to *feather*, or bring the oar out of the water in a horizontal or flat position; this is done by dropping the wrists sharply at the end of the stroke, and, though difficult at first, is very soon acquired.

There are different styles of feathering: the Harvard men feather high; Yale men almost graze the surface of the water, which certainly looks well, but cannot be done if there is any *sea* or rough water. In about an hour any one who takes pains ought to have mastered these points, and that ought to suffice for one day; and at the end of each quarter of an hour, the pupil should change sides and work with the other oar. If this is not done at the very beginning, he is likely to contract a habit of rowing on one side only, and will never learn to row on the other side: a deficiency which will cause great inconvenience to himself and others in future time.

On the following day, the pupil should be taught to stretch out and pull his stroke through, and to keep time, the instructor pulling a very long, slow, and steady stroke; the pupil should then be taught to *back water*, which is exactly the reverse of pulling, as the oar is then pushed through the water so as to propel the boat stern foremost, or to assist in turning the boat round; he should also be taught to *ship* his oar neatly and quickly; and this is done by letting go with the outside hand, and lifting the oar sharply up out of the rowlock with the inside hand, letting the blade float astern. The beginner would do well to go out in a safe boat with a friend, and practice backing and shipping till he can do both quickly and neatly at the word of command; and in about three lessons of an hour each the pupil ought to become a passable oar. This system of pair-oared tuition is immeasurably superior to and *quicker than* the ordinary plan pursued at schools and colleges, of putting seven raw hands into an eight-oar with a tolerable stroke and a good coxswain, and trying to teach them all at once. The unhappy wretches have no idea of what they ought to do, and cannot understand the directions of their coxswain, who sits raving and storming at them, and at the end of the lesson they return stiff, sore, tired, and disgusted, having learnt very little, and probably begun to contract faults which they may never get rid of. Let the first rowing of every man be carefully attended to, and all faults checked at once before they grow into habits. For all further tuition we refer to the following extract from "The Principles of Rowing and Steering," by studying which the beginner, or even the advanced oar, may learn what to do and what to avoid:—

"The requisites for a perfect stroke are:—

"1. Taking the whole reach forward, and falling back gradually a little past the perpendicular, preserving the shoulders throughout square, and the chest developed at the end.

"2. Catching the water and beginning the stroke with a full tension on the arms at the instant of contact.

"3. A horizontal and dashing pull through the water immediately the blade is covered, without deepening in the space subsequently traversed.

"4. Rapid recovery after feathering by an elastic motion of the body from the hips, the arms being thrown forward perfectly straight simultaneously with the body, and the forward motion of each ceasing at the same time.

"5. Lastly, equability in all actions, preserving full strength without harsh, jerking, isolated, and uncompensated movements in any single part of the frame."

"*Faults in Rowing.*—The above laws are sinned against when the rower—

"1. Does not straighten both arms before him.

"2. Keeps two convex wrists instead of the outside wrist flat.

"3. Contrives to put his hands forward by a subsequent motion after the shoulders have attained their reach, which is getting the body forward without the arms.

"4. Extends the arms without a corresponding bend on the part of the shoulders, which is getting the arms forward without the body.

"5. Catches the water with unstraightened arms or arm, and a slackened tension as its consequence: thus time may be kept but not stroke; keeping stroke always implying uniformity of work.

"6. Hangs before dipping downward to begin the stroke.

"7. Does not cover the blade up to the shoulder.

"8. Rows round and deep in the middle, with hands high and blade still sunken after the first contact.

"9. Curves his back forward or aft.

"10. Keeps one shoulder higher than the other.

"11. Jerks.

"12. Doubles forward and bends over the oar at the feather, bringing the body up to the handle, and not the handle up to the body.

"13. Strikes the water at an obtuse angle, or rows the first part in the air.

"14. Cuts short the end, prematurely slacking the arms.

"15. Shivers out the feather, commencing it too soon and bringing the blade into a plane with the water while work may yet be done: thus the oar may leave the water in perfect time, but stroke is not kept. This and No. 5 are the most subtle faults in rowing, and involve the science of shirking.

"16. Rolls backward, with an inclination towards the inside or outside of the boat.

"17. Turns his elbows at the feather instead of bringing them sharp past the flanks.

"18. Keeps the head depressed between the shoulders instead of erect.

"19. Looks out of the boat instead of straight before him. (This almost inevitably rolls the boat.)

"20. Throws up water instead of turning it well aft off the lower angle of the blade. A wave thus created is extremely annoying to the oar farther aft; there should be no wave traveling astern, but an eddy containing two small circling swirls."

Nos. 17 and 18 perhaps only affect the appearance, but all the other requisites and faults go to the essentials of rowing.

As soon as the pupil has become totally skillful in the management of his oar he will be put into a four or eight oar, and will have to practice what he has learnt, and we will venture to give him two hints:—1st. To pay particular attention to keeping time. 2d. To take particular care not to put his oar in the water before he has finished going forward; of the two it is better to make the first part of the stroke in the air, though that, of course, is not right; but putting the oar in the

water too soon will inevitably *splash* the men who are forward, and of all the faults which annoy the other men, splashing and not keeping time are the worst. One misfortune which will probably happen once or twice to every learner is *catching a crab*, by letting the oar turn in the water the wrong way before taking it out; the water then pens the oar down, and the handle bears the rower backwards off his seat. The moment he feels this likely to happen he must sharply *ship* his oar, and if he is quick he may escape the annoyance and danger of being knocked backwards. It will be at least a month before the beginner is able to handle his oar with ease and comfort to himself and satisfaction to others; and during this time, as at all times, he ought to pay attention to the instructions of the captain and coxswain, and take their scolding and remarks willingly and good-humoredly. Above all things let him not take it into his head that he is right and the others wrong; in the first place, it is very unlikely; and in the next place, however right he may be, until he is captain, and able to enforce his own ideas, he must row as the others row. Eight inferior oars rowing together, and in the same way, would inevitably beat the best eight oars in America if each of them persisted in rowing in his own way. Another most important thing to a beginner is, *never row a single stroke carelessly or badly;* if you are tired, row easily, but in good form and style. In fact, form and style must be taught and learnt in *paddling—i. e.* rowing easily—and that is the time for it; but there is never a time for rowing badly, and every stroke badly rowed is positively injurious.

Sculling is practiced on exactly the same principles as rowing with oars, except that, both sculls being managed by one man, he has but one hand for each. The sculler must, of course, sit exactly in the middle of the boat, and he must keep his back flatter and his shoulders lower, if possible, than when rowing; the strength which can be put into the last part of the stroke depending entirely upon the drop of the shoulders. The great difficulty in sculling, especially since the light outriggers have been introduced, is in the steering, as the sculler must look behind him at least every third stroke; and to turn the head without turning the body or rocking the boat requires long practice.

In *pair-oar rowing* the bow-oar steers and directs, whilst the stroke-oar merely pulls steadily and follows the directions of the bow-oar. The bow-oar, being forward, has of course most power over the boat; but it often happens that the best steerer is the strongest oar, and will therefore pull stroke and steer at the same time—of course, at a disadvantage. The great secret in ordinary pair-oar rowing is to let one man steer and direct, the other merely following the directions and not slacking or pulling harder without orders, or without saying what he is going to do. Nothing is more provoking to the steerer and more likely to lead to accidents, and at the same time there is nothing more common, than for his companion to pull harder or easier without orders, and exactly when the steerer wishes it not to be done. When there is a side-wind the bow of the boat tends to turn towards the direction from which the wind is blowing; this tendency must, of course, be counteracted by the rower whose oar is on that side, and he is then said to *have the labor.*

In fours and eights there is always a steersman or coxswain, and his art is at least as difficult to learn as the art of rowing. He should sit upright on his thwart, but well forward on it, putting his knees forward and his shins tucked under his thighs, with his feet as far beneath him as they can be brought, so as to be able to throw all his strength and weight upon the lines when required. He should take a turn with each line round the palm of the hand, and let the end come out between his forefinger and thumb, where it must be tightly nipped. His hands are to be well in front and against the ribs, the little fingers resting on the thighs; the lines are always to be kept on the stretch, so that any necessary pull may be instantly given. The steerer will find himself obliged to bend forward at each stroke; but let him only yield to the motion and not *bob* violently, a process which cannot do any good, disturbs his own view, and tends to shake the boat. If any man believes in the efficacy of bobbing, let him get into a boat by himself and try to make her advance by bobbing. As soon as the steerer has had a little practice, and knows how much effect a pull on the yoke-lines produces, he ought to turn all his attention to *steering straight*, an art which is of immense importance, but which is usually neglected or left to chance. Let any one place himself where he can see an ordinary eight-oar coming towards him, and he will then see the zigzag devious course that in nine cases out of ten she will take. To prevent this, the steerer should early learn always to steer for some object right in the course, the farther off it is the better; and let him then keep, or try to keep, the boat's stem steadily pointed at that object. He will find this not so easy, but will attain the art by dint of practice, but not if he learns to lounge about and steer carelessly. When that object is no longer in the course, let him take another, and so on, recollecting that every touch of either yoke-line stops the boat, and that a zigzag is longer than a straight line. One thing which puzzles young steerers much is steering in a strong side-wind; the boat is then constantly being driven bodily to leeward, and, in order to keep a straight line, the stem must not point at any object in the course, but must constantly point to *windward* of the course, and the boat must take a kind of crab-like motion, the proper angle for which must be found by tria.

The steerer has also to instruct the crew; and to learn how to do that, he should carefully observe good rowing whenever he sees it, and read a good work on the subject. In instructing, he should not bully individuals: many faults are incurable, and many men will not try to alter. If a man has been told three times of a fault, and shows no symptoms of amendment, it is useless to annoy him further, and he must either be turned out of the boat, or allowed to go on in his own way. When a man has improved or corrected a fault, let him be immediately praised and complimented. All general unmeaning exclamations in which steersmen are wont to indulge, probably from not knowing what really ought to be said, are totally useless. In training a crew, it is an excellent plan for the stroke or best oar in the boat himself to take the yoke-lines occasionally, and see what the men are doing. If the river is narrow, the men can best be seen by running along the bank.

A fast sculler will make about thirty-six strokes a minute; with oars, forty strokes a minute may be taken.

We now come to the two painful subjects connected with rowing, the mere mention of which causes a shudder in every old oarsman: *blisters* on the hands, and *raws* on the stern:—

Every man suffers at first from blisters, and the harder he pulls, the worse they are; but after a time his hands get hard and horny, and no ordinary exertion will leave a mark. The blisters are often burst during the rowing: they are then usually painful, and all that can be done is to grin and bear it, avoiding the contact of water, which smarts at the time and retards the cure. If they get too bad, two or three days' rest will usually set matters right; if not, you are in bad health, and should go to the doctor. If the blister does not burst, let it remain as a protection for two days; at the end of that time the new skin will be formed underneath, and the blister should be pricked to let out the water which keeps the new skin soft and incomplete. *Raws* will come at all times, but wriggling on the seat is a very frequent cause; the steadier a man sits, the less likely are raws. Of course any folds in the cushion or trowsers are to be carefully avoided, as very likely to raise a raw. If the skin is fairly rubbed off, the place should be covered with goldbeater's-skin, and a day's rest will then almost invariably effect a cure.

We will add a few words as to *sea-going boats*. The sides of the rowlocks are in them formed by two movable pegs called *tholes*; there is no button or stop on the oars; the oars are often of ash; there is no difference between oars and sculls, and the term *sculling* is applied to propelling a boat by working an oar through a notch in the stern of the boat.

Small rowing-boats in the sea, from nine to thirteen feet long, are called *punts*; the oars, instead of rowlocks, often work on a single pin or *thole*, which passes through a block of hard wood called a *cleat*, nailed to the oar. Cleat-oars, of course, cannot be feathered, but are convenient for going alongside a vessel, and in other ways, as they may be let go without being lost. Those who use cleat-oars for the first time should recollect to put the oar on or *abaft* the thole so as to pull upon the thole, not from it, which would soon tear off the cleat. The fittings of sea-going boats are usually very bad; the thwarts are too high and too near the rowlocks, the oars are badly balanced, and there is no stretcher. If there is much sea, it is not possible to pull a long stroke or to feather quickly. This, and the general defects in the fittings, render the rowing of sailors almost always very bad, and utterly unfit for imitation; but the good oarsman should always row as well as the boat will admit: the back may always be kept flat, the shoulders down, and the stroke pulled through.



Administration of Estates of Deceased Persons.

WHEN a person dies, leaving no valid will behind him, his estate is distributed among his heirs by what is known as *operation of law*. This is regulated by the statute of the State in which the deceased resided at the time of his death. The distribution must be made by an *administrator* duly appointed by law. The administrator is appointed by the court having jurisdiction in such cases on being satisfied that the person proposed is legally qualified. The appointment must be made with the *consent* of the person appointed. It is the generally accepted rule that any one is legally competent to be an administrator who is competent to make a contract. Certain classes of persons are disqualified by statute, as in the State of New York, for instance, drunkards, gamblers, spendthrifts, etc. The relatives of the deceased are considered as entitled to the appointment to administer the estate, and the order of precedence is regulated by statute. The husband is to be granted administration on the wife's personal estate, and administration on the husband's estate is to be granted to the widow and the next of kin in the following order if they or any of them will accept :

1. To the widow.
2. To the children.
3. To the father.
4. To the brothers.
5. To the sisters.
6. To the grandchildren.
7. To any other of the next of kin who would be entitled to a share in the distribution of the estate.

The guardians of minors who are entitled may administer for them. In case none of the relatives or guardians will accept, the administration will be given to the creditors of the deceased. The creditor who applies first, if legally competent, is to be preferred. If no creditor applies, any person who is legally qualified may be appointed. In the City of New York the public administrator may administer the estate after the next of kin. In the State of New York the Surrogate may select, among the next of kin, any one in equal degree, and appoint him sole administrator to the exclusion of the others. In case there are several persons of the same degree of kindred to the intestate, entitled to administration, they are preferred in the following order :

1. Males to females.
2. Relatives of the whole blood to those of the half blood.
3. Unmarried to married women ; and should there be several persons equally entitled, the Surro-

gate may grant letters to one or more of them, as his judgment may suggest.

If letters of administration should be unduly granted they may be revoked.

Administration may likewise be granted on certain conditions, for a certain limited time, or for a special purpose.

The powers and duties of an administrator differ from those of an executor only inasmuch as he must distribute and dispose of the estate according to the direction of the law, as he has no will to follow.

First. The administrator must give bonds with sureties for the faithful execution of his trust.

Second. He must make an inventory of the goods and chattels of the intestate, in accordance with the requirements of the law.

Third. Two copies of this inventory shall be made, one of which will be lodged with the judge of the court, and the other will be kept by the administrator. The latter will be obliged to account for the property mentioned in the inventory.

Fourth. Having completed the inventory, the administrator must then collect the outstanding debts of the intestate, and also pay the debts of the same. The order of payment is regulated by local statutes.

Having liquidated all the debts of the intestate, the administrator will divide the remainder of the assets among the surviving relatives of the deceased. In so doing, he will act under the direction of the court.

Agency.

By Agency is meant the substitution of one person by and for another, the former to transact business for the latter. An Agency may be established by *implication*—an express agreement with a person that he is to become the agent of another, not being necessary—or *verbally*, or by *writing*. A verbal creation of agency suffices to authorize the agent to make a contract even in cases where such contract must be in writing.

Agency is of three kinds: special, general, and professional. A special agency is an authority exercised for a special purpose. If a special agent exceed the limits of his authority, his principal is not bound by his acts.

A general agency authorizes the transaction of all business of a particular kind, or growing out of a particular employment. The principal will be bound by the acts of a general agent though the latter act contrary to *private* instructions, provided he keep, at the same time, within the general limits of his authority.

Professional agents are those licensed by the proper authority to transact certain kinds of business for a compensation. The following are among this class of agents:

1. Attorneys.
2. Brokers.
3. Factors.
4. Auctioneers.
5. Masters of Ships.

In regard to the subject of an agency, the general rule is that whatever a man may do in his own right, he may also transact through another. Things of a personal nature, implying personal confidence on the part of the person possessing them, cannot be delegated.

Infants, married women, lunatics, idiots, aliens, belligerents, and persons incapable of making legal contracts, cannot act as principals in the appointment of agents. Infants and married women may, however, become principals in certain cases.

Agency may be terminated in two ways: (1) by the act of the principal or agent; (2) by operation of law. In the latter case, the termination of the agency is effected by lapse of time, by completion of the subject matter of the agency, by the extinction of the subject matter, or by the insanity, bankruptcy, or death of either party.

Arbitration.

Arbitration is an investigation and determination of subjects of difference between persons involved in dispute, by unofficial persons chosen by the parties in question.

The general rule is that any person capable of making a valid contract concerning the subject in dispute may be a party to an arbitration. Any matter which the parties may adjust by agreement, or which may be made the subject of a suit at law, may be determined by arbitration. Crimes cannot be made the subject matter of an arbitration. This matter is regulated by statute in the different States.

Questions may be submitted for arbitration in the following ways:

1. By *parol.*

2. By *writing.*

3. *Under the statute,* which must be done if the parties are desirous of availing themselves of its provisions.

4. *By rule of court,* which occurs when an action is pending in court and the parties agree to take it before arbitrators, in accordance with an order of the court.

5. *By deposit of notes.*

A person may be selected as arbitrator, notwithstanding his natural incapacity or legal disability to make contracts.

The arbitrators must fix the time and place of hearing, and give due notice of the same to the parties. They must be sworn, if the statute requires an oath, unless such oath is weighed by the parties themselves. In the matter of hearing evidence the statute of the State must be followed.

The arbitrators may adjourn from time to time, provided the time does not extend beyond the period appointed for the delivery of the award.

In arbitrations the parties are entitled to the aid of *counsel,* the same as they would be in court.

After a fair submission and a legal award, the matter submitted cannot be litigated on, any more than if it had been settled by a judgment.

An award may be impeached where it has been procured by corruption, fraud, or other undue means; by misconduct, corruption or irregularity on the part of the arbitrators, when the arbitrators acknowledge they have made a mistake in their decision; where the arbitrators have exceeded their powers; where pertinent and material evidence was rejected, etc. If either party revokes the submission, he will be liable for an action for breach of contract, and the payment of damages by the other party.

Arrest.

The defendant in an action may be arrested for the following causes, when the action is to recover damages:

1. Personal injury.

2. Injury to property, including wrongful taking, detention, or conversion of property.

3. Breach of promise to marry.

4. Fraud or deceit.

5. Misconduct or neglect in office, or in profes sional employment.

6. In an action to recover a chattel where said chattel or a part thereof has been removed, concealed, or disposed of, so that it cannot be found or be taken by the Sheriff, and with intent that it should not be found or taken by the Sheriff, or with the intent of depriving the plaintiff of the benefit thereof.

7. In an action upon contract, express or implied, other than a promise to marry, where the defendant has been guilty of fraud in contracting or incurring the liability.

8. In an action upon contract, either express or implied, other than a promise to marry, where defendant has, since the making of the contract, or in contemplation of the same, removed or disposed of his property with the intent of defrauding his creditors, or where he is about to remove or dispose of the same with like intent.

9. In case of action to recover for money received, or to recover property or damages for the conversion or misapplication of the same, where the money was received, or where the property was embezzled, or fraudulently misapplied by a public official, or by an attorney, solicitor, or counselor, or by an officer or agent of a corporation or banking association in the course of his employment, or by a factor, agent, broker, or any person in a fiduciary capacity.

10. In an action wherein the judgment demanded requires the performance of an act, the neglect or the refusal to perform which would be punishable by the court as contempt, or where the defendant, not being a resident of the State, or being a resident, is about to depart from the State, by reason of which departure there is a danger that a judgment or an order requiring the performance of the said act will be rendered ineffectual.

Females are liable to arrest only in the cases mentioned in the preceding subdivision, or in cases of willful injury to person, character, or property.

A debtor may be arrested in this State only when it can be proved that he employed fraud in contracting the debt, or that he concealed or put his property out of his hands with the intent of defeating his creditors.

The defendant, when arrested, may give bail.

Attachment.

An attachment may be issued, when it is a question of recovering a sum of money, for damages, in the following cases :

1. For breach of contract, whether express or implied, other than a contract to marry.

2. For wrongful conversion of personal property, or for any injury to personal property, in consequence of fraud, negligence, or any other act.

The plaintiff must prove that a cause of action exists under one of the above heads before he is entitled to a warrant of attachment. In case of an action to recover damages, his affidavit must show that he is entitled to recover a sum therein stated over and above any or all counter claims against him. In addition, he must show that the defendant is either a foreign corporation or a non-resident of this State, or in case he is an individual person and resides in the State, that he has departed therefrom with the intention of defrauding his creditors, or avoiding being served with a summons, or that he keeps himself concealed within the State with like intent. If the defendant is a natural person or a domestic corporation, the affidavit must show that he or it has removed his or its property from the State with the intention of defrauding his or its creditors, or that he has assigned, disposed of, or secreted his property, or that he is about to do so with like intent. The plaintiff must also give a bond or undertaking to the amount of two hundred and fifty dollars before the attachment issues. Salary or wages may be attached provided the conditions already mentioned exist for so doing. In the absence of said conditions, and after unsatisfied judgment and execution, wages may be taken by supplementary proceedings. The earnings of the debtor for his personal services for sixty days previous to the institution of said supplementary proceedings, where such earnings appear to be necessary for the support of a family wholly or in part supported by his labor, cannot be reached.

Chattel Mortgages.

A mortgage of goods and chattels will be void to creditors of the mortgagee, if the following conditions are not complied with :

1. The immediate delivery of the property accompanying the mortgage, followed by actual and continued claim of possession.

2. The filing of the mortgage, or a true copy thereof, as required by law, in the clerk's or register's office of the town, city or county where the mortgagor resides, and where the property lies at the time the instrument was executed. The mortgage must be filed where the mortgagee resides, if he is a resident of the State; if not, it must be filed in the city or town where the property is located at the time of the execution of the mortgage. It must be filed in the Register's Office in the cities of New York and Brooklyn.

Contracts.

The conditions of a contract, as applying to individuals, are: 1. Age; 2. Rationality; and 3, as to Corporations, the possession of general or special statutory powers.

Persons under age are incompetent to make contracts, except under certain limitations. Generally such persons are incapable of making binding contracts.

As to rationality, the general principle of law is that all persons not rendered incompetent by personal disability, or by considerations of public policy, are capable of making a contract.

Corporations have powers to make contracts strictly within the limits prescribed by their charters, or by special or general statute. The following classes of contracts are void, unless they shall be in writing and subscribed by the party to be charged thereby :

1. Every agreement that by its terms is not to be performed within one year from the making thereof.

2. Every special promise to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another person.

3. Every agreement, promise or undertaking, made upon consideration of marriage, except mutual promises to marry.

4. Every contract for the leasing of a longer period than one year, or for the sale of any lands, or any interest in lands, shall be void, unless the contract, or some note or memorandum thereof, expressing the consideration, be in writing and subscribed by the party by whom the lease or sale is made.

Every contract for the sale of any goods, chattels, or things in action shall be void, unless,

1. A note or memorandum of such contract be made in writing, and be subscribed by the parties to be charged thereby; or,

2. Unless the buyer shall accept and receive part of such goods, or the evidences, or some of them, of such things in action; or,

3. Unless the buyer shall, at the time, pay some part of the purchase money.

Corporations.

Corporations are bodies created by law, which consist of individuals united under a common name, whose members succeed each other, so that the body continues the same, notwithstanding the change of the individuals who compose it.

Three or more persons so desiring may form a corporation.

The persons desiring to form a corporation must make and acknowledge the same before an officer empowered to take the acknowledgment of deeds a certificate in writing, in accordance with the directions required by law.

A duplicate of this certificate must be filed in the office of the Secretary of State.

The stockholders of the incorporated company are individually liable to the company's creditors to the amount of the stock held by them respectively, until all the capital stock shall have been paid in, and until a certificate stating the amount of the capital fixed and paid in shall be filed in the office of the County Clerk, in accordance with the requirements of the law. The stockholders are jointly and severally individually liable to the laborers or servants of the corporation for work performed for the same.

Corporations are liable for contracts made by the duly authorized agent within the scope of his authority, as well as for trespasses or torts committed by such agents under authority of such corporations.

Corporations are liable for negligence or breach of duty the same as individuals.

Corporations are liable to pay taxes in the same manner as individual owners of property.

Corporations are likewise subject to *visitation*, which consists of an authority to inspect the actions and regulate the behavior of the members who share in the franchise.

Descent and Distribution of Personal Estates.

When a person dies intestate, his personal estate remaining after the payment of his debts, and where a will has been left, the surplus remaining after the payment of debts and legacies, if not bequeathed, shall be distributed to the widow, children, or next of kin of the deceased in the following manner:

1. One third part thereof to the widow, and all the residue in equal portions among the children, and such persons as may legally represent such children, if any of them shall have died before the deceased.

2. If there be no children, and no legal representative of them, then one moiety of the whole surplus, after the payment of debts, shall be allotted to the widow, and the other moiety shall be distributed to the next of kin of the deceased.

3. If the deceased shall leave a widow, and no descendant, parent, brother or sister, nephew or niece, the widow shall be entitled to the whole surplus; but if there be a brother or sister, nephew or niece, and no descendant or parent, the widow shall be entitled to a moiety of the surplus and to the whole of the residue, where it does not exceed two thousand dollars; if the residue exceed that sum, she shall receive, in addition to the moiety, two thousand dollars; and the remainder shall be distributed to the brothers and sisters and their representatives.

4. If there be no widow, then the whole surplus shall be distributed equally to and among the children and such as legally represent them.

5. In case there be no widow and no children, and no representatives of a child, then the whole surplus shall be distributed to the next of kin, in equal degree to the deceased, and their legal representatives.

6. If the deceased shall leave no children, and no representatives of them, and no father, and shall leave a widow and a mother, the moiety not distributed to the widow shall be distributed in equal shares to the mother, and brothers and sisters, or the representatives of such brothers and sisters; and, if there be no widow, the whole surplus shall be distributed in like manner to the mother, and to the brothers and sisters, or the representatives of such brothers and sisters.

7. If the deceased leave a father, and no child or descendant, the father shall take a moiety, if there be a widow, and the whole if there be no widow.

8. If the deceased leave a mother, and no child, descendant, father, brother, sister, or representative of a brother or sister, the mother, if there be a widow, shall take a moiety, and the whole if there be no widow.

9. Where the descendants, or next of kin of the deceased entitled to share in his estate, shall be all in equal degree to the deceased, their shares shall be equal.

10. When such descendants, or next of kin, are of unequal degrees of kindred, the surplus shall be apportioned among those entitled thereto, according to their respective stocks ; so that those who take in their own right shall receive equal shares, and those who take by representation shall receive the shares to which the parent whom they represent, if living, would have been entitled.

11. No representation shall be admitted among collaterals after brothers' and sisters' children.

12. Relatives of the half blood shall take equally with those of the whole blood in the same degree ; and the representatives of such relatives shall take in the same manner as the representatives of the whole blood.

13. Descendants and next of kin of the deceased, begotten before his death, but born thereafter, shall take in the same manner as if they had been born in the lifetime of the deceased, and had survived him.

The above provisions apply to the personal estates of married women who die intestate, leaving descendants ; and the husband of any deceased married woman may demand, recover, and enjoy the same distributive share in her personal estate that she, if a widow, would be entitled to in his personal estate, but no more.

The *real* property of every person dying intestate shall descend as follows :

1. To his lineal descendants.
2. To his father.
3. To his mother.
4. To his collateral relatives.

In case the inheritance comes to the intestate on the part of the mother, the father does not take if the mother be living ; and in such a case, if she be dead, the father only takes a life interest, unless all the brothers and sisters of the deceased, and their descendants, be dead, or unless the deceased had no brothers or sisters, in which cases the father is entitled to take the fee.

In case there is no father or mother, and the inheritance came to the deceased on the part of the mother, it will descend to the collateral relatives of the mother in preference to those of the father.

In case the inheritance came to the deceased on the part of neither father nor mother, it will descend to the collateral relatives of both in equal shares.

Relatives of the half blood inherit equally with those of the whole blood in the same degree.

The descendants and relatives of the intestate, begotten before his death, but born thereafter, inherit in the same manner as if they had been born in the lifetime of the intestate.

The mother of an illegitimate child, dying without any descendants, takes the inheritance.

Besides the provisions in favor of the widow and the minor children from the personal estate of her husband, it is provided that she may tarry in the house of her husband forty days after his death, whether her dower be sooner assigned or not, without being liable to rent for the same, and meantime she shall have her reasonable sustenance off the estate of her husband. This sustenance shall be provided out of the personal property of her husband, and through the executor or administrator, should one be appointed prior to the expiration of the forty days, and shall be given according to the circumstances and station in life of the family, to the widow and children dependent on her. In providing this sustenance, the executor or administrator must exercise judgment and discretion, as he should in paying funeral expenses.

Interest and Usury.

Interest is a *moderate* profit for the use of money. In the different States the rate of interest is established by statute. In New York State six per cent. is the legal rate of interest. Any excess over this, whether received directly or indirectly, will render the contract void, and is a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not exceeding $1,000, or by imprisonment not exceeding six months, or both. An excess of interest above the legal rate may be recovered by an action at law, if brought in one year from the time of payment.

Corporations cannot set up the defence of usury.

In case promissory notes and bills of exchange do not specify the payment of interest, interest is not allowable until maturity. But from the moment they fall due, they bear interest, whether it be so specified or not.

As a rule, compound interest is not allowable, but a contract is not usurious or void because of a stipulation for the payment of compound interest. The courts, however, will not enforce its payment, when the agreement is made before any interest has accrued. If a debt already due has an accumulation of interest not paid, the parties may agree to have the principal and interest added together, and draw interest.

Interest is not allowable upon unliquidated demands for board and lodging, where price or time of payment is not agreed upon between the parties.

A lender, whether banker or broker, can charge a reasonable amount for his services in addition to the interest, without being liable for usury.

Interest in *advance* is allowed under certain limitations.

Landlord and Tenant.

Leases for one year or less need no written agreement. Leases for more than a year must be in writing; if for life, signed, sealed, and witnessed in the same manner as any other important document.

Leases for over three years must be recorded. No particular form is necessary.

If no agreement in writing for more than a year can be produced, the tenant holds the property from year to year at the will of the landlord. If there is no agreement as to time, the tenant as a rule holds from year to year.

In the City of New York, when the duration of the occupation is not specified, the agreement shall be held valid until the first day of the May following the occupation under such agreement.

A tenancy at will may be terminated by giving the tenant one month's notice in writing, requiring him to remove from the premises occupied.

A landlord can no longer distress for rent in New York, nor has any lien on the goods and chattels of a tenant for rent due. Rent may be collected by action after the removal of the tenant.

A tenant is not responsible for taxes, unless it is so stated in the lease.

A lease falling into the hands of a party accidentally would be invalid, and must in all cases be delivered to the party for whom it is intended.

The tenant may underlet as much of the property as he desires, unless it is expressly forbidden in the lease. Tenants at will cannot underlet.

A lease made by a minor is not binding after the minor has attained his majority. It binds the lessee, however, unless the minor should release him. Should the minor receive rent after attaining his majority, the lease will be thereby ratified. A lease given by a guardian will not extend beyond the majority of the ward. A new lease renders void a former lease.

In case there are no writings, the tenancy begins from the day possession is taken; where there are writings and the time of commencement is not stated, the tenancy will be held to commence from the date of said writings.

If a landlord consents to receive a substitute, the former tenant is released.

Lien Laws.

Any one who, as contractor, sub-contractor, or laborer, performs any work, or furnishes any materials, in pursuance of, or in conformity with, any agreement or contract with the owner, lessee, agent, or one in possession of the property, toward the erection, altering, improving, or repairing of any building, shall have a lien for the value of such labor or materials on the building or land on which it stands, to the extent of the right, title and interest of the owner, lessee or person in possession at the time of the claimant's filing his notice with the clerk of the County Court.

This notice should be filed within thirty days after completion of the work, or the furnishing of the materials, and should state the residence of the claimant, the amount claimed, from whom due, when due, and to whom due, the name of the person against whom claimed, the name of the owner, lessee or person in possession of the premises, with a brief description of the latter.

Liens cease in one year after the filing of the notice, unless an action is begun, or the lien is continued by an order of Court.

The following classes of persons are generally entitled to lien:

1. Bailees, who may perform labor and services on the thing bailed, at the request of the bailor.

2. Innkeepers, upon the baggage of guests they have accommodated.

3. Common carriers, upon goods carried, for the amount of their freight and disbursements.

4. Venders, on the goods sold for payment of the price where no credit has been expressly promised or implied.

5. Agents, upon goods of their principals, for advancements for the benefit of the latter.

6. All persons are entitled to the right of lien who are compelled by law to receive property, and bestow labor or expense on the same.

The right of lien may be waived:

1. By express contract.
2. By neglect.
3. By new agreement.
4. By allowing change of possession.
5. By surrendering possession.

The manner of the enforcement of a lien, whether it be an innkeeper's, agent's, carrier's factor's, etc., depends wholly upon the nature and character of the lien.

Limitation of Action—When a Debt is Outlawed.

Actions upon judgments or decrees of a court, or a contract under seal, or for the recovery of real estate, must be commenced within a period of twenty years from the date when the cause of action accrued.

All actions upon unsealed contracts, express or implied, become outlawed in six years.

Claims for damages to property become outlawed in six years.

Claims for damages for injury to the person or rights of another are outlawed in six years, except in cases of personal injuries caused by negligence, when the claim is outlawed in three years.

All actions for libel, slander, assault, battery, false imprisonment, and for forfeitures or penalties to the people of the State, are outlawed in two years.

Claims for the specific recovery of personal property and on judgments of Courts not of record, are outlawed in six years.

In the case enforcing the payment of a bill, note, or other evidence of debt that may be issued by a moneyed corporation, or to enforce the payment of same issued or put in circulation as money, there is no limitation of time to sue.

An acknowledgment or new promise cannot take a contract or other liability out of the statute of outlawry, unless it be in writing.

A payment on account of principal or interest takes the case out of the statute, without being in writing.

Marriage and Divorce.

Marriage may be entered into by any two persons, with the following exceptions: Idiots, lunatics, persons of unsound mind, persons related by blood or affinity within certain degrees prohibited by law, infants under the age of consent, which is in New York State 14 for males and 12 for females, and all persons already married and not legally divorced.

Absolute divorce can be obtained in the State of New York for *adultery* alone.

Limited divorce is granted on the following grounds.

First—Idiocy or lunacy.

Second—Consent of either party having been obtained by force, duress, or fraud.

Third—Want of age or physical incapacity.

Fourth—The former husband or wife of either party being still living.

Fifth—Inhuman treatment, abandonment, neglect, or failure on the part of the husband to provide for the wife.

Sixth—Such conduct on the part of the defendant as would render it dangerous for the plaintiff to cohabit with the former.

Notes and Bills of Exchange.

Notes are, as a rule, entitled to three day's grace—that is, the note is not payable till the third day after the day expressed for its payment. Notes made payable "on demand" are not entitled to grace.

In the following cases there are no days of grace:

1. Bills of exchange or drafts, payable at sight at any place within this State, shall be deemed due and shall be payable on presentation, without the allowance of any days, grace.

2. Checks, bills of exchange or drafts appearing

on their face to have been drawn upon any bank, or banking association, or banker, carrying on banking business under the act to authorize the business of banking, which are on their face payable on any specified day, or in any number of days after the date or sight thereof, shall be deemed due and payable on the day mentioned for payment of same, without any days of grace being allowed; nor shall it be necessary to protest the same for non-acceptance.

When the last of the days of grace falls on Sunday, or any leading public holiday when general business is suspended, the presentment for payment must be made on the Saturday preceding the Sunday, or the day preceding the holiday. Drawers and endorsers should be notified not later than the following Monday, or the day after the holiday.

As a general rule, the note or bill must be presented for payment on the last of the days of grace, and the drawers and endorsers must be notified of non-payment not later than the following day.

Notes and bills, when made payable to or at any person's order and endorsed in blank, pass by delivery.

The words "value received," though ordinarily used, are not indispensable, as value is held to be implied.

Notes do not bear interest except when it is so stated. After maturity all notes bear legal interest.

The holder of a note that is made payable to order, may sue in his own name.

A promissory note given by a minor is void.

The indorser of an accommodation is a surety for the maker, and he is liable to the costs of collection that may be brought against such maker or indorser.

Any promise to pay, without specifying the time of payment, is equivalent to a promise to pay on demand.

Partnership.

The general rule is that every person of sound mind, and not otherwise restrained by law, may enter into a contract of partnership.

There are several kinds of partners, which may be classed as follows:

1. *Ostensible* partners, or those whose names are made public as partners, and who in reality are such, and who take all the benefits and risks.

2. *Nominal* partners, or those who appear before the public as partners, but who have no real interest in the business.

3. *Dormant*, or *silent* partners, or those whose names are not known or do not appear as partners, but who, nevertheless, have an interest in the business.

4. *Special* partners, or those who are interested in the business only to the amount of the capital they have invested in it.

5. *General* partners, who manage the business, while the capital, either in whole or in part, is supplied by a special partner or partners. They are liable for all the debts and contracts of the firm.

A nominal partner renders himself liable for all the debts and contracts of the firm.

A dormant partner, if it becomes known that he has an interest, whether creditors trusted the firm on his account or not, becomes liable equally with the other partners.

The partnership firm is responsible for any acts done by any partner, touching the partnership business.

The representation or misrepresentation of any fact made by any partner within the scope of the business, is binding on the firm.

A notice to or by any of the firm is deemed a notice to or by all of them.

Each partner is liable to third parties for the whole partnership debts.

The articles of partnership must in all cases be in writing.

It is not allowable to transact business in the name of a partner not interested in his firm, and the designation "and Company," or "& Co.", when used, must represent an actual partner or partners.

A violation of these provisions constitutes a misdemeanor, and is punishable by a fine not exceeding $1.000.

The following are the exceptions to this rule

1. Firms having business relations with foreign countries.

2. Firms that have transacted business in this State for five years or more.

In the above cases, a certificate of the change in the persons constituting the partnership, and declaring the persons thus dealing under the partnership name, shall be made and filed with the county clerk, and published for four consecutive weeks in a news-

paper of the town which shall be the principal place of business of such firm.

Should a firm fail to comply with these provisions, the law would refuse to lend its aid to such a firm in enforcing its contracts.

Property Exempt from Attachment on Execution.

The different States have different laws relative to the property exempted by statute from attachment and execution.

In the State of New York the following *personal* property is exempt :

First.—All spinning-wheels, weaving-looms, and stoves put up or kept for family use in any dwelling-house, and one sewing-machine with appurtenances.

Second.—The family bible, family pictures, and school-books used by or in the family, and books—not exceeding fifty dollars in value—part of the family library.

Third.—A pew or seat in church, used by the debtor or his family.

Fourth.—Ten sheep, with their fleeces, and the yarn or cloth manufactured therefrom, together with one cow and two swine, and the necessary food for them.

Fifth.—All pork, beef, fish, flour, and vegetables provided for family use ; and fuel, oil and candles necessary for family for sixty days.

Sixth.—All necessary wearing apparel, beds, bedsteads, and bedding for debtor and family ; all arms and accoutrements required by law ; all necessary cooking utensils ; one table, six chairs, six knives and forks, six plates, six tea-cups and saucers, one sugar-dish, one milk-pot, one tea-pot, six spoons, one crane with appendages, one pair of andirons, one shovel and tongs, and all the tools and implements of a mechanic necessary to carry on his trade, to the value of twenty-five dollars.

In addition to the above, when owned by a householder or anybody having a family for which he provides, the following exemptions are made. All necessary household furniture, working tools, professional instruments, furniture, and library ; a team not worth over $250, and the food necessary for such team for ninety days, except on executions for purchase-money for such, or for wages of a domestic in the family, in which case the debtor is not entitled to the benefit of the exemptions ; lastly, land not over a quarter of an acre set apart for burial-place and the vault thereon.

The following *real* property is exempted :

The lot and building thereon to the value of one thousand dollars, owned and occupied as a residence by the debtor. This exemption continues after the death of the judgment-debtor for the benefit of his widow and family, until the youngest child becomes of age, and until the death of the widow, on condition that one or more of the family occupy the premises.

To be valid, the release of the exemption must be in writing, subscribed by the householder, and acknowledged in the same way as a conveyance of real estate. No property is exempted from sale for the non-payment of taxes, assessments, or a debt contracted for the purchase-money of the property, or contracted previous to the recording of the deed as required by law.

If the sheriff holding the execution thinks the property worth more than one thousand dollars, he must summon six qualified jurors of his county, and have the premises appraised and sold accordingly within sixty days, unless the debtor pays meantime the surplus over and above one thousand dollars. In case the premises are sold, the debtor receives one thousand dollars, the surplus going to the liquidation of the debt.

Rights of Married Women.

Any and all property which a woman owns at her marriage, together with the rents, issues, and profits thereof, and the property that comes to her by descent, devise, bequest, gift, or grant, or which she acquires by her trade, business, labor, or services performed on her separate account, shall, notwithstanding her marriage, remain her sole and separate property, and may be used, collected, and invested by her in her own name, and shall not be subject to the interference or control of her husband, or be liable for his debts, unless for such debts as may have been contracted for the support of herself or children by her as his agent.

A married woman may likewise bargain, sell, assign, transfer, and convey such property, and

enter into contracts regarding the same on her separate trade, labor, or business with the like effect as if she were unmarried. Her husband, however, is not liable for such contracts, and they do not render him or his property in any way liable therefor. She may also sue and be sued in all matters having relation to her sole and separate property in the same manner as if she were sole.

In the following cases a married woman's contract may be enforced against her and her separate estate:

1. When the contract is created in or respecting the carrying on of the trade or business of the wife.

2. When it relates to or is made for the benefit of her sole or separate estate.

3. When the intention to charge the separate estate is expressed in the contract creating the liability.

When a husband receives a principal sum of money belonging to his wife, the law presumes he receives it for her use, and he must account for it, or expend it on her account by her authority or direction, or that she gave it to him as a gift.

If he receives interest or income and spends it with her knowledge and without objection, a gift will be presumed from acquiescence.

Money received by a husband from his wife and expended by him, under her direction, on his land, in improving the home of the family, is a gift, and cannot be recovered by the wife, or reclaimed, or an account demanded.

An appropriation by a wife, herself, of her separate property to the use and benefit of her husband, in the absence of an agreement to repay, or any circumstances from which such an agreement can be inferred, will not create the relation of debtor and creditor, nor render the husband liable to account.

Though no words of gift be spoken, a gift by a wife to her husband may be shown by the very nature of the transaction, or appear from the attending circumstances.

A wife who causelessly deserts her husband is not entitled to the aid of a Court of Equity in getting possession of such chattels as she has contributed to the furnishing and adornment of her husband's house. Her legal title remains, and she could convey her interest to a third party by sale, and said party would have a good title, unless her husband should prove a gift.

Wife's property is not liable to a lien of a subcontractor for materials furnished to the husband for the erection of a building thereon, where it is not shown that the wife was notified of the intention to furnish the materials, or a settlement made with the contractor and given to the wife, her agent or trustee.

Wills.

All persons of sound mind and proper age may dispose of their property by last will and testament. In some States minors may bequeath personal property. The limitation for disposing of personal estate by will is eighteen years for males and sixteen years for females.

All wills must be made in writing and subscribed with the testator's full name, unless the person be prevented from so doing by the extremity of his last illness, when his name may be signed in his presence, and by his express direction.

A will requires at least two attesting witnesses.

The form of a will is not material provided it manifests, in a sufficiently clear manner, the intention of the testator. It may be put in any language he may choose.

A will may be revoked at any time by the testator.

The following are among the modes of revoking a will:

First. By subsequent instrument. A second will nullifies a former one, provided it contains words expressly revoking it, or that it makes a different and incompatible disposition of the property.

Second. By the destruction of the will.

Third. By marriage. Marriage, and the birth of a child after the execution of a will, is a presumptive revocation of such will, provided wife and child are left unprovided for.

The will of an unmarried woman is annulled by her marriage. She may make a deed of settlement of her estate, however, before marriage, empowering her to retain the right to make a will after marriage.

Children born after the execution of the will, and in the lifetime of the father, will inherit at the death of the testator in like manner as if he had died without making a will.

Fourth. By alteration of estate. Any alteration of the estate or interest of the testator in the property devised, implies a revocation of the will.

A sale of the devised property, or a valid agreement to sell it, is a legal revocation of such will.

A codicil, so far as it may be inconsistent with the will, works as a revocation.

A subsequent will, duly executed, revokes all former wills, though no words to that effect may be used.

Property cannot be devised to corporations, unless such corporations are expressly authorized to receive bequests by its charter.

A will should not be written by a legatee or devisee, nor should either of them, or an executor, or any one interested in the will be called upon to witness such will.

Aliens not authorized by law to hold property cannot receive bequests.

All debts and incumbrances must be settled before the bequests shall be distributed.

A codicil, that is an addition or supplement to a will, must be executed with the same formalities as the will itself. The witnesses may be the same or different ones. When there are several codicils, the later operate to revive and republish the earlier ones.

A Synopsis of the Rules of Practice in the United States Patent Office.

CORRESPONDENCE.

ALL business with the office should be transacted in writing.

All office letters must be sent in the name of the "Commissioner of Patents."

Express charges, freight, postage, and all other charges on matter sent to the patent office must be prepaid in full; otherwise it will not be received.

The personal attendance of applicants at the patent office is unnecessary.

When a letter concerns an application, it should state the name of the applicant, the title of the invention, the serial number of the application, and the date of filing the same.

When the letter concerns a patent, it should state the name of the patentee, the title of the invention, and the number and date of the patent.

Letters received at the office will be answered, and orders for printed copies filled, without unnecessary delay. Telegrams, if not received before 3 o'clock p.m., cannot ordinarily be answered until the following day.

ATTORNEYS.

Any person of intelligence and good moral character may appear as the agent or the attorney in fact of an applicant, upon filing a proper power of attorney.

Before any attorney, original or associate, will be allowed to inspect papers or take action of any kind his power of attorney must be filed.

APPLICANTS.

A patent may be obtained by any person who has invented or discovered any new and useful art, machine, manufacture, or composition of matter, or any new and useful improvement thereof, not known or used by others in this country, and not patented or described in any printed publication in this or any foreign country, before his invention or discovery thereof, and not in public use or on sale for more than two years prior to his application, unless the same is proved to have been abandoned; and by any person who, by his own industry, genius, efforts, and expense, has invented and produced any new and original design for a manufacture, bust, statute, alto-relievo, or bas-relief, any new and original design for the printing of woolen, silk, cotton, or other fabrics; any new and original impression, ornament, pattern, print, or picture to be printed, painted, cast, or otherwise placed on or worked into any article of manufacture; or any new, useful, and original shape or configuration of any article of manufacture, the same not having been known or used by others before his invention or production thereof, nor patented or described in any printed publication, upon payment of the fees required by law and other due proceedings had.

In case of the death of the inventor, the application may be made by, and the patent will issue to, his executor or administrator. In such case the oath will be made by the executor or administrator.

In case of an assignment of the whole interest in the invention, or of the whole interest in the patent to be granted, the patent will, upon request of the

applicant or assignee, issue to the assignee ; and if the assignee hold an undivided part interest, the patent will, upon like request, issue jointly to the inventor and the assignee ; but the assignment in either case must first have been entered of record, and at a day not later than the date of the payment of the final fee. The application and oath must be made by the actual inventor, if alive, even if the patent is to issue to an assignee. If the inventor be dead it may be made by the executor or administrator, or by the assignee of the entire interest.

THE APPLICATION.

Applications for letters patent of the United States must be made to the Commissioner of Patents. A complete application comprises the petition, specification, oath, and drawings, and the model or specimen when required.

No application for a patent will be placed upon the files for examination until all its parts, except the model or specimen, are received.

THE SPECIFICATION.

The specification is a written description of the invention or discovery, and of the manner and process of making, constructing, compounding, and using the same, and is required to be in such full, clear, concise, and exact terms as to enable any person skilled in the art or science to which it appertains, or with which it is most nearly connected, to make, construct, compound, and use the same. It must conclude with a specific and distinct claim or claims of the part, improvement, or combination which the applicant regards as his invention or discovery.

The following order of arrangement should be observed, when convenient, in framing the specification, such portions as refer to drawings being omitted when the invention does not admit of representation by drawings.

(1.) Preamble giving the name and residence of the applicant, and the title of the invention ;

(2.) General statement of the object and nature of the invention ;

(3.) Brief description of the drawings, showing what each view represents ;

(4.) Detailed description, explaining fully the alleged invention, and the manner of constructing, practicing, operating, and using it ;

(5.) Claim, or claims.

(6.) Signature of inventor.

(7.) Signatures of two witnesses.

In every original application the applicant must distinctly state, under oath, whether the invention has been patented to himself or to others with his consent or knowledge in any country.

THE OATH.

The applicant, if the inventor, must make oath or affirmation that he does verily believe himself to be the original and first inventor or discoverer of the art, machine, manufacture, composition, or improvement for which he solicits a patent, and that he does not know and does not believe that the same was ever before known or used ; and shall state of what country he is a citizen, and where he resides.

If the application be made by an executor or administrator, the form of the oath will be correspondingly changed.

THE DRAWINGS.

The applicant for a patent is required by law to furnish a drawing of his invention, where the nature of the case admits of it.

(1.) Drawings must be made upon pure white paper of a thickness corresponding to three-sheet Bristol board. The surface of the paper must be calendered and smooth. India ink alone must be used, to secure perfectly black and solid lines.

(2.) The size of a sheet on which a drawing is made must be exactly 10 by 15 inches. One inch from its edges a single marginal line is to be drawn, leaving the "sight" precisely 8 by 13 inches. Within this margin all work and signatures must be included.

(3.) All drawings must be made with the pen only.

(4.) Drawings should be made with the fewest lines possible consistent with clearness.

(5.) Letters and figures of reference must be carefully formed. They must never appear upon shaded surfaces, and, when it is difficult to avoid this, a blank space must be left in the shading where the letter occurs, so that it shall appear perfectly distinct and separate from the work. If the same part of an invention appear in more than one view of the drawing it must always be repre-

sented by the same character, and the same character must never be used to designate different parts.

(6.) The signature of the inventor is to be placed at the lower right-hand corner of the sheet, and the signatures of the witnesses at the lower left-hand corner, all within the marginal line.

(7.) Drawings should be rolled for transmission to the office, not folded.

Applicants are advised to employ competent artists to make their drawings. The office will furnish the drawings at cost, as promptly as its draughtsmen can make them, for applicants who cannot otherwise conveniently procure them.

THE MODEL.

The model must clearly exhibit every feature of the machine which forms the subject of a claim of invention, but should not include other matter than that covered by the actual invention or improvement, unless it is necessary to the exhibition of the invention in a working model.

A working model is often desirable, in order to enable the office fully and readily to understand the precise operation of the machine.

THE EXAMINATION.

All cases in the patent office are classified and taken up for examination in regular order, those in the same class being examined and disposed of, as far as practicable, in the order in which the respective applications are completed.

AMENDMENTS AND ACTIONS BY APPLICANTS.

The applicant has a right to amend before or after the first rejection; and he may amend as often as the examiner presents any new references or reasons for rejection.

When an original or reissue application is rejected on reference to an expired or unexpired domestic patent, which substantially shows or describes but does not claim the rejected invention, or to a foreign patent, or to a printed publication, and the applicant shall make oath to facts showing a completion of the invention before the filing of the application for the domestic patent, or before the date of the foreign patent, or before the date at which the printed publication was made, and shall also make oath that he does not know and does not believe that the invention has been in public use or on sale in this country for more than two years prior to his application, and that he has never abandoned the invention, then the patent or publication cited will not bar the grant of a patent to the applicant, *except upon interference.*

When an application is rejected on reference to an expired or unexpired domestic patent which shows or describes, but does not claim, the rejected invention, or to a foreign patent, or to a printed publication, or to facts within the personal knowledge of an employé of the office, set forth in an affidavit of such employé, or on the ground of public use or sale, or upon a mode or capability of operation attributed to a reference, or because the alleged invention is held to be inoperative, or frivolous, or injurious to public health or morals, affidavits or depositions supporting or traversing these references or objections may be received; but they will be received in no other cases, without special permission of the Commissioner.

If an applicant neglect to prosecute his application for two years after the date when the last official notice of any action by the office was mailed to him, the application will be held to be abandoned.

DESIGNS.

Patents for designs are granted for the term of three and one-half years, or for seven years, or for fourteen years, as the applicant may, in his application, elect.

When the design can be sufficiently represented by drawings or photographs; a model will not be required.

Whenever a photograph or an engraving is employed to illustrate the design it must be mounted upon Bristol-board, 10 by 15 inches in size, and properly signed and witnessed. The applicant will be required to furnish ten extra copies of such photograph or engraving (not mounted), of a size not exceeding 7½ inches by 11.

REISSUES.

A reissue is granted to the original patentee, his legal representatives, or the assignees of the entire interest, when, by reason of a defective or insufficient specification, or by reason of the patentee claim-

ing as his invention or discovery more than he had a right to claim as new, the original patent is inoperative or invalid, provided the error has arisen from inadvertence, accident, or mistake, and without any fraudulent or deceptive intention.

INTERFERENCES.

An interference is a proceeding instituted for the purpose of determining the question of priority of invention between two or more parties claiming substantially the same patentable invention. The fact that one of the parties has already obtained a patent will not prevent an interference; for, although the Commissioner has no power to cancel a patent, he may grant a patent for the same invention to another person who proves to be the prior inventor.

Interferences will be declared in certain cases, when all the parties claim substantially the same patentable invention.

APPEALS.

Every applicant for a patent or the reissue of a patent, any of the claims of whose application have been twice rejected upon grounds involving the merits of the invention, such as lack of novelty or utility, abandonment, public use, or want of identity of invention, either in amended or in reissue applications, may appeal from the decision of the primary examiner to the board of examiners-in chief, having once paid a fee of ten dollars. The appeal must be made in writing, signed by the party, or his duly authorized agent or attorney, setting forth the points of the decision upon which the appeal is taken and duly filed.

HEARINGS AND INTERVIEWS.

Hearings will be had by the Commissioner at 10 o'clock a.m., and by the board of examiners-in-chief and the examiner of interferences at 1 o'clock p.m., on the day appointed, unless some other hour be specially designated.

DATE, DURATION, AND FORM OF PATENTS.

Every patent will bear date as of a day not later than six months from the time at which the application was passed and allowed and notice thereof was mailed to the applicant or his agent, if within that period the final fee be paid to the Commissioner of Patents, or if it be paid to the treasurer, or any of the assistant treasurers or designated depositaries of the United States, and the certificate promptly forwarded to the Commissioner of Patents; and if the final fee be not paid within that period, the patent will be withheld.

A patent will not be antedated.

Every patent will contain a short title of the invention or discovery, indicating its nature and object, and a grant to the patentee, his heirs and assigns, for the term of seventeen years, of the exclusive right to make, use, and vend the invention or discovery throughout the United States and Territories thereof.

EXTENSIONS.

No patent granted since March 2, 1861, can be extended, except by act of Congress.

CAVEATS.

A caveat, under the patent law, is a notice given to the office of the caveator's claim as inventor, in order to prevent the grant of a patent to another for the same alleged invention upon an application filed during the life of the caveat without notice to the caveator.

Any citizen of the United States who has made a new invention or discovery and desires further time to mature the same, may, on payment of a fee of ten dollars, file in the patent office a caveat setting forth the object and the distinguishing characteristics of the invention, and praying protection of his right until he shall have matured his invention. Such caveat shall be filed in the confidential archives of the office and preserved in secrecy, and shall be operative for the term of one year from the filing thereof.

ASSIGNMENTS.

Every patent or any interest therein shall be assignable in law by an instrument in writing; and the patentee or his assigns or legal representatives may, in like manner, grant and convey an exclusive right under his patent to the whole or any specified part of the United States.

OFFICE FEES.

Nearly all the fees payable to the patent office are positively required by law to be paid in advance—

that is, upon making application for any action by the office for which a fee is payable. For the sake of uniformity and convenience, the remaining fees will be required to be paid in the same manner.

The following is the schedule of fees :—

On filing every application for a design patent	$10 00
On issuing a design patent for three years and six months no further charge.	
On issuing a design patent for seven years.	5 00
On issuing a design patent for fourteen years	20 00
On filing every caveat	10 00
On filing every application for a patent for an invention or discovery	15 00
On issuing each original patent for an invention or discovery	20 00
On filing a disclaimer	10 00
On filing every application for a reissue	30 00
On filing every application for a division of a reissue	30 00
On filing every application for an extension.	50 00
On the grant of every extension	50 00
On filing an appeal from a primary examiner to the examiners-in-chief	10 00
On filing an appeal to the Commissioner from the examiners-in-chief	20 00
For certified copies of patents or other instruments, except copies of printed patents sold by the office, for every 100 words	10
For certified copies of printed patents sold by the office, 10 cents for every 100 words, less the price actually paid for such copies without certification.	
For certified copies of drawings, the reasonable cost of making them.	
For recording an assignment of 300 words or less	1 00
For recording an assignment of more than 300 and not more than 1,000 words	2 00
For recording every assignment of more than 1,000 words	3 00
For uncertified copies of the specifications and accompanying drawings of all patents which are in print :—	
Single copies	25
Twenty copies or more, whether of one or several patents, per copy	10
For uncertified copies of the specifications and drawings of patents not in print, the reasonable cost of making the same.	
For copies of matter in any foreign language, per 100 words	$0 20
For translations, per 100 words	50
For assistance to attorneys in examination of records, one hour or less	50
Each additional hour	50
For assistance to attorneys in examination of patents and other works in the Scientific Library, one hour or less	1 00
Each additional hour	1 00

No person will be allowed to make copies or tracings from the files or records of the office. Such copies will be furnished, when ordered, at the rates already specified.

The money required for office fees may be paid to the Commissioner, or to the treasurer, or any of the assistant treasurers of the United States, or to any of the designated depositaries, national banks, or receivers of public money, designated by the secretary of the treasury for that purpose, who shall give the depositor a receipt or certificate of deposit therefor, which shall be transmitted to the patent office. When this cannot be done without much inconvenience, the money may be remitted by mail, and in every such case the letter should state the exact amount inclosed. Letters containing money may be registered. Post-office money-orders now afford a safe and convenient mode of transmitting fees. All such orders should be made payable to the "Commissioner of Patents."

All money sent by mail, either to or from the patent office, will be at the risk of the sender.

REPAYMENT OF MONEY.

Money paid by actual mistake, such as a payment in excess, or when not required by law, or by neglect or misinformation on the part of the office, will be refunded.

PUBLICATIONS.

The "Official Gazette," a weekly publication which has been issued since 1872, takes the place of the old "Patent-Office Report." It contains the claims of all patents issued, including reissues, with portions of the drawings selected to illustrate the claims, and also lists of design patents, together with decisions of the courts and of the Commissioner, and other special matters of interest to inventors.



GENERAL FORM OF AGREEMENT.

THIS AGREEMENT, made the *first* day of *May*, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, between JOHN DOE, of the *city* of *Hartford*, in the county of *Hartford*, and State of *Connecticut*, of the first part, and RICHARD ROE, of the *village* of *Windsor*, in *said county and State*, of the second part—

WITNESSETH, that the said JOHN DOE, in consideration of the covenants on the part of the party of the second part, hereinafter contained, doth covenant and agree to and with the said RICHARD ROE, that [*here insert the agreement on the part of John Doe*]

And the said RICHARD ROE, in consideration of the covenants on the part of the party of the first part, doth covenant and agree to and with the said JOHN DOE, that [*here insert the agreement on the part of Richard Roe*].

In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

Sealed and delivered, in presence of JOHN SMITH, THOS. BROWN. } JOHN DOE. [L.S.] RICHARD ROE. [L.S.]

[*When required this clause may be inserted:*]

And it is further agreed, between the parties hereto, that the party that shall fail to perform this agreement on his part, will pay to the other the full sum of *fifty* dollars, as liquidated, fixed, and settled damages.

AGREEMENT FOR THE PURCHASE OF A HOUSE AND LOT.

MEMORANDUM of an agreement made this 15th day of November, in the year 1882, between JOHN SMITH, Jeweler, of the city of New York, and HENRY BROWN, Merchant, of the same city, *witnesseth*—That the said JOHN SMITH agrees to sell, and the said HENRY BROWN agrees to purchase, for the price or consideration of —— dollars, the house and lot known and distinguished as number ninety-nine, in —— street, in the said city of New York. The possession of the property is to be delivered on the first day of May next, when twenty-five per cent. of the purchase-money is to be paid in cash, and a bond and mortgage on the premises, bearing seven per cent. interest, payable in five years (such interest payable quarterly), is to be executed for the balance of the purchase-money, at which time also a deed of conveyance in fee simple, containing the usual full covenants and warranty is to be delivered, executed by the said JOHN SMITH and wife, and the title made satisfactory to the said HENRY BROWN; it being understood that this agreement shall be binding upon the heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns of the respective parties; and also that the said premises are now insured for —— dollars, and, in case the said house should be burnt before the said first day of May next, that the said JOHN SMITH shall hold the said insurance in trust, and will then transfer the same to said HENRY BROWN with the said deed.

In Witness, &c. [*as in General Form*].

AGREEMENT FOR THE SALE OF REAL ESTATE.

ARTICLES of agreement made and entered into this —— day of—— between A. B. of ——, of the one part, and C. D. of ——, of the other part, as follows: The said A. B doth hereby agree with the said C. D. to sell him the lot of ground [here describe it], for the sum of —— ; and that he, the said A B., shall and will, on the —— day of —— next, on receiving from the said C. D. the said sum, at his own cost and expense, execute a proper conveyance for the conveying and assuring the fee simple of the said premises to the said C. D., free from all encumbrances, which conveyance shall contain a general warranty and the usual full covenants. And the said C. D. agrees with the said A. B that he, the said C. D., shall and will, on the said —— day of —— next, and on execution of such conveyance, pay unto the said A. B. the sum of —— aforesaid. And it is further agreed between the parties aforesaid, as follows: The said A. B. shall have and retain the possession of the property, and receive and be entitled to the rents and profits thereof, until the said —— day of —— next; when, and upon delivery of the conveyance, the possession is to be delivered to the said C. D. And it is understood that the stipulations aforesaid are to apply to and to bind the heirs, executors, and administrators of the respective parties. And in case of failure, the parties bind themselves each unto the other in the sum of ——, which they hereby consent to fix and liquidate the amount of damages to be paid by the failing party for his non-performance.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form*].

AGREEMENT FOR BUILDING A HOUSE.

MEMORANDUM.—That on this ——- day of ——, it is agreed between A. B. —— and C. D , of ——, in manner following, viz. : the said C. D., for the considerations hereinafter mentioned, doth for himself, his heirs, executors, and administrators, covenant with the said A. B , his executors, administrators, and assigns, that he the said C. D. or his assigns shall and will, within the space of —— next after the date hereof, in a good and workmanlike manner, and at his own proper charge and expense, at ——, well and substantially erect, build, and finish, one house, or messuage, according to the draught, scheme, and explanation hereunto annexed, with such stone, brick, timber, and other materials, as the said A. B. or his assigns shall find and provide for the same In consideration whereof, the said A. B. doth for himself, his executors, and administrators, covenant with the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, well and truly to pay unto the said C D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, the sum of —— of lawful money of —— in manner following, viz. : —— part

thereof at the beginning of the said work; —— another part thereof when the said work shall be half done; and the remaining —— in full for the said work, when the same shall be completely finished: And also that he, the said A. B., his executors, administrators, or assigns, shall and will from time to time, as the same shall be required, at his and their own proper expense, find and provide stone, brick, timber, and other materials necessary for making, building, and finishing the said house. And for the performance of all and every the articles and agreements above mentioned, the said A. B. and C. D. do hereby bind themselves, their executors, administrators, and assigns, each to the other, in the penal sum of —— firmly by these presents.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form*].

AGREEMENT TO BE SIGNED BY AN AUCTIONEER, AFTER A SALE OF LAND AT AUCTION.

I HEREBY acknowledge that A. B. has been this day declared by me the highest bidder and purchaser of [*describe the land*], at the sum of —— dollars [*or*, at the sum of —— dollars —— cents per acre or foot], and that he has paid into my hands the sum of ——, as a deposit, and in part payment of the purchase money; and I hereby agree that the vender, C. D., shall in all respects fulfill the conditions of sale hereunto annexed. Witness my hand, at ——, on the —— day of ——, A. D. 1860.

J. S., *Auctioneer*.

ARTICLES OF COPARTNERSHIP.

ARTICLES of copartnership made and concluded this —— day of ——, in the year one thousand eight hundred and sixty, by and between A. B., bookseller, of the first part, and C. D., bookseller of the second part, both of ——, in the county of ——.

Whereas, it is the intention of the said parties to form a copartnership, for the purpose of carrying on the retail business of booksellers and stationers, for which purpose they have agreed on the following terms and articles of agreement, to the faithful performance of which they mutually bind and engage themselves each to the other, his executors and administrators.

First. The style of the said copartnership shall be "—— and company;" and it shall continue for the term of —— years from the above date, except in case of the death of either of the said parties within the said term.

Second. The said A. B. and C. D. are the proprietors of the stock, a schedule of which is contained in their stock book, in the proportion of two thirds to the said A. B., and of one third to the said C. D.; and the said parties shall continue to be owners of their joint stock in the same proportions: and in case of any addition being made to the same by mutual consent, the said A. B. shall advance two thirds, and the said C. D. one third of the cost thereof.

Third. All profits which may accrue to the said partnership shall be divided, and all losses happening to the said firm, whether from bad debts, depreciation of goods, or any other cause or accident, and all expenses of the business, shall be borne by the said parties in the aforesaid proportions of their interest in the said stock.

Fourth. The said C. D. shall devote and give all his time and attention to the business of the said firm as a salesman, and generally to the care and superintendence of the store; and the said A. B. shall devote so much of his time as may be requisite, in advising, overseeing, and directing the importation of books and other articles necessary to the said business.

Fifth. All the purchases, sales, transactions, and accounts of the said firm shall be kept in regular books, which shall be always open to the inspection of both parties and their legal representatives respectively. An account of stock shall be taken, and an account between the said parties shall be settled, as often as once in every year, and as much oftener as either partner may desire and in writing request.

Sixth. Neither of the said parties shall subscribe any bond, sign or endorse any note of hand, accept, sign, or endorse any draft or bill of exchange, or assume any other liability, verbal or written, either in his own name or in the name of the firm, for the accommodation of any other person or persons whatsoever, without the consent in writing of the other party; nor shall either party lend any of the funds of the copartnership without such consent of the other partner.

Seventh. No importation, or large purchase of books or other things, shall be made, nor any transaction out of the usual course of the retail business shall be undertaken by either of the partners, without previous consultation with, and the approbation of, the other partner.

Eighth. Neither party shall withdraw from the joint stock, at any time, more than his share of the profits of the business then earned, nor shall either party be entitled to interest on his share of the capital; but if, at the expiration of the year, a balance of profits be found due to either partner, he shall be at liberty to withdraw the said balance, or to leave it in the business, provided the other partner consent thereto, and in that case he shall be allowed interest on the said balance.

Ninth. At the expiration of the aforesaid term, or earlier dissolution of this copartnership, if the said parties or their legal representatives cannot agree in the division of the stock then on hand, the whole copartnership effects, except the debts due to the firm, shall be sold at public auction, at which both parties shall be at liberty to bid and purchase like other individuals, and the proceeds shall be divided, after payment of the debts of the firm, in the proportions aforesaid.

Tenth. For the purpose of securing the performance of the foregoing agreements, it is agreed that either party, in case of any violation of them or either of them by the other, shall have the right to dissolve this copartnership forthwith, on his becoming informed of such violation.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form*].

AGREEMENT TO CONTINUE THE PARTNERSHIP; TO BE ENDORSED ON THE BACK OF THE ORIGINAL ARTICLES.

WHEREAS, the partnership evidenced by the within-written articles has this day expired by the limitations contained therein [*or*, will expire on the —— day of —— next], it is hereby agreed, that the same shall be continued on the same terms, and with all the provisions and restrictions therein contained, for the further term of —— years from this date [*or* from the —— day of —— next].

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form*].

DEED WITHOUT COVENANTS.

THIS indenture, made the —— day of ——, in the year of our Lord one thousand ——, between A. B., of, &c., of the first part, and C. D., of, &c., of the second part, Witnesseth: That the said party of the first part, for and in consideration of the sum of fifty dollars, to him in hand paid, by the said party of the second part, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged: hath bargained and sold, and by these presents doth bargain and sell, unto the said party of the second part, and to his heirs and assigns forever, all, &c. [*Here describe the property.*] Together with all and singular, the hereditaments and appurtenances thereunto belonging, or in any wise appertaining, and the reversion and reversions, remainder and remainders, rents, issues, and profits thereof; and also all the estate, right, title, interest, claim, or demand, whatsoever of him the said party of the first part, either in law or equity, of, in, and to, the above bargained premises, and every part and parcel thereof: To have and to hold to the said party of the second part, his heirs, and assigns, to the sole and only proper use, benefit, and behoof, of the said party of the second part, his heirs and assigns, forever.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

Sealed and delivered in presence of JOHN SMITH, FRANK ROBINSON. } A. B. [L. S.] C. D. [L. S.]

CONVEYANCES OF LANDS ON SALE BY MORTGAGE

THIS indenture, made the —— day of ——, in the year —— between A. B., of, &c., of the one part, and C. D., of, &c., of the other part. Whereas, E. F., of, &c., did, by a certain indenture of mortgage dated the —— day of ——, in the year ——, for the consideration of ——, bargain and sell unto the said A. B., and to his heirs and assigns forever, all that certain, &c.; together with all and singular the hereditaments and appurtenances thereunto belonging: To have and to hold the said granted and bargained premises, with the appurtenances, unto the said A. B., his heirs and assigns, to the only proper use and behoof of the said A. B., his heirs and assigns forever; provided, nevertheless, and the said indenture of mortgage was thereby declared to be upon condition, that if the said E. F., his heirs, executors, or administrators, should well and truly pay unto the said A. B., his

executors, administrators, or assigns, the just and full sum of ——, with lawful interest for the same, on or before the —— day of ——, in the year ——, according to the condition of a certain bond or writing, obligatory, bearing even date with the said indenture of mortgage, that then, and in such case, the said indenture, and the said writing obligatory, should be void and of no effect: and the said E F. did, by the said indenture, for himself, his heirs and assigns, agree with the said A. B., his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, that in case it should so happen, that the said sum of ——, and the interest for the same, should be due and unpaid at the time limited for the payment thereof, in the whole or in part thereof, that then it should and might be lawful for the said A. B., his heirs or assigns, at any time after default in payment, to bargain, sell, and dispose of the said mortgaged premises, with the appurtenances, at public vendue, and out of the moneys to arise from the sale thereof, to retain and keep the said sum of —— dollars, and the interest, or so much thereof as might be due, together with the costs and charges of such sale, or sales, rendering the overplus money, if any, to the said E. F., his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns: And, whereas the said E. F. did not pay to the said A. B. the said sum of money, with the interest, at the time limited for payment, or at any time since: and the said A. B. hath, therefore, in pursuance of the authority so given to him as aforesaid, and according to the statute in such case made and provided, caused the premises to be advertised and sold at public auction; and the same has been struck off to the said C. D., for ——, being the highest sum bid for the same.

Now, therefore, this indenture witnesseth, that the said A. B., in pursuance of the power and statute aforesaid, and also for and in consideration of the said sum of ——, to him in hand paid, by the said C. D., at and before the ensealing and delivery hereof, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, hath granted, bargained, aliened, released, and confirmed, and by these presents doth grant, bargain, sell, alien, release and confirm unto the said C. D., and to his heirs and assigns forever, all the farm, piece, or parcel of land above mentioned, together with the hereditaments and appurtenances, as the same is described and conveyed by said indenture of mortgage; and all the estate, right, title, interest, claim, and demand at law and in equity, of him the said A. B., and also of the said E. F., as far forth as the said A. B. hath power to grant and convey the same, of, in, and to the premises, and every part and parcel thereof: To have and to hold the said above granted and bargained premises, with the appurtenances, unto the said C. D., his heirs and assigns, to the sole and only proper use and behoof of the said C. D., his heirs and assigns, forever.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form of Agreement*].

DEED OF GIFT OF PERSONAL ESTATE.

Know all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of, &c., in consideration of the natural love and affection which I have and bear for my son, C. B., and also for divers other good causes and considerations, I, the said A. B., hereunto moving, have given, granted, and confirmed, and by these presents, do give, grant and confirm unto the said C. B., all and singular, my goods, chattels, leases, and personal estate whatsoever, in whose hands, custody, or possession soever they be: To have, hold, and enjoy, all and singular, the said goods, chattels, and personal estate, aforesaid, unto the said C. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, to the only proper use and behoof of the said C. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, forever. And I, the said A. B., all and singular the said goods, chattels, personal estate, and other the premises, to the said C. B., his executors administrators, and assigns, against me, the said A. B., my executors and administrators, and all and every other person and persons, whatsoever, shall and will warrant, and forever defend, by these presents: of all and singular which said goods, chattels, personal estate, and other premises, I, the said A. B., have put the said C. B. in full possession, by delivering to him one pewter dish, at the time of the sealing and delivery of these presents, in the name of the whole premises hereby granted.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form of Agreement*].

DEED OF GIFT BY A FATHER TO A SON OF HIS PERSONAL PROPERTY, ON CONDITIONS.

This indenture, made the, &c., between A. B., of, &c., of the one part, and C. B., of, &c., of the other part. Whereas, the said A. B., being the father of the said C. B., by reason of his age and infirmities, is not capable of attending to his estate and affairs as formerly, and has therefore agreed, for advancement of the said C. B., to make over his property to the said C B., so that the said C. B. should pay the debts of the said A. B., and afford him a maintenance as is hereinafter mentioned: Now this indenture *Witnesseth*, That the said A. B., in order to carry the said agreement into effect, and in consideration of the natural love and affection which he hath for and towards his son, the said C. B., and of the provisoes, covenants, and agreements, hereinafter mentioned, by the said C. B., to be observed and performed, hath given, granted, bargained, sold, and assigned, and by these presents doth give, grant, bargain, sell, and assign, unto the said C. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, all and singular his household goods and implements of household, stock in trade, debts, rights, credits, and personal estate, whereof he is now possessed, or any way interested in or entitled unto, of what nature or kind soever the same are, or wheresoever or in whosesoever hands they be or may be found, with their and every of their rights, members, and appurtenances: To have and to hold the said goods, household stuff, stock in trade, debts, rights, and personal estate, and the other the premises, unto the said C. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, forever, without rendering any account or being therefor in any wise accountable to the said A. B., his heirs, executors, or administrators, for the same.

And the said C. B., for himself, his heirs, executors, and administrators, doth covenant, promise, grant, and agree, to and with the said A. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, in manner and form following, that is to say: that he, the said C. B., his heirs, executors, and administrators, shall and will, settle, pay, discharge, and satisfy, or cause to be settled, paid, discharged, and satisfied, all accounts, debts, judgments, and demands, of every nature and kind whatsoever, now outstanding, against, or now due from or payable by the said A. B., or for the payment of which the said A. B. shall be liable, or be held liable either at law or equity, on account of any matter, cause, or thing heretofore had, suffered, done, or performed, and at all times hereafter, free, discharge, and keep harmless, and indemnified, the said A. B., his heirs, executors, administrators, from all and every such accounts, debts, judgments, and demands, and from all actions, suits, and damages, that may to him or them arise, by reason of the non-payment thereof; and moreover, that he, the said C. B., his heirs, executors, and administrators, shall and will yearly, and every year, during the term of the natural life of the said A. B., by four equal quarterly payments, the first to begin on the —— day of —— next, well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, to the said A. B., or his assigns, the sum of ——, for, or toward his support and maintenance, or find or provide for him sufficient meat, drink, washing, lodging, apparel, and attendance, suitable to his state and situation, at the choice and election, from time to time, of the said A. B.

Provided always, and upon this condition, and it is the true intent and meaning of these presents, that if the said C. B., his heirs, executors, and administrators, shall neglect or refuse to pay the said accounts, debts, judgments, and demands, according to his covenant aforesaid, or shall suffer the said A. B. to be put to any cost, charge, trouble, or expense, on account of the same, or shall neglect or refuse to pay the said annual sum, in manner aforesaid, or to find and provide for the said A. B., as aforesaid, that then, in all, any, or either of the cases aforesaid, it shall and may be lawful to and for the said A. B., all and singular, the premises hereby granted to take, repossess, and enjoy, as in his former estate.

In witness, &c. [*as in General Form of Agreement*].

MARRIAGE CERTIFICATE.

I, William Frazer, Minister of the Gospel and Rector of St. Paul's Protestant Episcopal Church at Leopardston, Orange County, and State of New York, do hereby certify, that, on the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, at the rectory of said church at Leopardston aforesaid, I joined together in Holy Matrimony, John Smith, of the City, County, and State of New York, and Julia Tompkins, of Fayville, in the State of New Jersey according to the forms and customs of said church to which I belong, in the presence of Joseph Nipp, of said City of New York, and George Rogers, of said Fayville, attesting witnesses thereto. I further certify, that

the said parties married by me as aforesaid, were personally known to me (or, if not, "were satisfactorily proved by the oath of Joseph Nipp, a person known to me") to be the persons described in this Certificate, and that before I solemnized such marriage as aforesaid, I ascertained that the said John Smith and Julia Tompkins were of sufficient age to contract marriage; and after due inquiry made by me at such time, there appeared no lawful impediment to such marriage.

WILLIAM FRAZER.

SAME BY A PUBLIC OFFICER.

This is to certify, that on the fourth day of August, 1882, I, John Jones, Mayor of the City of Brooklyn, joined together in marriage, at my office, in said City, Charles Jones, of Jamaica, Queen's County, and Mary Briggs, of the City of Chicago and State of Illinois, according to the law in such case made and provided, in the presence of James Burke, of the City of New York, and Charles Ambler, of Yonkers, Westchester County, New York, attesting witnesses thereto. I further certify (same as preceding form to end, altering names).

Given at my office, in said City of Brooklyn, the day and year above mentioned.

JOHN JONES, *Mayor*.

ARTICLE OF SEPARATION BETWEEN HUSBAND AND WIFE.

This Indenture of three parts, made the —— day of——, one thousand eight hundred and ——, betwen A. B., of the city of ——, of the first part, and C. D., his wife, of the second part, and E. F. trustee of the said C. D., of the third part: Whereas, divers disputes and unhappy differences have arisen between the said party of the first part, and his said wife, for which reason they have consented and agreed to live separate and apart from each other during their natural life; therefore, this Indenture *witnesseth*, That the said party of the first part, in consideration of the premises, and in pursuance thereof, doth hereby covenant, promise, and agree, to and with the said trustee, and also to and with his said wife, that it shall and may be lawful for her, his said wife, at all times hereafter, to live separate and apart from him; and that he shall and will allow and permit her to reside and be in such place and places, and in such family and families, and with such relations, friends, and other persons, and to follow and carry on such trade or business as she may from time to time choose, or think fit to do; and that he shall not, or will at any time sue, or suffer her to be sued, for living separate and apart from him, or compel her to live with him, or sue, molest, disturb, or trouble her for living separate and apart from him, or any other person whomsoever, for receiving, entertaining, or harboring her; and that he will not, without her consent, visit her, or knowingly enter any house or place where she shall dwell, reside, or be, or send, or cause to be sent, any letter or message to her; nor shall, or will, at any time hereafter, claim or demand any of her money, jewels, plate, clothing, household goods, furniture, or stock in trade, which she now hath in her power, custody or possession, or which she shall or may at any time hereafter have, buy, or procure, or which shall be devised or given to her, or that she may otherwise acquire; and that she shall and may enjoy and absolutely dispose of the same, as if she were a feme sole and unmarried; and further, that the said party of the first part shall and will well and truly pay, or cause to be paid unto her, his said wife, for and towards her better support and maintenance, the yearly sum of —— dollars, free and clear of all charges and deductions whatever, for, and during her natural life, at, or upon the first days of January, April, July, and October, in each and every year during her said natural life, which the said trustee doth hereby agree to take, in full satisfaction for her support and maintenance, and all alimony whatever. And the said trustee, in consideration of the sum of one dollar, to him duly paid, doth covenant and agree, to, and with the said party of the first part, to indemnify and bear him harmless of, and from all debts of his said wife, contracted, or that may hereafter be contracted by her, or on her account; and if the said party of the first part shall be compelled to pay any such debt or debts, the said trustee hereby agrees to repay the same on demand, to the said party of the first part, with all damage and loss that he may sustain thereby.

In witness, etc. [*as in Marriage Settlement*].

A WILL OF REAL ESTATE.

This last will and testament of A. C., &c. I, A. C., considering the uncertainty of this mortal life, and being of sound mind and memory (blessed be Almighty God for the same!), do make and publish this my last will and testament, in manner and form following (that is to say): First, I give and bequeath unto my beloved wife, J. C., the sum of ——. *Item*, I give and bequeath to my eldest son, G. C., the sum of ——. *Item*, I give and bequeath unto my two youngest sons, J. C. and F. C., the sum of —— each. *Item*, I give and bequeath to my daughter-in-law, S. H., widow, the sum of ——; which said several legacies or sums of money I will and order to be paid to the said respective legatees, within six months after my decease. I further give and devise to my said eldest son G. C., his heirs, and assigns, all that messuage or tenement, situated, lying, and being in, &c., together with all my other freehold estate whatsoever, to hold to him the said G. C., his heirs and assigns, forever. And I hereby give and bequeath to my said younger sons, J. C. and F. C., all my leasehold estate, of and in all those messuages or tenements, with the appurtenances, situate, &c., equally to be divided between them. And lastly, as to all the rest, residue, and remainder of my personal estate, goods, and chattels, of what kind and nature soever, I give and bequeath the same to my said beloved wife, J. C., whom I appoint sole executrix, of this my last will and testament, hereby revoking all former wills by me made.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, the —— day of ——, in the year of our Lord one thousand ——.

A. C. [L. S.]

The above instrument, consisting of one sheet (*or*, of two sheets), was now here subscribed by A. C., the testator, in the presence of each of us; and was at the same time declared by him to be his last will and testament; and we, at his request, sign our names hereto as attesting witnesses

D. F., residing at ——, in —— County.
G. H., residing at ——, in —— County.

[*Or, if the witnesses do not see the testator subscribe the will, it may be attested by his acknowledgment in the following form.*]

The above instrument of one sheet (*or*, of two sheets) was, at the date thereof, declared to us by the testator, A. C., to be his last will and testament; and he then acknowledged to each of us, that he had subscribed the same; and we, at his request, sign our names hereto as attesting witnesses.

D. F., residing at ——, in —— County.
G. H., residing at ——, in —— County.

CODICIL TO A WILL.

WHEREAS I, A. C., of, &c., have made my last will and testament in writing, bearing date, &c. [and have thereby, &c., &c.]. Now I do by this my writing, which I hereby declare to be a codicil to my said will, to be taken as a part thereof [will and direct, &c., &c.], give and bequeath to my niece M. S., one gold watch, one large diamond ring, and one silver coffee-pot. And whereas, in and by my last will and testament, I have given and bequeathed to my daughter-in-law G. H., the sum of ——, I do hereby order and declare, that my will is that only the sum of —— be paid unto her, in full of the said legacy I have as aforesaid given and bequeathed unto her; and that the remaining part of the said legacy, be given and paid to my nephew E. G. And lastly, it is my desire that this my present codicil be annexed to, and made a part of my last will and testament, to all intents and purposes.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this —— day of ——, &c.

A. C. [L. S.]

The above instrument of one sheet was, at the date thereof, declared to us by the testator, A. C., to be a codicil to be annexed to his last will and testament; and he acknowledged, to each of us, that he had subscribed the same; and we, at his request, sign our names hereto as attesting witnesses.

D. F., residing at ——, in —— County.
G. H., residing at ——, in —— County.

GENERAL FORM, DISPOSING OF BOTH REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE.

IN the name of God, Amen. I, A. B., of, &c, being in good bodily health, and of sound and disposing mind and memory, calling to mind the frailty and uncertainty of human life, and being desirous of settling

my worldly affairs, and directing how the estates with which it has pleased God to bless me, shall be disposed of after my decease, while I have strength and capacity so to do, do make and publish this my last will and testament, hereby revoking and making null and void all other last wills and testaments by me heretofore made. And, first, I commend my immortal being to Him who gave it, and my body to the earth, to be buried with little expense or ostentation, by my executors hereinafter named.

And as to my worldly estate, and all the property, real, personal, or mixed, of which I shall die seized and possessed, or to which I shall be entitled at the time of my decease, I devise, bequeath, and dispose thereof in the manner following, to wit:

Imprimis. My will is, that all my just debts and funeral charges shall, by my executors hereinafter named, be paid out of my estate, as soon after my decease as shall by them be found convenient.

Item. I give, devise, and bequeath to my beloved wife, C. B., all my household furniture, and my library in my mansion or dwelling-house, my pair of horses, coach, and chaise, and their harnesses; and also fifteen thousand dollars, in money, to be paid to her by my executors hereinafter named, within six months after my decease: To have and to hold the same to her, and her executors, administrators, and assigns forever. I also give to her the use, improvement, and income of my dwelling-house, land, and its appurtenances, situated in ——, my warehouse, land, and its appurtenances, situated in ——, to have and to hold the same to her for and during her natural life.

Item. I give and bequeath to my honored mother, O. B., two thousand dollars, in money, to be paid to her by my executors hereinafter named, within six months after my decease; to be for the sole use of herself, her heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns.

Item. I give, devise, and bequeath to my son, E. B., the reversion or remainder of my dwelling or mansion-house, land, and its appurtenances, situated in ——, and all profit, income, and advantage that may result therefrom, from and after the decease of my beloved wife, C. B.: To have and to hold the same to him, the said E. B., his heirs and assigns, from and after the decease of my said wife, to his and their use and behoof forever.

Item. I give, devise, and bequeath to my son, F. B., the reversion or remainder of my warehouse, land, and its appurtenances, situated in ——, and all the profit, income, and advantage that may result therefrom, from and after the decease of my beloved wife, C. B.: To have and to hold the same to the said F. B., his heirs and assigns, from and after the decease of my said wife, to his and their use and behoof forever.

Item. All the rest and residue of my estate, real, personal, or mixed, of which I shall die seized and possessed, or to which I shall be entitled at the time of my decease, I give, devise, and bequeath, to be equally divided to and among my said sons, E. B. and F. B. And,

Lastly. I do nominate and appoint my said sons, E. B. and F. B., to be the executors of this my last will and testament.

In testimony, whereof, I, the said A. B., have to this my last will and testament, contained on three sheets of paper, and to every sheet thereof subscribed my name, and to this the last sheet thereof I have here subscribed my name, and affixed my seal, this —— day of ——, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ——.

A. B. [L. S.]

This will must be attested in the same manner as in the preceding forms.

DEVISE FROM A HUSBAND TO HIS WIFE, OF AN ESTATE FOR LIFE, IN LIEU OF DOWER; REMAINDER TO HIS CHILDREN AS TENANTS IN COMMON.

Item. I give and devise unto my said wife, all that my said messuage or tenement, with the appurtenances, situate, &c., with the lands and hereditaments thereunto belonging, and the rents, issues, and profits thereof, for and during the term of her natural life; and from and after the decease of my said wife, I give and bequeath the said messuage or tenement, lands, and hereditaments, unto such child or children, as I shall leave or have living at the time of my decease, and to their heirs and assigns forever, as tenants in common, and if I shall have no such child or children, &c., then I give and devise, &c., which said legacy given to my said wife as aforesaid, I hereby declare is intended to be, and is so given to her, in full satisfaction and recompense of, and for her dower and thirds, which she may, or can in any wise claim or demand out of my estate.

Item. I give and devise all the rest and residue of my estate, both real and personal (not hereinbefore by me given and bequeathed), unto, &c.

MORTGAGE OF LANDS BY HUSBAND AND WIFE.

THIS Indenture, made the —— day of ——, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ——, between F. F., of the city of New York, merchant, and J. his wife, of the first part, and L. M., of said city, merchant, of the second part, *witnesseth:* That the said parties of the first part, for and in consideration of the sum of ——, lawful money of the United States, to them in hand paid, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, have granted, bargained, sold, aliened, released, conveyed, and confirmed, and by these presents do grant, bargain, sell, alien, release, convey, and confirm, unto the said party of the second part, and to his assigns forever, all that certain lot, &c.; together with all and singular the hereditaments and appurtenances thereunto belonging, or in any wise appertaining, and the reversion and reversions, remainder and remainders, rents, issues, and profits thereof; and also all the estate, right, title, interest, dower, possession, claim, and demand whatsoever, of the said parties of the first part, of, in, and to the same, and every part thereof, with the appurtenances: To have and to hold the said hereby granted premises, with the appurtenances, unto the said party of the second part, his heirs, and assigns, to his and their only proper use, benefit, and behoof forever. Provided always, and these presents are upon this condition, that if the said parties of the first part, their heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, shall pay unto the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum of ——, on or before the —— day of ——, which will be in the year ——, with interest, according to the condition of a bond of the said F. F., to the said L. M., bearing even date herewith, then these presents shall become void, and the estate hereby granted shall cease and utterly determine. But if default shall be made in the payment of the said sum of money, or the interest, or of any part thereof, at the time hereinbefore specified for the payment thereof, the said parties of the first part, in such case, do hereby authorize and fully empower the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, and assigns, to sell the said hereby granted premises, at public auction, and convey the same to the purchaser, in fee simple, agreeably to the act in such case made and provided, and out of the moneys arising from such sale, to retain the principal and interest which shall then be due on the said bond, together with all costs and charges, and pay the overplus (if any) to the said F. F., party of the first part, his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns.

In witness whereof, the parties to these presents have hereunto set their hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of } FRANCIS FOREST. [L. S.]
JULIA FOREST. [L. S.]

JOHN SMITH.

A MORTGAGE GIVEN FOR PART OF THE PURCHASE MONEY OF LAND.

THIS Indenture, made the —— day of ——, in the year of our Lord ——, between A. B., of the city of New York, merchant, of the first part, and R. T., of the said city, esquire, of the second part, *witnesseth:* That the said party of the first part, for and in consideration of the sum of three thousand dollars, lawful money of the United Sates, to him in hand paid, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, hath granted bargained, sold, aliened, released, conveyed, and confirmed, and by these presents doth grant, bargain, sell, alien, release, convey, and confirm, unto the said party of the second part, and to his heirs and assigns forever, all those three certain lots, pieces and parcels of land, situate, lying, and being, &c.; the said three lots of land being part of the premises this day conveyed to the said A. B. by the said R. T. and his wife, and these presents are given to secure the payment of part of the consideration money of the said premises; together with all and singular the hereditaments and appurtenances thereunto belonging, or in any wise appertaining, and the reversion and reversions, remainder and remainders, rents, issues, and profits thereof, and also, all the estate

right, title, interest, dower, possession, claim, and demand whatsoever, of the said party of the first part, of, in, and to the same, and every part thereof, with the appurtenances. To have and to hold the said hereby granted premises, with the appurtenances, unto the said party of the second part, his heirs and assigns, to his and their only proper use, benefit, and behoof forever. Provided always, and these presents are upon this condition, that if the said party of the first part, his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, shall pay unto the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum of three thousand dollars, lawful money aforesaid, on or before the ——— day of ———next, with interest thereon at the rate of six per cent. per annum, payable half yearly, on the first days of May and November in each year, until the whole principal sum shall be fully paid and satisfied, according to the condition of the bond of the said A. B. to the said R. T., bearing even date herewith, then these presents, and the estate hereby granted, shall cease and be void. And if default shall be made in the payment of the said sum of money, or the interest, or of any part thereof, at the time hereinbefore specified for the payment thereof, the said party of the first part in each case does hereby authorize and fully empower the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, and assigns, to sell the said hereby granted premises at public auction, and convey the same to the purchaser, in fee simple, according to law, and out of the moneys arising from such sale to retain the principal and interest which shall then be due on the said bond, together with all the costs and charges, and the overplus (if any) pay to the said party of the first part, his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns. And it is also agreed, by and between the parties to these presents, that until the payment of the said principal and interest moneys in full, it shall be lawful for the party of the second part, his executors, administrators, or assigns, to keep the buildings erected, or to be erected, upon the lands above conveyed, insured against loss or damage by fire, and these presents shall operate to secure the repayment of the premium or premiums paid for effecting or continuing such insurance.

In witness, &c. [*as in Mortgage of Lands by Husband and Wife*].

MORTGAGE ON GOODS OR CHATTELS.

To all to whom these presents shall come: Know ye, that I, A. B., of ———, party of the first part, for securing the payment of the money hereinafter mentioned, and in consideration of the sum of one dollar to me duly paid by C. D. of ———, of the second part, at or before the ensealing and delivery of these presents, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, having bargained and sold, and by these presents do grant, bargain, and sell unto the said party of the second part, two bay horses, and all other goods and chattels mentioned in the schedule hereunto annexed, and now in the possession of ———; to have and to hold all and singular the goods and chattels above bargained and sold, or intended so to be, unto the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, and assigns, forever. And I, the said party of the first part, for myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, all and singular, the said goods and chattels above bargained and sold unto the said party of the second part, his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, against me, the said party of the first part, and against all and every person or persons whomsoever, shall and will warrant and for ever defend; upon condition, that if I, the said party of the first part, shall and do well and truly pay unto the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, or assigns, the full sum of ——— dollars, on the ——— day of ——— next, according to the tenor and effect of a certain promissory note, bearing even date herewith, made by me in favor of the said C. D., then these presents shall be void. And I, the said party of the first part, for myself, my executors, administrators, and assigns, do covenant and agree, to and with the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, and assigns, that in case default shall be made in the payment of the said sum above mentioned, then it shall and may be lawful for, and I, the said party of the first part, do hereby authorize and empower the said party of the second part, his executors, administrators, and assigns, with the aid and assistance of any person or persons, to enter my dwelling-house, store, and other premises, and such other place or places as the said goods or chattels are, or may be placed, and take and carry away the said goods and chattels, and to sell and dispose of the same for the best price they can obtain; and out of the money arising therefrom, to retain and pay the said sum above mentioned, and all charges touching the same, rendering the overplus (if any) unto me, or to my executors, administrators, or assigns. And until default be made in the payment of the said sum of money I am to remain and continue in the quiet and peaceable possession of the said goods and chattels, and the full and free enjoyment of the same.

In witness, &c. [*as in Mortgage of Lands by Husband and Wife*].

NATURALIZATION PAPERS.

DECLARATION OF INTENTION.

I, A. B., do declare, on oath, that it is *bona fide* my intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to all and any foreign prince, potentate, state, and sovereignty whatever; and particularly to Victoria, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Sworn in open court, this ——— day of ——, 18—. } A. B.

I, L. T., clerk of the ——— court of ———, do certify that the above is a true copy of the original declaration of intention of A. B. to become a citizen of the United States, remaining of record of my office.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto subscribed my name and affixed the seal of the said court, the ——— day of ———, one thousand eight hundred and ———.

[L. s.] L. T.

OATH OF ALIEN.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

STATE OF NEW YORK, } ss.
COUNTY OF ———, }

A. B., being duly sworn, doth depose and say, that he is a resident in the State of New York, and intends always to reside in the United States, and to become a citizen thereof as soon as he can be naturalized, and that he has taken such incipient measures as the laws of the United States require, to enable him to obtain naturalization.

Sworn before me, the ——— day of ———, 18—.

J. S., Clerk of the U. S. District Court

CERTIFICATE OF CITIZENSHIP.

BE it remembered, that on the ——— day of ———, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ———, A. B., late of Limerick, Ireland, at present of the city of ———, in the State of ———, appeared in the ——— court of ——— (the said court being a court of record, having common-law jurisdiction, and a clerk and seal), and applied to the said court to be admitted to become a citizen of the United States of America, pursuant to the directions of the act of Congress of the United States of America, entitled, "An act to establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and to repeal the acts heretofore passed on that subject;" and also to an act entitled "An act in addition to an act, entitled, 'An act to establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and to repeal the acts heretofore passed on that subject;'" and also to the "Act relative to evidence in cases of naturalization," passed 22d March, 1816; and also to an act entitled "An act in further addition to an act to establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and to repeal the acts heretofore passed on that subject," passed May 26, 1824. And the said A. B., having thereupon produced to the court such evidence, made such declaration and renunciation, and taken such oath, as are by the said acts required:

Thereupon it was ordered by the said court, that the said A. B. be admitted, and he was accordingly admitted by the said court to be a citizen of the United States of America.

In testimony whereof, the seal of the said court is hereunto affixed this ——— day of ——— in the year one thousand eight hundred and ———, and in the ——— year of our independence.

[L. s.]

Per curiam. L. T., Clerk.

POWER OF ATTORNEY TO COLLECT DEBTS.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of ———, have constituted, made, and appointed, and by these presents do constitute, make, and appoint T. U., of ———, to be my true and lawful attorney, for me and in my name and stead, and to my use, to ask, demand, sue for, levy, recover, and receive, all such sum and sums of money, debts, rents, goods, wares, dues, accounts, and other demands whatsoever, which

are or shall be due, owing, payable, and belonging to me, or detained from me, in any manner of ways or means whatsoever, by I. K., his heirs, executors, and administrators, or any of them, giving and granting unto my said attorney, by these presents, my full and whole power, strength, and authority, in and about the premises, to have, sue, and take all lawful ways and means, in my name, for the recovery thereof; and upon the receipt of any such debts, dues, or sums of money aforesaid, acquittances, or other sufficient discharges, for me and in my name to make, seal, and deliver; and generally all and every other act and acts, thing and things, device and devices, in the law whatsoever, needful and necessary to be done in and about the premises, for me and in my name to do, execute, and perform, as largely and amply, to all intents and purposes, as I might or could do, if personally present, or as the matter required more special authority than is herein given; and attorneys, one or more under him, for the purpose aforesaid, to make and constitute, and again at pleasure to revoke, ratifying, allowing, and holding, for firm and effectual, all and whatsoever my said attorney shall lawfully do in and about the premises, by virtue hereof.

In witness, &c. [*as in Power of Attorney to Sell and Lease Lands*].

POWER TO RECEIVE A LEGACY.

KNOW all men by these presents, that whereas A. B., late of ——, deceased, by his last will and testament did give and bequeath unto me, C. D., of ——, a legacy of ——, to be paid unto me on ——, of which said will E. F., of ——, and C. H., of ——, are joint executors as in and by the said will may appear: now know ye, that I, the said C. D., have made, ordained, constituted, and appointed J. K., of ——, my true and lawful attorney, for me and in my name, and for my use and benefit, to ask, demand, and receive, of and from the said E. F. and G. H., the legacy given and bequeathed unto me, the said C. D., by the said will of the said A. B., as aforesaid; and upon receipt thereof by, or payment thereof to, my said attorney, a general release or discharge for the same to make, execute, and deliver; hereby ratifying, confirming, and allowing whatsoever my said attorney shall lawfully do in the premises.

In witness, &c.

STOCK POWER.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of ——, do hereby make, constitute, and appoint C. D., of ——, my true and lawful attorney, for me and in my name to sell, transfer, and assign —— shares of capital stock, standing in my name on the books of the Merchants' Bank in the city of ——, with power also an attorney or attorneys under him for that purpose to make and substitute, with like power, and to do all lawful acts requisite for effecting the premises; hereby ratifying and confirming all that my said attorney or his substitute or substitutes shall do therein by virtue of these presents.

In witness, &c.

TRANSFER OF STOCK.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, C. D., of ——, for value received, have bargained, sold, assigned, and transferred, and by these presents do bargain, sell, assign, and transfer unto E. F., —— shares of capital stock, standing in my name on the books of the Merchants' Bank in the city of ——, and do hereby constitute and appoint A. B., of ——, my true and lawful attorney, irrevocable for me and in my name and stead, but to his use, to sell, assign, transfer, and set over all or any part of the said stock, and for that purpose to make and execute all necessary acts of assignment and transfer, and one or more persons to substitute with like full power; hereby ratifying and confirming all that my said attorney, or his substitute or substitutes, shall lawfully do by virtue hereof.

In witness, &c.

POWER TO RECEIVE DIVIDEND.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of ——, do authorize, constitute, and appoint C. D. to receive from the cashier of the Merchants' Bank of ——, the dividend now due to me on all stock standing to my name on the books of the said company, and receipt for the same; hereby ratifying and confirming all that may lawfully be done in the premises by virtue hereof.

In witness, &c.

GENERAL RELEASE OF ALL DEMANDS.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of, &c., for and in consideration of the sum of ——, to me paid by C. D., of, &c. (the receipt whereof I do hereby acknowledge), have remised, released, and forever discharged, and I do hereby, for myself, my heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, remise, release, and forever discharge the said C. D., his heirs, executors, and administrators, of and from all debts, demands, actions, and causes of action, which I now have, in law or equity, or which may result from the existing state of things, from any and all contracts, liabilities, doings, and omissions, from the beginning of the world to this day.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this sixteenth day of May, eighteen hundred and eighty-two.

JOHN SMITH. [L. S.]

AGREEMENT FOR A LEASE.

THIS agreement, made the —— day of ——, in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-two, between A. B. of ——, and C. D., of said city, merchant, *witnesseth*, That A. B. agrees, by indenture, to be executed on or before the —— day of —— next, to demise and let to the said C. D. a certain house and lot in said city, now or late in the occupation of E. F., known as No. —, in —— street, to hold to the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, from the —— day of ——, aforesaid, for and during the term of three years, at or under the clear yearly rent of —— dollars, payable quarterly, clear of all taxes and deductions except the ground rent. In which lease there shall be contained covenants on the part of the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, to pay the rent (except in case the premises are destroyed by fire, the rent is to cease until they are rebuilt by the said A. B.), and to pay all taxes and assessments (except the ground rent); to repair the premises (except damages by fire); not to carry on any offensive business on the same (except by written permission of the said A. B.); to deliver the same up at the end of the term, in good repair (except damages by fire, aforesaid); with all other usual and reasonable covenants, and a proviso for the re-entry of the said C. D., his heirs and assigns, in case of the non-payment of the rent for the space of fifteen days after either of the said rent-days, or the non-performance of any of the covenants. And there shall also be contained covenants on the part of the said A. B., his heirs and assigns, for quiet enjoyment; to renew said lease, at the expiration of said term, for a further period of twenty-one years at the same rent, on the said C. D., his executors administrators, or assigns, paying the said A. B., his executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum of five hundred dollars, as a premium for such renewal; and that in case of accidental fire, at any time during the term, the said A. B. will forthwith proceed to put the premises in as good repair as before such fire, the rent in the meantime to cease. And the said C. D. hereby agrees to accept such lease on the terms aforesaid. And it is mutually agreed, that the cost of this agreement, and of making and recording said lease, and a counterpart thereof, shall be borne by the said parties equally.

As witness our hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

In presence of } A. B. [L. S.]
J. S. } C. D. [L. S.]

LANDLORD'S AGREEMENT OF LEASE.

THIS is to certify, that I have, this —— day of ——, 1880, let and rented unto Mr. C. D. my house and lot, known as No. —, in —— street, in the city of ——, with the appurtenances, and the sole and uninterrupted use and occupation thereof, for one year, to commence the —— day of ——next, at the yearly rent of —— dollars, payable quarterly, on the usual quarter-days; rent to cease in case the premises are destroyed by fire.

A. B.

TENANT'S AGREEMENT.

THIS is to certify, that I have hired and taken from Mr. A. B. his house and lot, known as No. —, in —— street, in the city of ——, with the appurtenances, for the term of one year, to commence the first day of —— next, at the yearly rent of —— dollars, payable quarterly on the usual quarter-days. And I do hereby promise to make punctual payment of the rent in manner aforesaid, except in case the premises become untenantable from fire or any other cause, when the rent is to cease; and do further promise to quit and surrender the premises, at

the expiration of the term, in as good state and condition as reasonable use and wear thereof will permit, damages by the elements excepted.

Given under my hand and seal, the —— day of ——, 1860.

In presence of } C. D. [L. S.]
J. S. }

SECURITY FOR RENT.

In consideration of the letting of the premises above described, and for the sum of one dollar, I do hereby become surety for the punctual payment of the rent, and performance of the covenants in the above written agreement mentioned, to be paid and performed by C. D., as therein specified and expected; and if any default shall be made therein I do hereby promise and agree to pay unto Mr. A. B. such sum or sums of money as will be sufficient to make up such deficiency, and fully satisfy the conditions of the said agreement, without requiring any notice of non-payment or proof of demand being made.

Given, &c. [*as in Tenant's Agreement*].

TENANT'S AGREEMENT FOR A HOUSE, EMBRACING A MORTGAGE OF HIS CHATTELS.

This is to certify, that I, A. B., have hired and taken from C. D., the premises known as No. —, in —— street, in the city of New York, for the term of one year from the first day of May next, at the yearly rent of six hundred dollars, payable quarterly. And I hereby promise to make punctual payment of the rent in manner aforesaid, and quit and surrender the premises at the expiration of said term, in as good state and condition as reasonable use and wear thereof will permit, damages by the elements excepted; and engage not to let or underlet the whole or any part of the said premises, or occupy the same for any business deemed extra-hazardous on account of fire, without the written consent of the landlord, under the penalty of forfeiture and damages. And I do hereby mortgage and pledge all the personal property, of what kind soever, which I shall at any time have on said premises, and whether exempt by law from distress for rent or sale under execution, or not, to the faithful performance of these covenants, hereby authorizing the said C. D., or his assigns, to distrain upon and sell the same, in case of any failure on my part to perform the said covenants, or any or either of them.

Given, &c.

LANDLORD'S AGREEMENT.

This is to certify, that I, C. D., have let and rented unto A. B. the premises known as No. —, in —— street, in the city of New York, for the term of one year from the first day of May next, at the yearly rent of six hundred dollars, payable quarterly. The premises are not to be used or occupied for any business deemed extra-hazardous on account of fire, nor shall the same, or any part thereof, be let or underlet, except with the consent of the landlord in writing, under the penalty of forfeiture and damages.

Given, &c.

AGREEMENT FOR PART OF A HOUSE.

Memorandum of an agreement entered into, the —— day of ——, 1880, by and between A. B., of ——, and C. D., of, &c., whereby the said A. B. agrees to let, and the said C D. agrees to take, the rooms, or apartments following, that is to say: an entire first floor and one room in the attic story or garret, and a back kitchen and cellar opposite, with the use of the yard for drying linen, or beating carpets or clothes, being part of a house and premises in which the said A. B. now resides, situate and being in No. —, in —— street, in the city of ——, to have and to hold the said rooms and apartments, and the use of the said yard as aforesaid, for and during the term of half a year, to commence from the —— day of ——, instant, at and for the yearly rent of —— dollars, lawful money of the United States, payable monthly, by even and equal portions, the first payment to be made on the —— day of —— next ensuing the date thereof; and it is further agreed that, at the expiration of the said term of half a year, the said C. D. may hold, occupy, and enjoy the said rooms or apartments, and have the use of the said yard as aforesaid, from month to month, for so long a time as the said C. D. and A. B. may and shall agree, at the rent above specified; and that each party be at liberty to quit possession on giving the other a month's notice in writing. And it is also further agreed, that when the said C. D. shall quit the premises, he shall leave them in as good condition and repair as they shall be in on his taking possession thereof, reasonable wear excepted.

Witness, &c.

NOTICE TO QUIT, BY LANDLORD.

Please to take notice that you are hereby required to surrender and deliver up possession of the house and lot known as No. — in —— street, in the city of ——, which you now hold of me; and to remove therefrom on the first day of —— next, pursuant to the provisions of the statute relating to the rights and duties of landlord and tenant.

Dated this —— day of ——, 1880.

To Mr. C. D. A. B., Landlord.

NOTICE TO QUIT, BY TENANT.

Please to take notice, that on the first day of May next I shall qui possession and remove from the premises I now occupy, known as house and lot No. —, in —— street, in the city of ——.

Dated this —— day of ——, 1860.

To Mr. A. B. Yours, &c., C. D.

THE LIKE WHERE THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE TENANCY IS UNCERTAIN.

Mr. C. D.—I hereby give you notice to quit, and deliver up on the —— day of —— next the possession of the messuage or dwelling house [*or*, rooms and apartments, *or*, farm lands and premises], with the appurtenances, which you now hold of me, situate in the —— of ——, in the county of ——, provided your tenancy originally commenced at that time of the year; or otherwise, that you quit and deliver up the possession of the said messuage, &c., at the end of the year of your tenancy which shall expire next after the end of one half-year from the time of your being served with this notice.

Dated, &c. [*as in Notice to Quit, by Landlord*].

NOTICE TO THE TENANT EITHER TO QUIT THE PREMISES, OR TO PAY DOUBLE VALUE.

Sir: I hereby give you notice to quit, and yield up, on the —— day of ——next, possession of the messuage, lands, tenements and hereditaments, which you now hold of me, situate at —— in the parish of ——, and county of ——, in failure whereof I shall require and insist upon double the value of the said premises, according to the statute in such case made and provided.

Dated, &c. [*as in Notice to Quit, by Landlord*].

OATH OF HOLDING OVER.

City of ——, *ss.*

A. B., of said city, merchant, being duly sworn, doth depose and say, that on or about the —— day of ——, the deponent rented unto C. D., of said city, printer, the house and lot known as No. —, in —— street, in said city, for the term of one year from the first day of May then next, which said term has expired, and that the said C. D. or his assigns hold over and continue in the possession of the said premises, without the permission of this deponent.

Sworn before me, this —— day of ——. A. B.

O. P., Commissioner of Deeds.

ASSIGNMENT.

Know all men by these presents, that I, A. B., having become insolvent, did, in conjunction with so many of my creditors, residing within the United States, whose debts, in good faith, amount to two-thirds of all the debts owing by me to creditors residing within the United States, present a petition to the Hon. J. P. H., County Judge of —— county [*or*, as the case may be], praying for relief, pursuant to the provisions of the statute authorizing an insolvent debtor to be discharged from his debts; whereupon the said Judge ordered notice to be given to all my creditors to show cause, if any they had, before him, at a certain day and place, why the prayer of the petitioner should not be granted; which notice was duly published, and no good cause appearing to the contrary, he being satisfied that the proceedings were just and fair, and that I

and in all things conformed to those matters required by the said statute, directed an assignment of all my estate to be made by me for the benefit of all my creditors. Now, therefore, know ye, that, in conformity to the said direction, I have granted, released, assigned, and set over, and by these presents, do grant, release, assign, and set over, unto J. K., of, &c., and L. M., of, &c., assignees nominated to receive the same, all my estate, real and personal, both in law and equity, in possession, reversion, or remainder, and all books, vouchers, and securities relating thereto, to hold the same unto the said assignees, to and for the use of all my creditors.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal this —— day of ——, in the year one thousand eight hundred and ——.

A. B. [L. S.]

Sealed and delivered in presence of
G. H.

NOTE WITH SURETY.

$100. NEW YORK, April 12, 1880.

SIX months after date, I promise to pay John Thompson, or order, one hundred dollars, value received. JOHN BROWN.

GEO. SMITH, Surety.

AN UNNEGOTIABLE NOTE.

$1000. NEW YORK, April 10, 1880.

THREE months after date, I promise to pay John Thompson one thousand dollars, for value received. JAMES FOWLER.

A NEGOTIABLE NOTE.

$1000. NEW YORK, April 19, 1880.

THREE months after date, I promise to pay John Thompson, or order, one thousand dollars, for value received. JAMES FOWLER.

A NOTE, OR DUE BILL, PAYABLE ON DEMAND.

$100. CINCINNATI, O., April 14, 1880.

ON demand I promise to pay Charles Jones, or order, one hundred dollars, for value received.

HENRY WARING, 120 State-street.

A NOTE BEARING INTEREST.

$100. NEW ORLEANS, La., May 1, 1882.

SIX months after date, I promise to pay George Robinson, or order, one hundred dollars, with interest, for value received.

PHILIP REDMOND.

A NOTE PAYABLE BY INSTALMENTS.

$3000. PHILADELPHIA, Pa., April 20, 1882.

FOR value received, I promise to pay Smith & Brown, or order, three thousand dollars, in the manner following, viz.: one thousand dollars in one year, one thousand dollars in two years, and one thousand dollars in three years, with interest on all said sums, payable semi-annually, without defalcation or discount.

HUGH FAULKNER, 120 Chestnut-st.

SEALED NOTE.

$5000. CLEVELAND, O., May 8, 1882.

FOR value received, I promise to pay Smith & Edgar, or order, five thousand dollars, in three years from the date hereof, with interest, payable semi-annually, without defalcation or discount. And in case of default of my payment of the interest or principal aforesaid with punctuality, I hereby empower any attorney-at-law, to be appointed by said Smith & Edgar, or their assigns, to appear in any court which said Smith & Edgar, or their assigns, may select, and commence and prosecute a suit against me on said note, to confess judgment for all and every part of the interest or principal on said note, in the payment of which I may be delinquent.

Witness my hand and seal, this 8th day of June, A. D. 1882.

JOHN DREW. [SEAL.]

Attest, GEORGE WHITE.

DUE BILL, PAYABLE IN GOODS.

DUE John Jones, or bearer, fifty dollars in merchandise, for value received, payable on demand. THOMAS BOLAND.

NEW YORK, May 3, 1882.

ORDER FOR GOODS.

MR. J. TONGUE. NEW YORK, April 16, 1882.

PLEASE pay John Jones, or order, one hundred dollars in merchandise and charge the same to account of HENRY WALFORD.

BILL OF EXCHANGE.

$1000. HARTFORD, Conn., April 20, 1882.

THIRTY days after sight, pay to the order of Messrs. John Smith & Co. one thousand dollars, and charge the same to account of

RICHARD JAY.

To Messrs. WILSON & RIVERS, New York.

A SET OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

No. 188.—Ex. £300. NEW YORK, April 26, 1882.

THREE days after sight of this, my first of exchange (second and third unpaid), pay to Charles Walker, or order, three hundred pounds sterling, value received, and charge the same to account of

JOHN SMITH.

No. 188.—Ex. £300. NEW YORK, April 26, 1882.

THREE days after sight of this, my second of exchange (first and third unpaid), pay to Charles Walker, or order, three hundred pounds sterling, value received, and charge the same to account of

JOHN SMITH.

No. 188.—Ex. £300. NEW YORK, April 8, 1882.

THREE days after sight of this, my third of exchange (first and second unpaid), pay to Charles Walker, or order, three hundred pounds sterling, value received, and charge the same to account of

JOHN SMITH.

MONEY ORDER.

MR. HENRY DENHIS: NEW YORK, May 20, 1882.

PLEASE pay Charles Robinson, or order, one hundred dollars, and charge the same to account of JOSEPH DOYLE.

NOTICE OF NON-PAYMENT.

TO BE GIVEN TO THE DRAWER AND ENDORSERS.

NEW YORK, Feb. 26, 1882.

PLEASE to take notice, that a certain bill of exchange, dated ——, for $1000, drawn by ——, on and accepted by ——, of —— and by you endorsed, was this day protested for non-payment, and the holders look to you for the payment thereof. Yours, &c.,

To Mr. A. B. J. T., Notary Public.

RECEIPT IN FULL OF ALL DEMANDS.

$500. NEW YORK, March 28, 1882.

RECEIVED of John Smith five hundred dollars, in full of all demands against him. WM. JONES.

RECEIPT ON ACCOUNT.

$100. NEW YORK, March 28, 1882.

RECEIVED of John Smith one hundred dollars, to apply on account.

WM. JONES.

RECEIPT FOR MONEY PAID FOR ANOTHER.

$100. NEW YORK, March 28, 1882.

RECEIVED of J. G. Wells one hundred dollars, in full of all demands against John Smith. WM. JONES.

GENERAL FORM OF ASSIGNMENT.

TO BE WRITTEN OR ENDORSED ON THE BACK OF ANY INSTRUMENT.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, the within-named A. B., in consideration of one hundred dollars to me paid by C. D., have assigned

to the said C. D., and his assigns, all my interest in the within written instrument, and every clause, article, or thing therein contained; and I do hereby constitute the said C. D., my attorney, in my name, but to his own use, and at his own risk and cost, to take all legal measures which may be proper for the complete recovery and enjoyment of the assigned premises, with power of substitution.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this tenth day of May, one thousand eight hundred and sixty.

Executed and delivered in the presence of } A. B. [SEAL.]

ASSIGNMENT OF A LEASE.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, the within-named A. B., the lessee, for and in consideration of the sum of one thousand dollars, to me in hand paid by C. D., of, &c., at and before the sealing and delivery hereof (the receipt whereof I do hereby acknowledge), have granted, assigned, and set over, and by these presents do grant, assign, and set over, unto the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns the within indenture of lease, and all that messuage, &c., thereby demised, with the appurtenances; and also all my estate, right, title, term of years yet to come, claim, and demand whatsoever, of, in, to, or out of the same. To have and to hold the said messuage, &c., unto the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, for the residue of the term within mentioned, under the yearly rent and covenants within reserved and contained, on my part and behalf to be done, kept, and performed.

In testimony, &c. [*as in General Form of Assignment*].

ASSIGNMENT OF A MORTGAGE.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., the mortgagee within named, for and in consideration of the sum of sixteen hundred dollars, to me paid by C. D., of, &c., at and before the sealing and delivery hereof (the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged), have granted, bargained, sold, assigned, and set over, and by these presents do grant, bargain, sell, assign, and set over, unto the said C. D., his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, the within deed of mortgage, and all my right and title to that messuage, &c., therein mentioned and described, together with the original debt for which the said mortgage was given, and all evidence thereof, and all the rights and appurtenances thereunto belonging. To have and to hold all and singular the premises hereby granted and assigned, or mentioned, or intended so to be, unto the said C. D., his heirs and assigns, forever; subject, nevertheless, to the right and equity of redemption of the within named E. F., his heirs and assigns (if any they have), in the same.

In testimony, &c. [*as in General Form of Assignment*].

ASSIGNMENT OF A PATENT.

WHEREAS, letters patent, bearing date —— day of ——, in the year ——, were granted and issued by the government of the United States, under the seal thereof, to A. B., of the town of ——, in the county of ——, in the State of ——, for [here state the nature of the invention in general terms, as in the patent], a more particular and full description whereof is annexed to the said letters patent in a schedule; by which letters patent the full and exclusive right and liberty of making and using the said invention, and of vending the same to others to be used, was granted to the said A. B., his heirs, executors, and administrators, or assigns, for the term of fourteen years from the said date:

Now know all men by these presents, that I, the said A. B., for and in consideration of the sum of —— dollars, to me in hand paid (the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged), have granted, assigned, and set over, and by these presents do grant, assign, and set over, unto C. D., of the town of ——, in the county of ——, and State of ——, his executors, administrators, and assigns, forever, the said letters patent, and all my right, title, and interest, in and to the said invention, so granted unto me: To have and to hold the said letters patent and invention, with all benefit, profit, and advantage thereof, unto the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, in as full, ample, and beneficial a manner, to all intents and purposes, as I, the said A. B., by virtue of the said letters patent, may or might have or hold the same, if this assignment had not been made, for and during all the rest and residue of the said term of fourteen years.

In testimony, &c., [*as in General Form of Assignment.*]

ASSIGNMENT OF A POLICY OF INSURANCE.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, the within-named A. B., for and in consideration of the sum of ——, to me paid by C. D., of, &c. (the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged), have granted, sold, assigned, transferred, and set over, and by these presents I do absolutely grant, sell, assign, transfer, and set over to him, the said C. D., all my right, property, interest, claim, and demand in and to the within policy of insurance, which have already arisen, or which may hereafter arise thereon, with full power to use my name so far as may be necessary to enable him fully to avail himself of the interest herein assigned, or hereby intended to be assigned. The conveyance herein made, and the powers hereby given, are for myself and my legal representatives to said C. D. and his legal representatives.

In testimony, &c. [*as in General Form of Assignment*].

ASSIGNMENT OF DEMAND FOR WAGES OR DEBT.

IN consideration of $100 to me in hand paid by M. D., of the city of ——, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, I, L. C., of the same place, have sold, and by these presents do sell, assign, transfer, and set over, unto the said M. D., a certain debt due from N. E., amounting to the sum of $150, for work, labor, and services, by me performed for the said N. E. (or for goods sold and delivered to the said N. E.), with full power to sue for, collect, and discharge, or sell and assign the same in my name or otherwise, but at his own cost and charges; and I do hereby covenant that the said sum of $150 is justly due as aforesaid, and that I have not done and will not do any act to hinder or prevent the collection of the same by the said M. D.

Witness my hand, this April 10th, 1863.

L. C.

ASSIGNMENT OF ACCOUNT ENDORSED THEREON.

IN consideration of $1, value received, I hereby sell and assign to M. D. the within account which is justly due from the within named N. E., and I hereby authorize the said M. D. to collect the same.

L. C.

Troy, April 10th, 1863.

BOND TO A CORPORATION.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I, A. B., of, &c., am held and firmly bound unto the —— Insurance Company, in the sum of one thousand dollars, lawful money of the United States, to be paid to the said —— Insurance Company or assigns; for which payment, well and truly to be made, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents.

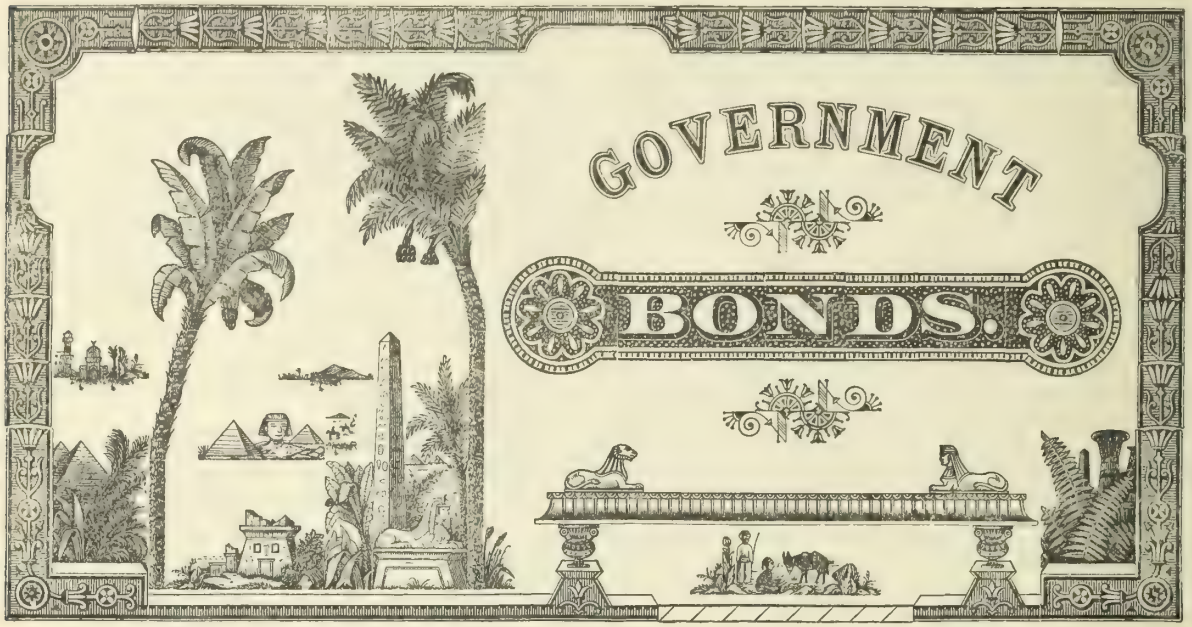
Sealed with my seal. Dated the —— day of ——, one thousand eight hundred and ——.

The condition of the above obligation is such, that if the above bounden A. B., his heirs, executors, or administrators, shall well and truly pay, or cause to be paid unto the above named —— Insurance Company, or assigns, the just and full sum, &c. [*as in Common Bond*].

COMMON CHATTEL MORTGAGE.

THIS Indenture, made the —— day of, &c., between A. B., of, &c., of the first part, and C. D., of, &c., of the second part, witnesseth: That the said party of the first part, in consideration of the sum of —— dollars, to him duly paid, hath sold, and by these presents doth grant and convey, to the said party of the second part, and his assigns, the following described goods, chattels, and property [*here describe them, or refer to them thus*, "as in the schedule annexed"], now in my possession, at the —— of —— aforesaid; together with the appurtenances, and all the estate, title, and interest of the said party of the first part therein. This grant is intended as a security for the payment of one hundred and fifty dollars, with interest, on or before the expiration of one year from the date hereof; and the additional sum of one hundred and sixty dollars, with interest, on the —— day of ——, 18—; which payments, if duly made, will render this conveyance void.

In witness, &c. [*as in Bill of Sale and Chattel Mortgage*].



GOVERNMENT BONDS are quoted and dealt in at the Stock Exchange, but the principal transactions take place in the offices of the large dealers, with whom parties desiring to invest in or dispose of bonds may transact their business either in person or through a broker. The dealers are ordinarily prepared to buy and sell either large or small amounts at the current quotations.

This mode of dealing greatly facilitates transactions in Government bonds, and adds to their desirability and convenience for investment; as it enables the investor to purchase the bonds for immediate delivery, or to convert them into money at once, and also to ascertain, before he buys or sells, just what price he must pay or will receive, instead of taking the chances of an order to buy or sell at the market prices, or at a fixed limit at the Stock Exchange.

The difference between the prices at which the dealer is prepared to buy or sell the more active bonds, on a steady market, is usually one-eighth of one per cent., with occasionally wider variations.

All the different issues of Government bonds now outstanding are in registered form, except the Fours and Four-and-a-halfs, which are both coupon and registered.

Coupon bonds, at times, sell higher than registered bonds of the same issue; the difference in price in their favor occurring, for the most part, when United States bonds are in demand in European markets, and for the reason that registered bonds are not taken for the English and German markets, except to a very limited extent.

When bonds are not being sent abroad, and the demand is for home investment exclusively, the price of the registered bonds approximates more nearly or becomes equal to, or a little higher than, that of the coupon bonds.

Registered bonds rarely sell more than one-eighth of one per cent. higher than coupon bonds, for the reason that the latter can always be converted into the former at the bare cost of forwarding them to the Treasury Department for that purpose.

The Currency Sixes derive their name from the fact that the interest on them is made payable in "United States Treasury notes or any other money or currency which the United States have, or shall declare lawful money and a legal tender."

All the other issues of bonds derive the names by

which they are known from the rates of interest which they bear, or which they bore when originally issued.

All the issues of United States bonds now outstanding, except the Currency Sixes, are payable in coin, either by the express terms of the Acts under which they are issued, or by the pledge of the faith of the United States in the "Public Credit Act" of March 18, 1869.

The Currency Sixes having fixed periods to run of from thirteen to seventeen years, with no option on the part of the Government to call them in before maturity, are, for this reason, desirable for long investment for Savings Banks, estates, trust funds and banking purposes.

The Three-and-a-half-per-cent. bonds, continued from Sixes of 1881, and known as "Continued Sixes," are now being called in from time to time, and will probably all be paid off from the surplus revenue, within the next two years.

The Three-and-a-half-per-cent. bonds, continued from Fives of 1881, and known as "Continued Fives," are pretty certain to remain undisturbed for several years, unless the holders are offered in the meantime, by new legislation, the advantage of exchanging them for bonds having a definite time to run, as an equivalent for a somewhat lower rate of interest.

The Four-and-a-half-per-cents have still nine years to run; but the Four-per-cents, having twenty-five years to run, must be considered as the most desirable for permanent investment of any of the issues now outstanding, unless the avoidance of the high premium is desired, in which case the Continued Fives will be most suitable.

COUPON BONDS.

Coupon bonds, being payable to bearer, pass by delivery without assignment, and are therefore more convenient for sale and delivery than registered bonds, which must be assigned by the party in whose name they are registered. The interest coupons being also payable to the bearer upon presentation at any Sub-Treasury of the United States, the holder of coupon bonds may collect his interest without the necessity of personal identification.

The difficulty of holding coupon bonds with safety by parties not provided with burglar proof safes or vaults of their own, has been, to a considerable extent, removed by the establishment of "Safe Deposit Companies," who undertake, for a moderate compensation, the custody of securities, under the most favorable conditions for securing absolute safety.

Coupon bonds may be converted into registered bonds of the same issue, at the Treasury Department in Washington, but there is no provision of law for converting registered bonds into coupon bonds.

Coupon bonds forwarded to the Treasury Department for conversion into registered bonds should be addressed to "The Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.;" except in case they are forwarded by a National Bank, or for account of a National Bank, to secure deposits or circulation; in which case, if they are to secure deposits, they should be sent to "The Treasurer of the U. S.;" or, if they are to secure circulation, to "The Comptroller of the Currency."

REGISTERED BONDS.

Registered bonds are issued without interest coupons, and are filled up in the name of the registered owner, payable to him or his assigns. They are registered on the books of the Treasury Department in the name of the party to whom they are filled up, and are not available to any other person until properly assigned or transferred by the registered owner.

If registered bonds are lost or stolen, payment may be stopped by notifying the Treasury Department at Washington, as detailed in Chapter VI.

For this reason, registered bonds afford greater security in case of loss, theft or destruction than coupon bonds, and are therefore preferable for long or permanent investment, and for investors who have not the proper facilities for the safe keeping of coupon bonds.

ASSIGNMENT.

Registered bonds are transferable on the books of the Treasury Department at Washington, when forwarded there with a proper assignment filled up and executed in accordance with a form printed on the back of the bonds. When a transfer is made, the old bond is cancelled and a new one issued in the name of the party to whom it has been transferred.

As the interest on registered bonds, as it becomes due, is sent by check to the owner, at his post-office

address, this address should be given with each order.

An executor, administrator, trustee, guardian, or attorney cannot assign bonds to himself, unless he is specially authorized to do so by a court possessing jurisdiction of the matter.

Registered bonds forwarded to the Treasury Department for transfer should be addressed to "The Register of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.," except in case they are forwarded by a National Bank or for account of a National Bank, to secure deposits or circulation, when the instructions contained in the succeeding chapter should be followed.

QUOTATIONS.

All Government Bonds are dealt in and quoted flat—that is to say, the quoted market price is for the bond as it stands at the time, including the accrued interest, except that after the closing of the transfer books the registered bonds are quoted ex-interest—that is to say, the interest then coming due belongs to the holder of the bond at the time of the closing of the books, and does not go with the bond to the purchaser.

In comparing the prices of the coupon and registered bonds during the period in which the transfer books remain closed, it should be remembered that during that time the quoted price of the coupon bonds includes the accrued interest falling due on the first of the ensuing month, while that of the registered bonds does not. If the market value of the registered and coupon bonds at the time is the same, the difference in the quoted prices of the two will be equal to the value of the interest included in the one and not in the other. For example: If, in the month of December, when the books are closed preparatory to the payment of the interest due January 1st, the coupon Four-per-cents are quoted at 118, the equivalent for the registered bonds of the same issue would be 117, the three months' interest being equal to one per cent.

RATES OF INTEREST AND DENOMINATIONS.

The interest on the different issues of Government bonds now in circulation is payable as follows—viz.:

Currency Sixes.....	6	per cent.,	semi-annually,	January 1 and July 1
Continued Sixes of 1881..	3⅝	"	"	"	January 1 and July 1
Continued Fives of 1881.	3⅜	"	"	quarterly,	February 1 and May 1 August 1 and Nov. 1
Four-and-a-half-per-cts.	4½	"	"	"	March 1 and June 1 Sept. 1 and Dec. 1
Four-per-cents.....	4	"	"	"	January 1 and April 1 July 1 and October 1

The only coupon bonds are in the Four- and the Four-and-a-half-per-cent loans. They are in denominations of $50, $100, $500, and $1,000.

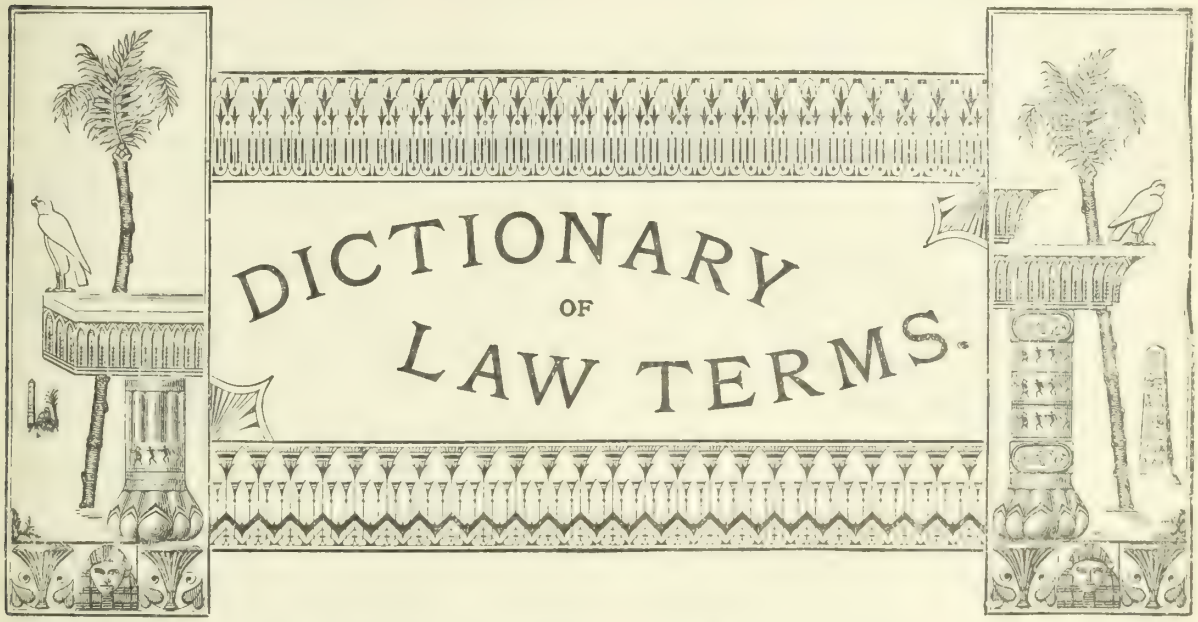
There are registered bonds of all issues. They are in denominations of $50, $100, $500, $1,000, $5,000 and $10,000, except that of the Currency Sixes there are none of a less denomination than $1,000.

Of the funded loans, viz., the Five-per-cents (continued at 3½ per cent.), the Four-and-a-half-per-cents, and the Four-per-cents, there are, in addition to the above, registered bonds of the denomination of $20,000 and $50,000.

It is not generally advisable to have bonds registered in higher denominations than $10,000, as they will not bring as good a price in the market in case of sale. The highest denomination which is a *good delivery* at the New York Stock Exchange is $10,000

CALLED BONDS.

Bonds concerning which the Government has exercised its option of redemption, and given notice that they will cease to bear interest after a certain date, are designated as "called bonds."



ABANDONMENT. The relinquishing to the underwriters, under an insurance, of all the property saved from a wreck, in order to entitle the insured to claim for a total loss.

Abate. To break down, destroy, or remove; as, for instance, to abate (remove or put an end to) a nuisance.

Abduction. The unlawful taking or detention of a woman (having property in possession or expectancy) against her will, with the intention of procuring her marriage or defilement. Also the unlawful taking of an unmarried girl, under the age of sixteen years, out of the possession, and against the will of, the father, or other person having the lawful care of her, although done without force or corrupt motives. The former is a felony, and the latter a misdemeanor.

Abettor. A person who encourages or excites another to commit an offence punishable by law.

Abeyance. The fee simple of lands is in abeyance when there is no person in being in whom it can vest, so that it is in a state of expectancy or waiting until a proper person shall appear, or the right thereto is determined. The same applies to dignities or offices.

Abjuration (oath of). An oath disclaiming any right in the pretender to the British throne, and also the jurisdiction and authority of the pope or any other foreign prince within this realm.

Abortion. The offence of procuring the miscarriage of a woman quick with child.

Abstract of Title. An epitome of the deeds and documents constituting the evidence of title to an estate.

Acceptance. The act by which a person on whom a bill of exchange is drawn undertakes to pay it at maturity. The bill of exchange itself is sometimes called, in common parlance, an acceptance.

Accessory. A person concerned in a felonious offence, although not the actual perpetrator, nor present at its performance. He may be accessory either before or after the fact.

Accommodation Bill. A bill of exchange accepted without value, for the purpose of raising money thereon by discount.

Account Stated. An account closed or balanced.

Acknowledgment by a Married Woman. A ceremony gone through by a married woman to enable her to convey her interest in land, and which has been substituted for the old process of a fine.

Action. The method of demanding the enforcement of a legal right, and procuring redress for a civil injury in the courts of common law.

Act of Parliament. See Statutes.

Acts of Bankruptcy are numerous—such as keeping out of the way to avoid a creditor, etc.

Addition. The title, degree, profession, or business, and also the place of abode of a person.

Adjudication. In England, the act of giving judgment, as, for instance, when a bankruptcy judge finds a party bankrupt, it is called the Adjudication. In Scotland it is applied to the law whereby a creditor attaches the property of his debtor, and has different significations according to the nature of the property attached.

Administrator. He that has the goods of a person dying without a will committed to his care, for the purpose of legal distribution. The nearest of kin is entitled to administration.

Admiralty (Court of), has cognizance of all civil (but not now, as it had formerly, of criminal) matters, arising on the high seas, or on those parts of the coast which are not within the limits of an English county.—Also of prize cases. Criminal matters are triable before the ordinary assize courts of the nearest English county.

Ad Valorem. Stamp duties, the amount of which is regulated according to the value of the property, etc., are so termed.

Advowson. The right of presentation to an ecclesiastical benefice. He who possesses this right is styled the patron. Advowsons are of three kinds, presentative, collative, or donative.

Affidavit. A written statement upon oath. It must be sworn before a person authorized to administer oaths; who that is, depends upon what the affidavit relates to. The same officer is not usually empowered to administer oaths in all the courts.

Affinity. Relation by marriage between the husband or wife and the blood relations of either; but not between the husband and wife themselves.

Affirmation. A solemn declaration in lieu of an oath.

A Fortiori. By so much stronger reason.

Agent. A person appointed to do an act for another. The act when performed is, in law, the act of the principal; the maxim being "qui facit peralium facit per se."

Agistment. Where cattle are taken in to pasture; from agiser, i. e., levant and couchant.

Alderman. Literally, an elder man. In London the aldermen are magistrates chosen for life.

Alibi. Elsewhere. A defence by which it is proved that the accused was not at the place where the offence was committed at the time of its commission.

Alien. One born in a foreign country out of the allegiance of the queen.

To Aliene. To convey or dispose of property to another.

Alimony. An allowance made by a husband to his wife when living apart from her.

Aliunde. Elsewhere, besides, &c.

Allegations. The pleadings in the Ecclesiastical Courts are so termed.

Allegiance. The obedience which every subject owes to his prince or liege lord.

Allocation. An allowance made on an account in the Exchequer.

Allocatur. The certificate by which a taxing master certifies the amount at which he has taxed a bill of costs.

Allodial (contradistinguished from feudal), is where lands are held free, i. e. without being subject to any fine, rent, or service.

Amicus Curiæ. A counsel (or by-stander), who informs the judge on a point of law, on which he is doubtful or mistaken.

Ancestor. The law distinguishes between ancestor and predecessor; the former is applied to individuals, the latter to corporations.

Ancient Demesne. A tenure of lands partaking of the properties both of copyhold and freehold.

Apparator. A messenger that serves the process of the Ecclesiastical Court.

Appeal. The removal of a cause from an inferior into a superior court, for the purpose of impeaching the judgment of the inferior court.

Appearance to Action. The first formal step by a defendant in an action or suit. It is a notice that he intends to defend.

Appellant. The person appealing to a superior from the decision of an inferior court.

Appanage. The portion of the younger children of continental princes.

Appointment. A formal execution of some power or authority; as, for instance, a power to dispose of property amongst a certain class, as children or grandchildren.

Appraiser. A person who values personal chattels.

Appropriation. The appropriation of a payment means the applying of it to the discharge of a particular debt, where the creditor to whom it is made has more than one debt due from the same debtor.

Approver. A person guilty of an indictable offence, who, to obtain pardon for himself, makes a full confession, and is admitted to give evidence against his accomplices.

Arbitration. An extrajudicial method of settling matters in difference by referring them to the arbitrament or determination of persons appointed by the disputants, and termed arbitrators.

Arches Court. A court of appeal from all inferior Ecclesiastical Courts within the province of Canterbury, England.

Arraignment. A term of criminal procedure. A prisoner, after having had the indictment read over to him, is commanded to state whether or not he is guilty. This proceeding is termed the arraignment.

Arrest. A legal seizure, capture, or taking of a man's person which is effected by corporeal touching, or something equivalent thereto. In civil cases a man can only be arrested under legal process. The officer cannot break open a man's outer door for the purpose of arresting him; nor can arrest on a civil process be effected on a Sunday, except after an escape.

Arrest of Judgment. Where the court stays a judgment, after a verdict, on some question of law.

Arson. Felonious houseburning.

Articled Clerk. A student bound by deed to serve an attorney preparatory to his own admission to practice.

Articles of the Peace. A complaint against a person to compel him to find sureties to keep the peace.

Assault and Battery. An attempt or offer, with force and violence, to do a corporal hurt to another is an assault; an injury actually done to the person of another in an angry, revengeful, or insolent manner, be it ever so small, is a battery.

Assets. Property, whether real or personal, in the hands of an executor, &c., for the purpose of satisfying debts.

Assignee. A person to whom any real or personal property is transferred by the act of law, as an executor, an assignee of a bankrupt, &c., or by the act of party, as a purchaser of a lease.

Assignment. A transfer of any kind of property from one person to another.

Assumpsit. A verbal or parol promise expressed or implied, springing out of a simple contract. The law always implies a promise to do that which a party is legally bound to perform. An action of assumpsit or promise is the remedy for breach of a parol as distinguished from a written contract.

Assurance. The securing the payment of a sum of money or other benefit on the happening of a certain event, as, for instance, the death of a person. This is the term now usually applied to life contingencies, as contradistinguished from fires, losses at sea, &c., as to which the term insurance is still used.

Attachment. A process of the Courts of Law and Equity for compelling by arrest the performance of an act, which a party is already in contempt for not performing. Also an ancient remedy open to creditors in London, and some other cities, to attach the money or goods of their debtor in the hands of a third party within the city.

Attorney. A person appointed by another by letter or power of attorney to do anything for him in his absence.

Attorney-at-Law. An officer of the superior courts of law, legally authorized to transact the business of other persons—termed his clients—in those courts.

Attornment. An acknowledgment by one person that he holds lands, or is the tenant, of another, thereby creating between them the relation of landlord and tenant.

Autre Droit. When a person holds an estate not in his own right, but in right of another.

Autre Vie. For the life of another.

Average. A contribution to a general loss. When, for the safety of a ship in distress, any destruction of property is incurred, all persons having goods on board contribute ratably to the loss; this is called average.

Award. The judgment or decision of an arbitrator.

Backing a Warrant. The indorsing by a justice of the peace of the county where a warrant (which has been granted by the justice of the peace of another county) is about to be executed, and is a necessary act to be done before a person can be apprehended in a county different to that in which the warrant was issued.

Bail. The sureties for the reappearance of a person released from custody.

Bail-Bond. A document under seal, by which a person becomes bail.

Bailee. An individual intrusted with the custody of goods; for instance, a carrier.

Bailiff. There are various kinds of bailiffs; the most common being those appointed by the sheriff, commonly called sheriff's officer.

Bailment. A delivery of a thing in trust for some special object or purpose.

Bailor. The person who makes a bailment, or delivers goods to a bailee.

Banc, or Banco (sittings in). The sittings of the judges of the superior Courts of Common Law.

Banker. A person who holds the money of another, and disposes of it as the other from time to time directs.

Bank Note. A promise by a banker to pay a specified sum to the holder.

Bankrupt. A trader who is indebted in a certain amount, and has committed an act of bankruptcy. See Acts of Bankruptcy.

Bargain and Sale. A form of conveyance; but rarely now used.

Baron and Feme. The old legal style of husband and wife.

Barratry. Any act of the master or crew of a ship which is of a criminal or fraudulent nature, tending to the prejudice of the owners.

Barristers. A body of men qualified by admission in one of the Inns of Court to plead as advocates; such admission is termed, being "called to the bar."

Base Fee. A freehold estate of inheritance, liable to be determined on the happening of a certain event.

Battel. A trial by combat, formerly allowed by the law, by which the innocence or guilt of a party was decided.

Battery. See Assault and Battery.

Bencher. A Senior of the Inns of Court.

Benefice. An ecclesiastical living.

Benefit of Clergy. Certain privileges formerly enjoyed by the clergy alone; afterwards a privilege claimed by all criminals who could read, but now abolished.

Bequest. A testamentary disposition of personal estate.

Bigamy. The criminal offence of a married man or woman pretending to marry again, his wife or her husband (as the case may be) being still alive.

Bill. The term applied to an intended statute when passing through Congress, prior to its becoming law.

Bill in Chancery. A printed statement of the plaintiff's case in the form of a petition to the Lord Chancellor, praying for redress. It is the first step in a suit.

Bill of Exceptions. A mode of appealing from the decision of a judge on a point of law.

Bill of Exchange. A written order for payment of money by one person (called the drawer) upon another (termed the drawee). When the drawee has undertaken to pay the bill, which he does by writing his name across it, he is termed the acceptor. Bills of exchange are negotiable, i. e. they confer on the holder the right of suing upon it, which he could not do in the case of a mere ordinary contract, for the want of that privity which the law in ordinary cases requires between the parties to a contract. The law as to bills of exchange is governed by the law Merchant. See Law Merchant.

Bill of Lading. A memorandum or receipt signed by the master of a ship, acknowledging the shipment of goods, which are usually made deliverable to the consignee, or his order. One part of the bill of lading is sent to the consignee by post. By indorsing the bill of lading the property in the goods is passed to the indorsee, and so from hand to hand. The bill of lading, properly indorsed, forms, in fact, the title to the goods, and without the production of which the captain would not deliver the goods.

Bill of Sale. An assignment of goods and chattels, by writing; generally, but not necessarily, under hand and seal.

Bona Fide. With good faith.

Bond. A written obligation, under seal. If for the payment of a sum of money upon or after the death of a person, it is then termed a post-obit bond. The person making a bond is called the obligor, and he to whom it is given, the obligee.

Borough. A town having now, or having formerly had, corporate rights.

Borough-English. A tenure by which the youngest son inherits from the father.

Bottomry. The borrowing of money by the master on the bottom or hull of a ship; to be paid with interest, if the ship return in safety, but otherwise to be lost or forfeited.

Breach of Covenant. The doing of an act which a party has covenanted not to do, or the neglecting to do that which he has covenanted to perform.

Breach of the Peace. An act by which the public repose is disturbed, and the safety of the community, more or less, endangered.

Breach of Promise. The doing, or abstaining from doing, something contrary to an undertaking or contract.

Breach of Trust. A neglect of duty by a trustee, or person standing in a fiduciary relation, in violation of his trust.

Bribery. The giving or receiving any reward for corrupt purposes.

Brief. An abridgment of a client's case, for the instruction of counsel on a trial, or hearing in court.

Broker. An agent employed to buy or sell goods; a sort of middleman between vendor and purchaser. He is not, like a factor, intrusted with the possession of the articles he vends.

Brokerage. The commission paid to a broker.

Burgage Tenure. A tenure whereby houses or lands are held in certain ancient boroughs.

Burgesses includes all the inhabitants of a borough.

Burglary. The offence of entering a dwelling-house, in the night, with intent to commit felony.

Bursar. The treasurer of a college. In Scotland it is nearly synonymous with sizar in the English universities.

By-Law. A private law made by those duly authorized by charter, custom, or prescription; but such by-law must be consonant to the public laws laws and statutes, and for the common benefit.

Canon Law. A collection of ecclesiastical constitutions, definitions, and rules, derived from the ancient councils, the writings of the fathers, ordinances of popes, etc. At the Reformation it was enacted that a review should be had of the Canon Law; but that, until such review, the existing law should continue in force, except as far as the same should be repugnant to the law of the land or the Royal Prerogatives—this still remains the state of the law, such review never having been made. The canons of 1603, having been made by the clergy, and confirmed by the king, James I., alone, but not by Parliament, do not bind the laity.

Capias. A writ authorizing the arrest of a defendant in a suit. It is issued, either after judgment, or when it is satisfactorily shown that the defendant is about to leave the realm before trial.

Capias ad Satisfaciendum, or Ca-sa. The writ of capias when issued after judgment: so termed, because the defendant is taken to satisfy the plaintiff's demands.

Caption. The act of arresting a man. See Arrest.

Carrier. A person whose business it is to carry goods, for the proper delivery and safety of which he is legally responsible.

Casus Omissus. Where anything is omitted, or not provided against by a statute, &c.

Caveat. A proceeding to prevent an act being done, such as the granting of administration, without notice to the party entering the caveat.

Caveat Emptor. Let the purchaser beware. It signifies that a vendor is not bound to answer for the goodness of his wares, unless he expressly warrants them.

Certiorari. A writ for the removal of a cause from an inferior to a superior court. This writ always lies, unless where expressly taken away by statute, and herein it differs from an appeal, which can never be had unless expressly given.

Cestui que Trust. He who is the real and beneficial owner of property held in trust.

Cestui que Vie. The person for whose life lands are held. See Tenant pur autre vie.

Challenge. An exception taken by a prisoner against one or more jurors, who, when challenged, are set aside, if the challenge be allowed, and new ones put in their places.

Chambers. A lawyer's apartments.

Champerty. The offence of unlawfully maintaining a suit in consideration of a bargain for a part of the thing in dispute, or some profit out of it.

Chancellor. An officer of the highest dignity and authority in various departments.

Chance Medley. The accidental killing of any one, without malice prepense.

Chancery. The highest court of judicature next to the Parliament, and of very ancient institution. The Court of Chancery is called a Court of Equity, because it was instituted for the purpose of proceeding by the rules of equity and conscience, and of moderating the rigor of the common law; equity being the correction of that wherein the law, by reason of its universality, is deficient.—Yet the Court of Chancery is not intended to act in opposition to, but in assistance of, the common law, supplying its deficiencies, not contradicting its rules; no judgment of law being reversible by a degree in Chancery.

Charter. A royal grant or privilege, granted to corporations, companies, etc.

Charter-Party. An instrument between merchants and owners or masters of ships, containing the particulars of the contract for the hire of the ship. It is in fact a mercantile lease of the ship.

Chattels. There are two kinds, chattels real and chattels personal; the former are leasehold property, and the latter personal goods of chattels, as furniture or money.

Chose. A thing. Chose-en-action is a thing of which a man has not the possession, and which he can only claim by action, as, for instance, a debt owing to him by another.

Church Rates. Rates assessed by the parishioners, in vestry assembled, for the repair of the parish church. It is now definitely settled that, if the majority vote against the rate, it may be resisted with impunity.

Churchwardens. Officers annually chosen to superintend the church, churchyard, and such things as belong thereto.

Citation. The first step in an ecclesiastical cause, analogous to the writ of summons in an action.

Civil Law. The Roman law is comprised in the institutes, code, and digest of the Emperor Justinian.

Clerk. The strict definition of the word "clerk" is a person in holy orders, but it is now generally applied to any person whose chief occupation is writing.

Client. Anciently, a Roman citizen, taken under the protection of some great man, who was styled his patron. The term is now applied to a party who employs a solicitor or counsel in any legal proceeding.

Close. An enclosed piece of ground.

Code. A collection or system of laws, as the Code Napoleon.

Codicil. A supplement to a will. See Will.

Cognovit Actionem. An instrument by which a defendant acknowledges the plaintiff's cause and suffers judgment to be entered against him without trial.

Collateral Descent. That which descends from a side branch of a family; as from an uncle or a nephew.

Collative. An advowson vested in the bishop. He cannot present to himself, but he confers the benefice on his nominee by collation.

Commendam. A beneficed clergyman, when promoted to a bishopric, vacates his benefice by the promotion, but the crown might formerly, by special grant, have given him power to retain his benefice, and when this was done, he was said to hold it in commendam. Grants in commendam are now abolished.

Commission. The warrant, or letters-patent, authorizing any inquiry judicial or otherwise; as the commission of the judges, the commission of the peace, etc.

Commitment. The sending a person who has been guilty of any crime to prison, by warrant or order.

Committee. Persons to whom the consideration of any matter is referred; as a Committee of the House of Congress.

Common (Rights of). These are of four sorts: viz., pasture, piscary, estovers, and turbary. Common of pasture is the right of feeding one's cattle on the land of another; piscary, that of fishing in waters belonging to another; estovers, the right of taking wood from another's estate, for household use and implements in husbandry; and turbary, the right of digging turf upon another's ground.

Common Law. The law of England is composed of Acts of Parliament or statutes, and the custom of the realm. The latter consisting of those rules or maxims, which have obtained by common consent an immemorial usage. The former are designated the lex scripta, or statute law; the latter the lex non scripta, or common law. This term is also applied to the superior courts of Westminster, which are called Courts of Common Law, as distinguished from the Court of Chancery, which is a Court of Equity.

Commonalty. In London one of the component parts of the Livery Companies, which consist of the master, wardens, and commonalty.

Commutation of Tithes. The term applied to the conversion of the tithes in England into a fixed rent charge.

Complainant. One who complains of the act of another in a court of justice, more commonly called plaintiff.

Compounding Offences. Entering into an agreement not to prosecute an offender, for any consideration received or to be received, constitutes a crime, for which the offender may be indicted.

Compounding with Creditors. An agreement by which creditors take a portion of their claims in discharge of the whole.

Conditions of Sale. The terms upon which a vendor undertakes to sell to a purchaser.

Confirmation. A deed by which a voidable estate in land is made perfect.

Congé d'Élire. The license of the crown to a dean and chapter to choose a bishop; a mere form to be gone through, as they can only accept or reject the candidate nominated by the crown.

Conjugal Rights. Those rights of husband and wife which spring out of their relationship.

Consanguinity. Relationship by blood, in contradistinction to affinity, which is a relationship by marriage.

Conservator. A standing arbitrator, appointed to compose and adjust differences that may arise between parties, etc.

Consideration. The price or motive of a contract, without which a simple contract is void. In technical language, it may be defined as "some detriment to the plaintiff sustained for the sake or at the instance of the defendant, or some benefit to the defendant moving from the plaintiff."

Consignee. A person to whom goods are delivered either as purchaser, or more generally for sale on commission.

Consignor. The person by whose act or directions goods are delivered to the consignee.

Consignment. The act of making over, or delivering, goods to another.

Conspiracy. A combination of two or more persons to carry into effect an unlawful purpose.

Constructive Trust. A trust founded in what the law deems to be the presumed, as contradistinguished from the expressed, intention of its creator.

Consul. An officer appointed by government to reside abroad and watch over the interests of our countrymen, who may happen to reside in or be passing through the place where the consul is located.

Contempt. A disobedience to the rules, orders, or process of a court, which has power to punish such offence, which it does by imprisonment.

Contingent Remainders. Estates which cannot become vested until the happening of some uncertain event.

Contract. A covenant or agreement between two or more persons with a lawful consideration.

Contribution. Where one surety or joint contractor has been obliged to satisfy the whole demand, he may obtain contribution from his fellow-surety or contractor.

Contributory. One liable to contribute to the liquidation of the liabilities of a joint-stock company, under the Winding-up Acts.

Conveyance. A deed which passes or conveys land from one person to another.

Conveyancers. Persons who devote themselves to the preparation of formal documents concerning property.

Convict. He that is found guilty of an offence by the verdict of a jury.

Coparceners. Such as have equal shares in the inheritance of their ancestors; as, where a man dies intestate, having two daughters, his heiresses, they take his freehold lands as coparceners.

Copyhold. Land held by a copy of the court rolls of a manor.

Copyright. The exclusive right which the law allows an author of printing and publishing his own original work for a prescribed period, viz., the term of his natural life, and seven years afterwards; and if such seven years expire before forty-two years from the time of the first publication, then for such forty-two years.

Coram non Judice. When a judge in a court of law exceeds his jurisdiction in a cause, it is said to be coram non judice.

Coroner. An officer whose duty it is to inquire into the cause by which any person came to a sudden or violent death, which must be done, before him and the jury assembled for the purpose, upon view of the body.

Costs. The expenses incurred in the prosecution or defence of legal proceedings, of which there are two kinds, those between party and party, and those between attorney and client.

Counsel. See "Barrister at Law," who is usually termed counsel or counsellor.

Count, in common-law pleadings, is a section of a declaration.

County Court. Local courts established throughout the country.

Court Baron. A court incident to every manor, held by the steward, in which surrenders and admittances of the manor lands are passed, and other matters relating thereto transacted.

Court Christian. The Ecclesiastical Courts are so called, as distinguished from the civil courts.

Covenant. An agreement under seal.

Coverture. The state of a married woman as being under the protection and influence of her husband or baron. She is called a feme covert.

Crassa Negligentia. Gross neglect.

Crim. Con., or Criminal Conversation. Illicit conversation with a married woman, for which the party is liable to an action for damages.

Cross-examination. The interrogation of a witness by or on behalf of the party against whom the evidence is given.

Curia Advisare Vult. When the court takes time to consider its

Cursitors. Officers of the Court of Chancery who make out all original writs.

Curtesy of England. An estate which a husband has for his life in his wife's fee simple, or fee tail estates after her death. The wife must have been actually seised of such estates, and have had issue born alive.

Custodia Legis. In the custody of the law.

Custom. A law, not written, established by long use, and the consent of our ancestors: if it be universal, it is common law; if particular, it is then properly custom.

Customs. Duties levied on commodities exported and imported.

Custos Rotulorum. The officer who has the custody of the rolls or records of a county.

Cy prés (as near to). An equitable doctrine applied in certain cases, where the court cannot adhere strictly to the terms of an instrument, but carries it into effect cy prés, or as near to the object as it can.

Damages. The amount of money awarded by a jury, to be paid by a defendant to a plaintiff, as a compensation for the injury of which the latter complains.

Damnum absque injuria. Any act done by one which may cause loss to another without doing him a legal injury.

De bene esse. To do a thing de bene esse is to accept or allow it for the present as good, until it comes to be more fully examined, and then to stand or fall according to its merits.

Debenture. A written instrument of the nature of a bond or bill for a certain sum of money.

De bonis non. When an administrator dies, the right does not descend to his own representative, but a fresh grant of administration must be obtained of the goods remaining unadministered, and which is called an administration de bonis non.

Declaration, in an action at law, signifies the plaintiff's statement of his cause of action.

Declaration of Trust. A written or verbal expression or statement by which a person acknowledges himself to be a trustee for another. If relating to lands, it must be in writing.

Decree. The judgment of a Court of Equity.

De die in diem. From day to day.

Deed. A writing sealed and delivered by the parties to it.

De facto. A thing actually done or existing.

Default (Judgment by). If a defendant omits to appear or plead to an action, within the time allowed, the plaintiff can sign judgment by default.

Defaulter. A person who neglects to perform an act required to be done.

Defeasance. A collateral deed made at the same time with some other deed, and containing certain conditions which may defeat or render null and void the provisions of such other deed.

Defendant. The party against whom an action or suit is brought.

Del credere. The additional commission paid to a factor who guarantees the payment of the purchase-money of goods sold by him.

Demesne. Lands which formerly the lord kept in his own hands, being next to his mansion.

Demise. A word used in conveyances of estates for terms of years.

Demurrage. A compensation or allowance for detaining a ship beyond the usual or specified time.

Demurrer. A mode of raising a point of law, upon the facts stated in the pleadings, assuming them to be true.

Denizen. An alien who, on obtaining letters patent, was enabled to purchase and devise land.

Deodand, was anything, as a horse or a carriage, which by accident caused the death of a human being, and thereby became forfeited.

Deposition. The testimony of a witness taken down in writing and signed by him.

Descent. One of the modes of acquiring a title to real property.

De son tort of his own wrong. A term applied to a party who assumes to act as the executor of a deceased party without any legal authority.

Detainer. A writ whereby a person may be detained in custody.

Detinue. The form of action to recover possession of goods and chattels wrongfully withheld.

Devise. The giving away of lands or other real estate by will.

Disability. A legal incapacity to do an act.

Disclaimer. A renunciation by an executor or trustee of the office imposed upon him, also a mode of defence in equity, etc.

Discovert. A term applied to a widow or unmarried woman.

Disfranchise. To take away from certain places or persons any privilege, freedom, or liberty.

Disseisin. A wrongful invasion of the possession of another, and turning him out from the occupation of his lands, either by force or surprise.

Distress. The distraining or taking the effects of a tenant, in order to satisfy the rent due to his landlord.

Distringas (on Stock). A writ which stops the transfer of stock by the party in whose name it stands, and can be obtained at the instance of any party beneficially interested in the stock.

Divorce. The legal separation of husband and wife. In England there are two kinds of divorce, the one absolute, the other what is now called a Judicial Separation. See the recent Statute 20 & 21 Vic. cap. 85, which takes away the jurisdiction, in matrimonial matters, from the Ecclesiastical Courts, and vests the same in a New Court, which consists of the "Judge Ordinary," and the Full Court, the latter only having power to grant an absolute divorce. By this Act a judicial separation (which does not enable the parties to marry again) may be obtained by *husband* or *wife*, for (1.) Adultery, (2.) Cruelty, or (3.) Desertion without cause for two years. As to an Absolute Divorce, a difference takes place if it be the wife, instead of the husband, applying for it; thus, a husband can obtain an absolute divorce against his wife on the ground of adultery, but an absolute divorce by a wife against her husband can only be obtained if the husband has been guilty of (1) incestuous adultery, or (2) of bigamy with adultery, or (3) of rape, or sodomy, or bestiality, or (4) of adultery coupled with cruelty, or (5) of adultery coupled with desertion, without reasonable cause, for two years.

Doctors of Civil Law. A degree (D.C.L.), granted by our Universities of Oxford and Cambridge to such of its members as are learned in the civil law.

Doctors Commons. A college of civilians in London, near St. Paul's Cathedral, where also the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts are held. But by the recent statute abolishing the probate and matrimonial jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts, power is given to the doctors to dissolve this college.

Doli Capax. Capable of committing a crime.

Doli Incapax. Incapable of committing a crime.

Domicile. The domicile of a person is where he has his permanent home. There are three sorts of domiciles—by birth, by choice, and by operation of law.

Domitæ Naturæ, tame by nature. A term applied to animals of a naturally tame disposition, as sheep, etc.

Donatio Mortis Causa. A gift of chattels made by a person in a dying state, to become absolute only in the event of his death.

Donative. A benefice given by the patron direct to the clerk by deed, without either presentation to, or induction by, the bishop.

Doomsday-Book. An ancient work compiled in the time of William the Conqueror consisting of two volumes, which contains the details of a great survey of the kingdom. These volumes are now preserved in the Exchequer

Dower. A widow is entitled, at the death of her husband, to a life-interest in a third part of the estates of inheritance of which her husband was seised, and did *not* dispose of by deed or will.

Drawer. See Bill of Exchange.

Duces Tecum. A clause added to a subpœna requiring the witness to bring with him, and produce at the trial, certain documents in his possession.

Durante Bene Placito. During pleasure.

Durante Minore Ætate. During minority.

Durante Viduitate. During widowhood.

Durante Vita. During life.

Duress. Anything done under compulsion and through unavoidable necessity.

Easement. A convenience which one has in or over the lands of another, as a way or a water course.

Easter Term. One of the four law terms, commencing on the 15th April and ending the 8th May in each year.

Ecclesiastical Courts. *Arches Court.* The jurisdiction of these

courts is now confined to church matters, they having been shorn of that which constituted nine-tenths of their business, viz. the jurisdiction in testamentary and matrimonial matters.

Effluxion of Time. The expiration of a term in its natural course as contradistinguished to its determination by act of the parties.

Ejectment. An action at law to recover the possession of lands.

Elegit. A writ of execution under which all the debtor's lands may be seized or extended, and held by the judgment creditor until his judgment is satisfied.

Embezzlement. The act of appropriating that which is received in trust for another, which is a criminal offence.

Emblements. The growing crops which are annually produced by the labor of the cultivator. They are deemed personal property, and pass as such to the executors, and not to the heir.

Enfeoff (to). The act of conveying an estate of freehold by deed of feoffment.

Enfranchisement. The admittance of a person into a society or body-politic. Enfranchisement of copyholds is a conversion of copyholds into freehold tenure.

Engrossing. A style of writing, not now generally used for deeds, but still used for the probates of wills.

Enrolment. The registering of deeds as required by certain statutes; as, for instance, deeds conveying lands to charitable uses.

Entail. That inheritance whereof a man is seized *to him and the heirs of his body. Tail-General* is where lands and tenements are given to one, and the heirs of his body generally. Tenant in *tail-special* is where the gift is restrained to certain heirs of the donee's body as male or female. There is no such thing as a perpetual entail by the law of England. The way in which property is tied up in families is by repeated settlements. If in any one generation the usual settlement (which of course is the act of the parties and not of the law) should not be executed, the entailed property would be free. The property settled by the nation on Marlborough and Wellington were, by special Act of Parliament, vested in their heirs for ever, thus in fact creating what the common law would not permit, a perpetual entail.

Equitable Estate. The beneficial interest of a cestui que trust, the *legal* ownership being in a trustee.

Equitable Mortgage. The most familiar instance is the deposit (either with or without a memorandum, although it is better to have one) of the title deeds of an estate by way of security, which constitutes an equitable mortgage without the execution of any formal mortgage *deed*.

Equity of Redemption. The right which equity gives to a mortgager of redeeming his estate after the appointed time for payment has passed, and which right can only be barred by a foreclosure.

Error. A writ of error is a commission to judges of a superior court, by which they are authorized to examine the record, upon which a judgment was given in an inferior court, and to affirm, reverse, or vary the same, according to law.

Escheat. Is where lands, for want of heirs, or from forfeiture, escheat or fall back to the sovereign or lord of the fee as the original grantor.

Escrow. A deed delivered to a 3d person conditionally until something is done by the grantor. Until the condition has been performed the deed has no legal effect.

Estate. The interest which a person has in lands, or other property.

Estoppel. Where a man is precluded in law from alleging or denying a fact in consequence of his own previous act, allegation, or denial to the contrary.

Estreat. Where a recognizance becomes forfeited by any of its conditions being broken, it is *estreated*; that is, extracted from the record, and sent up to the Exchequer, whence a process will issue to recover the penalty.

Evidence. Proof, either written or unwritten, of the facts in issue in any legal proceeding.

Exchange of Lands. A mutual grant of lands; the one in consideration of the other.

Excise. A tax or impost charge by government on certain commodities.

Excommunication. A punishment inflicted by the sentence of an Ecclesiastical Court debarring the offender from the sacraments, etc.

Execution. The act of putting the sentence of the law into force.

Executor. One appointed by a person's last will to administer his personal estate.

Executor de son tort. A stranger who takes upon himself to act as executor without any authority.

Exhibits. Documents, etc., produced in evidence, and marked for the purpose of identification.

Exigent. A writ used in the process of outlawry.

Ex-officio. Anything done by virtue of an office. An information filed by the Attorney-general, by virtue of his office, is called an *Ex-officio Information*.

Ex-parte. A statement is called *Ex-parte* where only one of the parties gives an account of a transaction, in which two or more are concerned.

Ex-post-facto. An ex-post-facto law, is a law made purposely to restrain or punish an offence already committed.

Extra-judicial. Any act done by a judge beyond his authority, or any opinion expressed by him not strictly pertinent to the matter in issue before him.

Extra-parochial. Places which are out of the bounds or limits of a parish; and, therefore, exempt from parish rates and duties.

Eyre (Justices in). The word eyre, or eire, is French, and is derived from the Latin *iter*, a journey. Thus, the term Justices in Eyre signifies the itinerant court of justices, or those who journey from place to place to hold assizes.

Factor. An agent intrusted with the possession of goods for sale belonging to his principal. A broker, on the other hand, has not the custody of the goods of his principal. See Broker.

Faculty. A privilege or dispensation granted by an Ecclesiastical Court in certain cases.

False pretenses. The criminal offence of obtaining any chattel, money, or valuable security by means of a false pretence; it is punishable by transportation, fine, or imprisonment.

False return. An incorrect account, given by a sheriff, of his doings under a writ of execution, for which he is liable to an action.

Falsi crimen. A fraudulent concealment of the truth.

Fealty. The duty due to a lord from his tenant, pursuant to the oath taken at his admittance.

Fee-simple. That estate or interest in lands which a person holds to him and his heirs for ever. During his life he possesses over it a perfectly free and unrestrained power of disposition, and, on his death without having alienated it by deed or will, it descends to his heirs, both lineal and collateral, male and female, according to an established order of descent.

Felo-de-se. One who commits self-murder.

Felony. Formerly defined as comprising "all capital crimes below treason." It may now more accurately be defined as comprising all crimes occasioning a forfeiture of lands or goods, or both.

Feme-covert. A married woman. See Coverture.

Feme-sole. An unmarried woman.

Feoffment. A mode of conveyance of lands in fee, accompanied by certain solemnities. It is rarely, if ever, now used.

Feræ naturæ. Animals that are of a wild nature, such as foxes, hares, wild fowl, etc., in opposition to tame and domesticated animals.

Fiat. An order or warrant for a thing to be done or executed.

Fieri Facias. A writ of execution, by which the sheriff is commanded to levy the debt and damages of the goods and chattels of the defendant.

Finding. A finder of goods may appropriate them to his own use if he really believes when he takes them that the owner cannot be found; but if a jury should say that the finder appropriated the goods, not having (or that he could reasonably be supposed not to have had) such belief at the time of appropriation, it amounts to a theft, and can be punished criminally.

Finding a Bill. The grand jury either find or ignore the bills against prisoners; if they find a true bill, the case goes into court, and is tried.

Fire bote. The wood which a tenant of lands is legally entitled to take for the purpose of making his fires. If he takes too much he commits waste, and is liable to an action.

Fire policy. An instrument by which an insurane ccompany guarantees to a person, who has insured his property, the payment of a sum of money if it is injured or destroyed by fire.

First-fruits and tenths. Certain revenues arising to the Crown from ecclesiastical livings; which now form the fund called Queen Anne's Bounty, for the augmentation of poor livings.

Fixtures. This term is generally used to denote those personal chattels which though annexed to the freehold of demised premises, a tenant is nevertheless entitled to remove. They consist of trade fixtures, and of those put up for the ornament or convenience of the premises.

Foreclosure. The barring the equity of redemption on mortgages.

Foreign Bill of Exchange. A bill drawn by a person abroad and accepted in the United States, or *vice versa*.

Forfeiting recognizances. When a person who has entered into recognizances, fails to comply with their conditions, the same are forfeited or estreated.

Forfeiture. A punishment consequent upon the commission of certain crimal offences or illegal acts.

Forgery. The crime of counterfeiting a signature, seal, or mark; or the fraudulent alteration of a writing to the prejudice of another.

Franchise. A royal privilege to which a subject is entitled—as a fair, a market, a free warren, a park.

Fraud. A dishonest and illegal artifice by which undue advantage is taken of another, or by which the interests of that other are unjustly prejudiced. Fraud strikes at the root of every transaction, and vitiates every contract, whether by record, deed, or otherwise.

Free Bench. Is that estate or interest to which a woman is by virtue of a special custom, entitled for life in the one third part of the copyholds of her husband of which he died possessed, and is analogous to "dower" in frecholds.

Freehold. Lands held in fee-simple, fee-tail, or at least for life.

Freight. The remuneration due to the owner of a ship for the conveyance of goods or merchandise, on which he has a lien for the freight.

Funded Debt. The public debt of this country, consisting of an immense sum which, from time to time, has been lent to government by individuals, and which they or their assigns receive interest for, out of the taxes.

Further assurance. The name given to a covenant in a conveyance whereby the grantor undertakes to do any further act which may be required for perfecting the grantee's estate.

Future estates. Estates not in possession, but in expectancy, as a remainder.

Garnishee. The party in whose hands money, due to a defendant, is attached.

General issue. A form of plea in common law actions; so called because the issue that it tenders goes to the whole cause of action.

Gift. A voluntary conveyance or gift of lands or goods. If of the former, it is liable to be defeated in the life-time of the grantor, by his conveying the same lands to a purchaser, for a valuable consideration, even though with notice of the prior gift.

Glebe. The name given to lands annexed to an ecclesiastical benefice.

Grace, days of. The name given to the days of indulgence allowed to the acceptor of a bill of exchange after it becomes due. The number of such days varies in different countries. In some, as in France, they are abolished altogether. In England three days are allowed, so that a bill at a month drawn on the 1st of one month, will become due on the 4th of the next.

Grand Jury. The jury to whom all bills of indictment are referred in the first instance. It is the duty of this jury to interrogate the witnesses for the prosecution, and ascertain whether or not a *prima facie* case is made out against the prisoner; if so, they find a true bill, and he takes his trial, if not, they ignore the bill, and he is discharged.

Grant. A mode of conveyance, formerly applicable only to incorporeal hereditaments, reversions, etc.; but its significance has been extended by a recent statute, and it is now the instrument most usually employed in the conveyance of land.

Guaranty. An engagement to be responsible for the debts or duties of a third person.

Habeas Corpus. A Writ of Right for those who are grieved by il legal imprisonment. The Habeas Corpus Act is next in importance to Magna Charta; for, so long as this statute remains, no subject of England can long be detained in prison, except under legal process.

Habendum. One of the formal parts of a deed; its office is to limit or define the estate granted. It is so called because it begins with the words "to have,"

Heir. The legal representative of his ancestor, with respect to the real property of such ancestor. He takes all the real property, not otherwise disposed of by the ancestor in his life-time or by his will.

Heir apparent is one whose right of inheritance is certain, and which nothing can defeat, provided he outlives his ancestor; as the eldest son or issue. Heir presumptive is one who would inherit, provided his ancestor were to die at that particular time, but whose right of inheritance might be defeated by some nearer heir being afterwards born; as a brother or nephew, whose presumptive succession may be destroyed by the birth of a child.

Heir looms. Such personal chattels as go to the heir along with the inheritance, and not to the executor of the deceased.

Hereditaments. All things which may be inherited, that is, which would descend to the heir, if not disposed of by deed or will. Hereditaments are of two kinds, corporeal and incorporeal.

Heriot. The best beast, or in some cases the best chattel—such as a piece of plate—which falls to the lord of a manor on the death of a tenant. It is regulated by custom, and in some manors it does not apply at all.

Heritable (and Movable) Rights. These terms are used in the Scotch law to denote what in England is meant by *real* and *personal* property: *real* property in England answering nearly to the heritable rights in Scotland, and *personal* property to the movable rights.

Highway rate. A sum of money levied upon persons who are liable to pay poor rates, for the necessary reparation of highways.

Homicide. The crime of killing any human being; of which there are three kinds—*justifiable*, *excusable*, and *felonious*.

House bote. The necessary quantity of wood which a tenant may lawfully take for the reparation and support of the demised premises.

Hue and Cry. The old common law process of pursuing felons "with horn and voice." Also, the name of a paper now circulated amongst the police containing the names and descriptions of felons.

Hypothecate. A term used for pawning a ship and goods, or either, for necessaries, which a master of a ship may do when in distress at sea.

Ignore. When the grand jury reject a bill of indictment, they are said to ignore it, from the Latin word *ignoramus*.

Illegal condition. A condition annexed to anything which is illegal, immoral, impossible, or otherwise contrary to law.

Immoral contracts. Contracts infringing the rules of morality which, for reasons of public policy, are void at law.

Impanelling. Writing in a parchment schedule the names of the jury by the sheriff.

Incorporeal Hereditaments. Hereditaments of a non-tangible nature, and consisting of rights or benefits issuing out of corporal or tangible things—as a rent, an advowson, etc.

Incumbent. The present possessor of an ecclesiastical benefice.

Incumbrance. A charge or lien upon property, as a mortgage.

Indemnity. A written instrument whereby one undertakes to free another from responsibility

Indenture. A deed, or writing, formerly cut or indented; now the name usually given to deeds, although indenting is no longer essential.

Indictment. A written accusation, of one or more persons, of a crime or misdemeanor, preferred to, and presented on oath, by a grand jury.

Indorsement. Anything written on the back of a deed or other instrument; such as a bill of exchange.

Induction. The act of giving to a clergyman the possession of his church.

In esse. This term is used to express anything that has a real being, in contradistinction to the term *in posse*, which implies a thing that is not, but may be.

Infant. Every person is by the law styled an infant till he has attained the age of *twenty-one* years.

Inheritance. An estate in lands or tenements to a man and his heirs.

Inhibition. A writ which issues from a higher Ecclesiastical Court to an inferior one from an appeal.

Injunction. A prohibitory writ granted by the Court of Chancery forbidding certain acts to be done under pain of contempt. It may be granted in urgent cases *ex parte*, but notice is sometimes required to be given.

Inland Bills. Bills of exchange are so called, when the drawer and acceptor both reside in the same country.

Inquest. A meeting of jurors, who are summoned to take into consideration certain matters, which may appear in evidence before them, and to bring in their verdict accordingly.

Inquiry (writ of). A writ directed to the sheriff, commanding him to summon a jury and assess the damages in an action; as, for instance, when the defendant has suffered judgment by default.

Insolvency. The state of a person who is unable to pay his debts.

Institution. Is the ceremony by which a bishop commits the cure of souls to a clerk on his presentation to a church living.

Insurance. A security or indemnification against the risk of loss from the happening of certain events. The usual kinds are fire and marine.

Interesse termini. The interest possessed by a lessee in a lease, after the granting thereof, but before he has entered upon the land demised.

Interpleader. When two or more persons claim the same thing of a third, the latter may call upon them to interplead, *i. e.* to try the right to it between themselves; he, the third person, retaining possession of the thing in the meantime as a kind of stake-holder.

Interrogatories. Written questions, to which the parties interrogated are to give written answers on oath.

Intestate. A person dying without a will, or, having made a will, without appointing an executor thereof.

Inuendoe. That part of the declaration, in actions of libel and slander, which explains the meaning, or points the application, of the libellous or slanderous matter complained of.

In Ventre sa Mere. A child not yet born, but of which the mother is pregnant.

I. O. U. A written acknowledgment of a debt. This instrument is regarded in a court of law as evidence of an account stated. It is not a promissory note, and does not require a stamp.

Issue. The disputed point or question to which the parties in an action have by pleadings narrowed their several allegations, and are hence said to *Join Issue*. If it be an issue of fact, it is tried by a jury, if of law, by the court—*Issue* is also the legal term for children or remoter descendants.

Jactitation of Marriage. When one party boasts or falsely declares that he or she is married to another, whereby a common reputation of their marriage may ensue.

Jeofail. An oversight in pleading or other law proceeding. It is derived from the French *j'ai faille*.

Joinder in Action. The coupling or joining two parties in one suit or action.

Joint-Tenants. Persons who hold lands, etc., jointly by one title. On the death of one the survivor takes the whole.

Jointure. A settlement of lands or tenements on a woman, to take effect after her husband's death in lieu of dower.

Judgment. The *sentence of the law* pronounced by the court upon the matter contained in the record.

Jurat. The clause written at the foot of an affidavit, stating when, and before whom, it was sworn.

Jurist. A civil lawyer.

Jury. A certain number of men sworn to deliver a verdict upon such evidence of facts as shall be delivered to them, touching the matter in question.

Jury list. The list kept by the sheriff of persons liable to serve on juries.

Jus. A law, a right.

Jus accrescendi. The term expressive of the right of survivorship among joint tenants.

Jus ad rem. Signifies an inchoate or imperfect right to a thing, in contradistinction to *Jus in re*, which signifies the complete and perfect right in a thing.

Jus commune. The common law.

Jus gentium. The law of nations.

Justifying Bail. Is the act of proving to the satisfaction of the court that the persons proposed as bail are sufficient for the purpose.

Kin, or Kindred. A relation either of consanguinity or affinity.

Landlord. A proprietor of lands occupied by another, which latter party is termed the tenant.

Lapse. A forfeiture of the right of presentation to a church by the neglect of the patron to present. The word is also applied where a testamentary gift fails by the death of its object in the life-time of the testator.

Larceny. The wrongful and unlawful taking and carrying away by one person of the personal goods of another, with the felonious intention of converting them to his own use.

Law. This word signifies generally an inflexible *rule of action*. The law of England is composed of *written* laws or statutes, and *unwritten* laws, or the customs of the realm. The latter is also termed the Common Law.

Law Merchant. Part of the unwritten or Common Law, consisting of particular customs, that have gradually grown into the force of law and are recognized as such by the courts; such as the law relating to Bills of Exchange, etc.

Law of Nations. A system of rules or principles deduced from the law of nature, and intended for the regulation of the mutual intercourse of nations.

Leading Cases. Cases decided by the superior courts, which have settled and determined important points of law.

Leading Question. A question put or framed in such a form as to suggest the answer sought to be obtained. Such a question is not allowed to be put to a witness, except on cross-examination.

Lease. A conveyance or demise of lands or tenements for life, or years, or at will, but always for a less term than the party conveying has in the premises.

Lease and Release. The form of conveyance, until recently commonly used for conveying land; but a lease, commonly called a lease for a year, is no longer necessary; the release alone being now as effectual as a lease and release were formerly.

Leasehold. Lands held on lease, which (however long the term) are considered as chattels real, and go to the next of kin, and not to the heir on the death of the owner intestate.

Legacy. A gift, or bequest of money, goods or other personal property by will. The person to whom it is given is styled the *legatee*; and, if the gift is of the residue, after payment of debts and legacies, he is then styled the *residuary legatee*.

Le Roi (or La Reine) le vent. (The King or Queen wills it.) The form of the royal assent to public Bills in Parliament.

Lessor and Lessee. The person who grants a lease is called the lessor, the party to whom it is granted, the lessee, and the person to whom either of them assigns, the assignee.

Letters of Administration. The instrument granted by the Probate Court under which administrators derive their title to administer the goods and chattels of an estate.

Letters (or Power) of Attorney. A writing, under seal, empowering another person to do any act instead of the person granting the letter. It may be either general or special; the attorney represents his principal in the matters prescribed by the letter until it be revoked.

Letters of License. An instrument whereby creditors grant to their debtor time for the payment of his debts, and bind themselves not to molest him until that time has expired.

Levant and Couchant. The law term for cattle that have been so long in the grounds of another, that they have lain down and risen again to feed.

Levari facias. A Writ of Execution, now superseded in practice except in the case of outlawry.

Levy. The seizing of goods or chattels by a sheriff under an execution is called a levy.

Lex loci contractus. The law of the place or country where the contract was made.

Lex mercatoria. The mercantile law.

Lex non scripta. The unwritten or common law.

Lex scripta. The written law.

Lex terræ. The law of the land.

Libel. A malicious defamation, expressed either in printing or writing, or by signs, pictures, etc., tending either to blacken the memory of

one who is dead, or the reputation of one who is alive, and thereby exposing him to public hatred, contempt, or ridicule.

Lien. A qualified right which a person has in or to a thing in his possession, arising from a claim upon the owner. Liens are of two kinds, particular or general.

Limited liability. The limitation of the liability of shareholders in a company to the amount unpaid upon their shares, introduced by recent Acts, and applicable to all companies registered thereunder: such companies are bound to use the word "Limited" in their title after the word "Company."

Lineal Descent. That which goes from father to son, from son to grandson, and so on.

Liquidated Damages, are damages the amount of which are fixed or ascertained.

Liquidator. A person duly appointed to wind up the affairs of an insolvent company, under the winding up acts.

Lis pendens. A pending suit or action.

Livery of seisin. A delivery of possession of lands by the alienor to the alienee. In former times when the feoffments were used, livery of seisin was indispensably necessary to complete a gift or alienation of lands.

Locus in quo. The place where anything is alleged to be done in pleadings, etc.

Locus pœnitentiæ—a place of penitence. The position of a party who may recede from a contract or bargain which he is about to enter into or make.

Lords Spiritual. The two archbishops and twenty-four bishops of England, with one Irish archbishop and three bishops—in all thirty.

Lords Temporal. The lay peers of the realm, whose number may be increased at the will of the sovereign.

Lucri causa. For the cause or purpose of gain.

Lunatic. One who has had understanding, but, by grief, disease, or other accident, has lost the use of his reason generally, though he may have lucid intervals.

Magna Charta. The great charter of English liberties, granted by, or rather extorted from, King John, at Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines, on the 19th June, 1215, and afterwards confirmed by Henry III.

Maihem or Mayhem. The violently depriving another of the use of such of his members as may render him less able, in fighting, either to defend himself or to annoy his adversary.

Mainprise. The surrendering a person into friendly custody, upon giving security that he shall be forthcoming at the time and place required. The writ of mainprise is obsolete.

Majority. The being of full age.

Mala fides. Bad faith.

Mala in se. Wrong in themselves.

Malice prepense. Malice aforethought; i. e. deliberate, predetermined malice.

Malus animus. A bad or malicious intent.

Mandamus. A writ commanding the completion or restitution of some right, or the performance of a duty.

Manor. A territorial domain, held partly by the lord and partly by his tenants; it must have continued from time immemorial, and have annexed to it a Court Baron, with at least two suitors.

Manslaughter, The unlawful killing of another, but without malice.

Manumission. The making a bondman free.

Market overt. Selling goods in market overt, or open, has in many cases a different legal effect to a mere private sale. In London a sale in an open shop is a sale in market overt; for every day, except Sunday, is a market there.

Marksman. A deponent in an affidavit who cannot write, but makes his mark.

Marque and Reprisal (Letters of.) Commissions granted to individuals to fit out privateers in time of war; not used in the late war, and abandoned by all the great powers at the Congress of Paris, 1856.

Master of the Rolls. An assistant of the Lord Chancellor, who hears and decides the cases assigned to him, at his own Court in the Rolls Yard. He holds his office by patent for life

Maturity. Bills, or notes, when due, are said to be at their maturity.

Maxims in Law. Certain proverbial axioms, which form part of the general custom or common law of the land. As, "No man is bound to criminate himself."—"Conditions against law are void."—"It is fraud to conceal fraud," etc., etc.

Medietas Linguæ. A jury whereof one half are foreigners, and the other natives; and is used to try a cause in which either party is a foreigner, and requires that mode of trial.

Merger. The sinking of a smaller estate into a greater, whereby the former is utterly extinguished and destroyed. It takes place when two estates meet together, without any intermediate estate between them, to both of which estates the same individual is entitled in one and the same right—as where a tenant for life afterwards acquires the fee-simple.

Mesne-Process. Commonly used to describe the first process in an action, as where a party used to be arrested on mesne-process, as distinguished from an arrest on a final judgment.

Misdemeanor. An indictable offense, which, though criminal, does not amount to felony.

Misprision. A neglect, oversight, or contempt; as, for example, misprision of treason is a negligence in not revealing treason.

Mittimus. A writ for removing of records from one court to another.

Modus. A composition in lieu of tithes.

Moot point. An obscure point of law not definitely settled; and therefore open for discussion.

Mortgage. A conveyance of lands by way of security, for the repayment of a sum of money borrowed, or owing.

Mortmain. Lands held by corporations are said to be held in mortmain.

Motion. An occasional application to the court, to obtain some rule or order in the progress of a cause.

Municipal Law. That which pertains solely to the citizens of a particular state, city, or province.

Muniments. Deeds, evidences, and writings in general.

Murder. Unlawfully killing any person, with malice aforethought, either express or implied by law.

Mutiny Act. An Act annually passed to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better regulation of the army.

Naturalization. The making a foreigner a lawful subject of the state.

Ne exeat regno. A writ to restrain a person from leaving the kingdom.

Negative Pregnant. A form of denial which implies or carries with it an affirmative.

Negotiable Instruments. Those instruments which confer on the holders the legal right to sue for the money or property thereby secured, and which by delivery pass such money or property from man to man—as bills of exchange, bills of lading.

Nemine Contradicente (Nem. con.). Words used to signify the unanimous consent of the members of Parliament, or other public body, to a vote or resolution.

Next friend. The party in whose name an infant or feme-covert brings an action or suit.

Nil debet. A common plea to an action of debt when the money is not owing.

Nil dicit. When judgment is had against a defendant by default.

Nisi prius. A term applied to those courts in which civil causes are tried before a judge and jury.

Nolle Prosequi. An acknowledgment by the plaintiff that he will not further prosecute his suit, as to the whole or a part of the cause of action.

Nomine Pœnæ. A penalty agreed to be paid on the non-performance of some specified act.

Non assumpsit. He has not promised. A plea by which a defendant denies his liability in an action of assumpsit.

Non compos mentis. Of unsound mind.

Non concessit. He did not grant.

Non constat. It is not clear or evident.

Non est factum. A plea by which a defendant denies that the deed mentioned in the declaration is his deed.

Non est inventus. The sheriff's return to a writ, when the defendant is not to be found in his county or bailiwick.

Nonfeasance. The omitting to do what ought to be done.

Non pros. When the plaintiff neglects to take any step within the prescribed time, the defendant may move for a judgment against him, which is called judgment of non pros.

Nonsuit. A renunciation of a suit by a plaintiff, after which he may still commence another action for the same cause, which he could not do if a verdict goes against him.

Notary-Public. A person whose business it is to note and protest bills of exchange, and who also attests deeds and writings, to make them authentic in another country.

Nudum pactum. An agreement without consideration, which, when not under seal, is void in law.

Nuisance. Anything which unlawfully annoys or does damage to another. Nuisances may be either public or private.

Nuncupative Will. An oral will before a sufficient number of witnesses, and afterwards reduced to writing—now abolished, except as to soldiers and sailors.

Nunc pro tunc. Literally, now for then: and is often so used in legal proceedings.

Oath. An appeal to God as a witness of the truth of what is affirmed or denied in evidence, in the presence of a judge, magistrate, or other officer authorized to administer oaths.

Obiter dictum. A casual remark or opinion of a judge, not necessary to or forming part of his judgment on the matter before him.

Obligee. An individual for whose benefit an obligation is entered into.

Obligor. He who enters into a bond or obligation.

Official Assignees. Officers of the Court of Bankruptcy, one of whom is allotted to each Bankrupt's Estate. He acts with the assignees appointed by the creditors in the administration of the estate; but his especial duty is to keep the assets of the estate, and receive and pay all money on account of it.

Onus probandi. The burden of proof. It is a legal principle that the issue in an action must be proved by the party who states an affirmative; not by the party who states a negative. The burden of proof, therefore, is on the former party.

Ostensible partner. A person whose name appears to the world as a partner in a firm. Although such a person may not have any interest in the partnership, he is liable for its debts and engagements.

Ouster. The turning of a person out of possession of property.

Outlawry. The act or process by which a person is excluded from, or deprived of, the benefit of the laws, attended with a forfeiture of his goods to the Crown.

Overt Act. An open act, capable of being manifested by legal proof.

Oyer and Terminer. A commission directed to the judges and others, by virtue whereof they have power to hear and determine treasons, felonies, etc.

O Yes. A corruption of the French oyez, hear ye! The term is used by a public crier to enjoin silence and attention.

Panel. A schedule or slip of parchment, containing the names of such jurors as have been returned by the sheriff to serve on trials.

Paraphernalia. Things to which a wife is entitled over and above her dower, consisting of wearing apparel and ornaments suitable to her rank and station in life. The husband may (with the exception of his wife's wearing apparel) dispose of them in his lifetime, but not by will. On his death they belong to the wife absolutely.

Parol. Word of mouth, verbal

Particeps criminis. A participator in a crime.

Partition. The dividing of lands held by joint tenants, coparceners, or tenants in common, into two distinct portions.

Patent ambiguity. A matter of doubt appearing upon the face of an instrument.

Pawn. A delivery of goods and chattels, to be retained until a debt is discharged.

Peculiar. A particular parish or church having a special jurisdiction within itself, as exempt from the bishop's court.

Penance. An ecclesiastical punishment, varied according to the nature of the offense, in which the penitent is supposed to make satisfaction to the church for the scandal he has given by his evil example.

Peppercorn Rent. A nominal rent.

Perjury. The offense committed by a person who, having been sworn to tell the truth in a matter pending in a court of justice, willfully and deliberately takes a false oath.

Perpetuity. A rule that land cannot be limited beyond a life or lives in being and twenty-one years afterwards, and the period of gestation, if it actually exists, is commonly called the rule against perpetuities.

Personal Estate, or Personalty. Movable things, whether alive or dead, as distinguished from land, or immovables, which are termed real estate.

Petitioning creditor. A creditor who petitions the Court of Bankruptcy to make his debtor a bankrupt.

Pin Money. An allowance set apart by the husband for the personal expenses of a wife, i. e., for her dress and pocket money.

Piscary. The right or privilege of fishing.

Plaint. Process by which actions are commenced in the County Court.

Plaintiff. The complainant in an action or suit.

Plea. The defendant's answer to the plaintiff's declaration.

Pleader. A lawyer, who draws the pleadings in actions.

Pleadings. The mutual allegations or statements which are made by the plaintiff and defendant in an action.

Plene administravit. A plea by an executor or administrator that he has fully administered.

Plough Bote. The wood which a tenant is entitled to take for the necessary reparation of his ploughs, carts, etc.

Posse Comitatus. The power of the county. This includes the aid and attendance of all men, except ecclesiastics and inferior persons, above the age of fifteen, within the county, which force may be used in cases of riot or rebellion, or where any resistance is made to the execution of justice.

Postea. The verdict of the jury drawn up in due form, and entered on the back of the record.

Pound breach. The indictable offense of breaking open a pound for the purpose of taking cattle therefrom.

Præcipe. An abstract of a writ left with the officer at the time of issuing it.

Præmium Pudicitiæ. A bond or consideration given to a previously virtuous woman, by the person who has seduced her.

Pre-emption. The right of first buying.

Prescription. A title acquired by use and time, and allowed by law.

Presentment. The notice taken by a grand jury or inquest of any offense, etc., from their own knowledge or observation.

Primogeniture. The right of the eldest son to inherit his ancestor's estate, to the exclusion of the younger son, where the ancestor has died intestate.

Privilege. An exemption from the general rules of law. It is of two kinds—real, attaching to any place, or personal, attaching to persons, as ambassadors, etc.

Probate. The copy of a will made out on parchment with a certificate of its having been proved.

Process. A general term applied to formal judicial proceedings.

Procheim Amy. Next friend (which see).

Prohibition. A writ issuing out of the superior courts directing the judge of an inferior court not to proceed further in a suit.

Promissory Note. A written promise by which one person engages or promises to pay a certain sum of money to another.

Pro Rata. In proportion.

Protest. On bills of exchange. A protest means the solemn declaration of a public notary of the dishonor of a bill.

Provisional Assignee. An officer of the Insolvent Debtor's Court, in whom the estate of an insolvent vests.

Proviso. A condition inserted in a deed, on the performance whereof the validity of the deed frequently depends.

Puisne. Younger, junior. The judges and barons of the superior courts, except the chiefs, are called puisne judges and puisne barons.

Quamdiu se bene gesserit. A clause expressing that the party to whom an office is granted shall hold the same so long as he properly conducts himself.

Quantum Meruit. So much as he has deserved.

Quantum Valebat. So much as it is worth.

Quarantine, signifies 40 days. It is applied to the period which persons coming from infected countries are obliged to wait on board ship before they are allowed to land. But in law it more strictly applies to the similar period during which a widow, entitled to dower, is permitted to remain in her husband's capital mansion after his death, whilst she awaits the assignment of her dower.

Quare impedit. The form of action now adopted to try a disputed title to an advowson.

Quarto die post. The fourth day after the term.

Quash. To annul or cancel.

Quasi Contract. An implied contract.

Queen's Bench. The supreme Court of Common Law in the kingdom, consisting of a chief justice and four puisne judges. In this Court the sovereign used formerly to sit in person; hence its title.

Queen's Counsel. The appointment of Queen's Counsel does not confer any emolument from the Crown, but is regarded as a mark of distinction. The Queen's Counsel wear silk gowns (the other barristers wearing stuff ones) and are entitled to precedence in Court.

Queen's Evidence. An accomplice in the commission of a crime, who gives evidence in the hope of receiving a pardon for himself.

Quid pro quo. Giving one thing for another, being the mutual consideration in contracts.

Quietus. Freed or acquitted. A term used principally in proceedings on the revenue side of the Exchequer.

Qui tam. Actions brought by common informers, and vulgarly called "qui tam" actions; because in the form in which they are conceived, the prosecutor declares that he prosecutes "as well for our sovereign lord the king as for himself;" tam pro Domino Rege quam pro seipso.

Quit rent. A small rent payable by the tenants of manors, and which entitle them to be quit and free of all other services.

Quo Minus. A common writ formerly issued against a defendant on the plea side of the Court of Exchequer, founded upon a presumption or fiction of law that the plaintiff was the less able to pay the Crown on account of the defendant being his debtor. It was the writ which gave the Court jurisdiction in matters not relating to the Revenue, but now the Court of Exchequer has coördinate jurisdiction with the other superior courts, without the necessity of any longer resorting to a fiction for the purpose of founding it.

Quo warranto. An ancient writ still in use, directed against any person or corporation, who usurp any office, franchise, or liberty, calling upon them to show by what authority they support their claim.

Rack rent. A rent of the full annual value of the land, out of which it issues.

Rape. The carnal knowledge of a female, who is above the age of ten years, against her will; or of a girl under the age of ten years, although with her permission.

Readers. The lecturers appointed by the Inns of Court are so termed.

Real estate, or Rèalty, is the term applied to land, in contradistinction to personalty.

Rebutter. The answer of the defendant to the surrejoinder of the plaintiff.

Recaption. The taking a second distress during the pendency of a replevin on a former distress.

Recital. The formal statement of some matter of fact in any deed or writing. It usually commences with the formal word "Whereas."

Recognizance. An obligation of record which a man enters into, with condition to do some particular act; as, to appear at the assizes, to keep the peace, to pay a debt, or the like.

Record. An authentic testimony, in writing, contained in rolls of parchment, and preserved in a court of record.

Rector. He who has the spiritual care or charge of a parish.

Recusant. Used in old statutes for one who separates from the church as established by law.

Red Book. An ancient record in the Exchequer, in which are registered those who held lands per baroniam in the time of Henry II.

Redendum. The clause in a lease by which the rent is reserved. It usually begins with the words "yielding and paying."

Re-entry, proviso for. A stipulation in a lease that, on non-payment of rent or non-performance of the covenants, the leasor may reënter.

Reference. The submitting of any cause or matter to arbitration.

Refresher. A further fee to counsel, where the cause goes over from one term or sitting to another.

Register. A book wherein things are registered for preservation.

Registrars. Officers having custody of a Registry, such as the registrars of births, marriages, and deaths.

Rejoinder. The answer of a defendant in an action to the plaintiff's replication.

Release. A form of conveyance. Also, an acquittance under seal of a debt or other obligation.

Remainder. A vested or contingent estate or interest in land, limited to take effect and come into possession on the determination of a prior estate created at the same time.

Remanet. A term used when a cause set down for trial at a particular assize or sittings is postponed.

Rent. The annual return made by the tenant to his landlord, which may be either money, labor, or provisions.

Replevin. An action to try the validity of a distress. The things distrained are re-delivered to the tenant on security or pledges given by him to try the right.

Replication. The plaintiff's answer to the defendant's plea or answer.

Representative Peers. The peers elected from their own bodies to represent Scotland and Ireland in the House of Lords, being 16 for the former, and 28 for the latter.

Reprieve. A suspension of the execution of sentence of death on a criminal.

Rescue. A resistance against lawful authority, as, for instance, the violently taking away a man who is under legal arrest.

Residuary devisee. The person to whom a testator devises the remainder of his lands, not otherwise disposed of.

Residuary legatee. A legatee to whom is bequeathed the residue or remainder of a testator's personal estate, after payment of all legacies, claims, and demands.

Residue, or Residuary Estate. The portion of a testator's estate not specifically disposed of.

Res integra. An entire thing.

Rest. A pause in an account between a debtor and creditor, in striking periodical balances.

Retainer. A fee given to counsel to secure his services. It may be either general or special. The former secures the services of the counsel to the party giving it in all matters; the latter only in one cause or matter. The fee in the former cause is 5 guineas, in the latter 1 guinea.

Return of a Writ. The certificate of the sheriff made to the court of what he has done towards the execution of any writ directed to him.

Reversal. The making a judgment void, in consequence of some error in the same.

Reversion. The residue of an estate left in the grantor, and returning to him or his heirs, after the grant is determined.

Rider. A kind of schedule or writing, annexed to a document, which cannot well be incorporated in the body of it.

Roll. A schedule or sheet of parchment, on which legal proceedings are entered.

Rule. An order made by the court at the instance of one of the parties in an action. It may either be a rule absolute, or merely a rule nisi or to show cause.

Rules of Court. The rules framed by the judges for regulating the practice of the different Courts of Law.

Sacrilege. A desecration of anything that is holy.

Salvage. An allowance made for saving ships or goods from enemies, or wreck, or loss at sea.

Scandal. Rumor calculated to injure one's reputation.

Schedule. A list or inventory of things.

Scienter. Knowingly.

Scire Facias. A judicial writ founded on matter of record, and is used for various purposes, as, for instance, to enforce against a shareholder a judgment against a Joint Stock Company which it is unable to satisfy.

Scrivener. One intrusted with other men's monies to put out for them, and for which he charges a commission, or bonus.

Security for Costs. When the plaintiff resides out of the jurisdiction of the Court, the defendant may require him to give security for costs.

Secus. Otherwise.

Se Defendendo. A plea for a party charged with the death of another person, who alleges that he was driven to do what he did in his own defense.

Seisin. Possession of a freehold estate. Seisin in deed is when actual possession is obtained. Seisin in law is a right to lands of which actual possession has not been obtained.

Separate estate. Real or personal property settled upon a married woman, and which she may dispose of as if she were a single woman.

Sequestration, is used in several cases; but most frequently as signifying an execution for debt against a beneficed clergyman, in which case the debt is satisfied out of the tithes and other profits of the benefice. In Scotland a Sequestration is nearly equivalent to our term "Bankruptcy."

Set-off. A mode of defense, whereby a defendant sets up a demand of his own to counterbalance the plaintiff's claim either wholly or in part.

Similiter. A set form of words in an action by which one party signifies his acceptance of the issue tendered by his opponent.

Simony. The corrupt presentation of any one to an ecclesiastical benefice, for money, gift, or reward.

Simple Contract. An agreement entered into verbally or by writing not under seal.

Slander. The malicious defamation of a man by word of mouth, analogous to libel, which is slander by writing.

Socage. The tenure by which most freehold lands in England are held which consists in the performance of some certain and determinate service, usually of a nominal nature, as distinguished from the old feudal services, which were generally at the will of the lord.

Son assault demesne. A plea in an action for an assault that the defendant did the act complained of in his own defense.

Special Case. A mode of raising a point of law for the opinion of the court on an agreed written statement of the facts.

Special Jury, is a jury composed of individuals above the rank of ordinary freeholders Either party in an action may apply for, and obtain, a special jury.

Special pleading. When the pleadings in an action are not in the ordinary form, but are of a more complex character, they are termed special pleadings.

Specific performance. A remedy in equity, to compel the performance of a contract according to its terms, instead of proceeding at law to recover damages merely.

Statutes. The written laws of the kingdom (see Common Law) are of two kinds, public or private; the former applies to all statutes which affect the public generally, and of which the judges take cognizance without being specially pleaded. The latter relates to the private rights of individual bodies, as, for instance, the various acts for the Management of Railway and other Companies are private acts.

Stirpes. Taking property by representation is called succession per stirpes, as contradistinguished from per capita, which signifies taking it by one's own right.

Stoppage in transitu. Goods sold on credit to a person, since become insolvent or bankrupt, may be seized by the vendor at any time before their actual and complete delivery to the vendee. This seizure is called stoppage in transitu; it is often a nice and difficult question to determine when the transit has ended and the purchaser's possession begun

Subornation of perjury. The offense of procuring another to take a false oath.

Subpœna. A writ used for the purpose of compelling witnesses to attend and give evidence.

Sufferance, a tenant at, is a person who acquired the possession of lands by right, and holds over after his right is determined.

Suit. Proceedings in Equity are usually termed suits, as distinguished from the proceedings at common law, which are termed actions.

Summons, writ of. The process used for the commencement of all actions in the courts of law.

Supersedeas. A command to stay some ordinary proceedings at law, on good cause shown.

Surrejoinder. An answer to the rejoinder of the defendant in action.

Syngraph. A deed or bond under hand and seal of all the parties.

Tail, or Fee-tail. See Entail.

Tenancy. The holding of property under tenure.

Tenant. One who holds lands of another as a tenant for life, for years, in tail, etc.; it is a word extensively used in legal phraseology.

Tender. A legal tender is an unconditional offer to pay a debt, which, if refused, may be afterwards pleaded in bar to an action.

Tenement. Property held by a tenant; it comprises lands, houses, and every species of real property which may be holden.

Tenure. The system of holding lands in subordination to some superiors.

Termer. A tenant who holds lands for a fixed and ascertained period of time.

Testamentary Guardian. A person appointed by a father in his will to be the guardian of his child.

Testator or Testatrix. The maker of a will.

Teste. The clause at the bottom of a writ beginning with the word "witness" is so called.

Theft bote. When a party, who has been robbed, and knowing the felon, takes his goods again or receives other amends upon agreement not to prosecute.

Tithes. The tenth part of the increase yearly arising from the profits of lands, etc. Tithes are in this country now commuted into a fixed rent charge, which is charged upon the land, and not upon the person.

Tithing. A portion of a hundred. Tithing-man was formerly an officer of some importance; in the present day, however, he is a mere constable.

Title. The evidence of the right which a person has to the possession of property.

Traverse. A plea which denies the truth of some part of the plaintiff's declaration in an action.

Treasure Trove. Any money, etc., found hidden under the earth, the owner thereof being unknown.

Trespass. Any wrong or damage which is done by one man to another, whether it relates to his person or property, but it usually signifies a wrongful entry on another's premises.

Trial. The formal method of examining and adjudicating upon a question of fact in a court of law.

Trover. The form of action used to try a disputed question of property in goods or chattels, in which the plaintiff can only recover their estimated value, and not the goods or chattels themselves.

True bill. The words indorsed upon an indictment by a grand jury, when satisfied that the charge against the offender is made out.

Trust. A trust exists where a party, called the cestuique-trust, has a right in equity to the beneficial enjoyment of property, the legal ownership of which is vested in another, who is hence called a trustee.

Umpire. A third person chosen to decide a matter in dispute left to arbitration, in case the arbitrators should not agree.

Under-lease. A lease granted by one who is himself only a lessee of the premises under-let.

Under-lessee. The person to whom an under-lease is granted.

Unliquidated damages. Damages not fixed or ascertained, and which require therefore to be estimated by a jury.

Use. A right to the beneficial enjoyment of land nominally vested in another.

Usury. The extortion of unlawful gain; the taking more for the use of money than is allowed by law; but the usury laws in this country are now abolished, any rate of interest therefore may now be lawfully taken.

Value received. The words usually, but unnecessarily, appearing in bills of exchange and promissory notes.

Venditioni exponas. A writ directed to the sheriff, commanding him to sell goods which he has taken possession of under a writ of fieri facias, and which remain in his hands unsold.

Vendor and Vendee. A vendor is the person who sells and a vendee the person who buys anything.

Venue. The county in which an action at law is intended to be tried.

Verdict. A verdict is the unanimous judgment or opinion of the jury on the issue of fact submitted to them.

Vi et Armis (with force and arms). Words used in indictments, to express the charge of a forcible and violent committing of any crime or trespass.

Viva voce. By word of mouth.

Voir dire. An examination of a witness to test his competency is termed an "examination in the voir dire."

Voluntary Conveyance, or Settlement. A conveyance or settlement made without any valuable consideration.

Voucher. A receipt or discharge.

Waifs. Stolen goods which the thief has thrown away or left behind him.

Ward. An infant under the guidance and protection of a guardian.

Ward of Court. An infant with reference to whose property a suit has been instituted in Chancery. A ward ought not to marry without leave of the court. Any person marrying a ward without such leave is guilty of a contempt of court, and can be punished by imprisonment.

Warrant. An authority or precept from a justice, commanding the apprehension of an offender, or a search to be made for stolen goods.

Warrant of Attorney. An authority given by any one to an attorney-at-law, to appear and plead for him; or to suffer judgment to pass against him, by confessing the action.

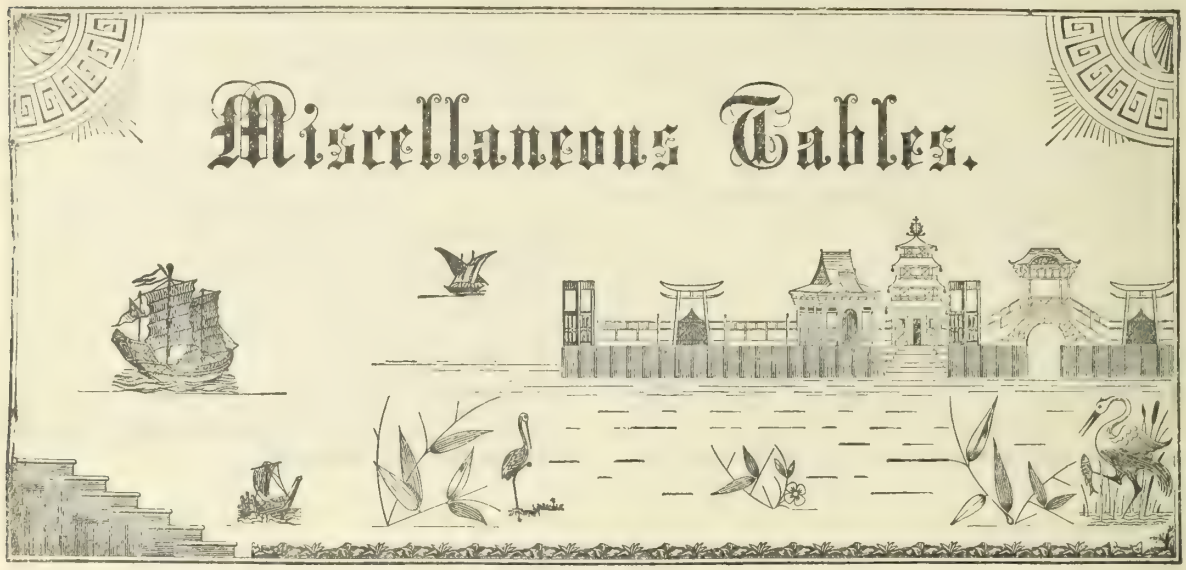
Warranty, as applied to goods and chattels, may be either expressed or implied; the implied warranty only extends to the title of the vendor. If that proves deficient, the purchaser may demand satisfaction from the seller.

Watercourse, right of. A right to an uninterrupted flow of water.

Way, right of. The right of going over another man's ground.

Will. A will is the legal written declaration of a man's intentions of what he wills to be performed after his death with reference to the disposition of his property. It must be in writing signed by the testator and attested by two witnesses, who must not only be present and see the testator sign, but must themselves subscribe the will as witnesses in the presence of the testator and of each other. Without these formalities the will is invalid. A codicil is a kind of addendum or supplement to a will. Its execution and attestation must be attended with the same formalities as the will itself.

Will, estate at. An estate in lands held at the will of the landlord and tenant, and determinable at the pleasure of either party. Such a holding is very rare now, the law generally construes undefined holdings into tenancies from year to year.



A CALENDAR

For ascertaining Any Day of the Week for any given time within Two Hundred Years from the introduction of the New Style, 1752¶ to 1952 inclusive.

YEARS 1753 TO 1952.

	31 Jan.	28 Feb.	31 Mar.	30 Apr.	31 May	30 June	31 July	31 Aug.	30 Sept.	31 Oct.	30 Nov.	31 Dec.
1761 1767 1778 1789 1795 1801 1807 1818 1829 1835 1846 1857 1863 1874 1885 1891 1903 1914 1925 1931 1942	4	7	7	3	5	1	3	6	2	4	7	2
1762 1773 1779 1790 1802 1813 1819 1830 1841 1847 1858 1869 1875 1886 1897 1909 1915 1926 1937 1943	5	1	1	4	6	2	4	7	3	5	1	3
1757 1763 1774 1785 1791 1803 1814 1825 1831 1842 1853 1859 1870 1881 1887 1898 1910 1921 1927 1938 1949	6	2	■	5	7	3	5	1	4	6	2	4
1754 1765 1771 1782 1793 1799 1805 1811 1822 1833 1839 1850 1861 1867 1878 1889 1895 1901 1907 1918 1929 1935 1946	2	5	5	1	3	6	1	4	7	2	5	7
1755 1766 1777 1783 1794 1800 1806 1817 1823 1834 1845 1851 1862 1873 1879 1890 .. 1902 1913 1919 1930 1941 1947	3	6	6	2	4	7	2	5	1	3	6	1
1758 1769 1775 1786 1797 1809 1815 1826 1837 1843 1854 1865 1871 1882 1893 1899 1905 1911 1922 1933 1939 1950	7	3	3	6	1	4	6	2	5	7	3	5
1753 1759 1770 1781 1787 1798 1810 1821 1827 1838 1849 1855 1866 1877 1883 1894 1900 1906 1917 1923 1934 1945 1951	1	4	4	7	2	5	7	3	6	1	4	6

LEAP YEARS.

	31 Jan.	29 Feb.	31 Mar.	30 Apr.	31 May	30 June	31 July	31 Aug.	30 Sept.	31 Oct.	30 Nov.	31 Dec.
1764 1792 1804 1832 1860 1888 1928 ..	7	3	4	7	2	5	7	3	6	1	4	6
1768 1796 1808 1836 1864 1892 1904 1932	5	1	2	5	7	3	5	1	4	6	2	4
1772 .. 1812 1840 1868 1896 1908 1936	3	6	7	3	5	1	3	6	2	4	7	2
1776 .. 1816 1844 1872 .. 1912 1940	1	4	5	1	3	6	1	4	7	2	5	7
1780 .. 1820 1848 1876 .. 1916 1944	6	2	3	6	1	4	6	2	5	7	3	5
1756 1784 1824 1852 1880 .. 1920 1948	4	7	1	4	6	2	4	7	3	5	1	3
1760 1788 1828 1856 1884 .. 1924 1952	2	5	6	2	4	7	2	5	1	3	6	1

	1	2*	3	4	5	6	7
	Monday 1	Tuesday 1	Wednesd. 1	Thursday 1	Friday 1	Saturday 1	*Sunday* 1
	Tuesday 2	Wednesd. 2	Thursday 2	Friday 2	Saturday 2	*Sunday* 2	Monday 2
	Wednesd. 3	Thursday 3	Friday 3	Saturday 3	*Sunday* 3	Monday 3	Tuesday 3
	Thursday 4	Friday* 4	Saturday 4	*Sunday* 4	Monday 4	Tuesday 4	Wednesd. 4
	Friday 5	Saturday 5	*Sunday* 5	Monday 5	Tuesday 5	Wednesd. 5	Thursday 5
	Saturday 6	*Sunday* 6	Monday 6	Tuesday 6	Wednesd. 6	Thursday 6	Friday 6
	Sunday 7	Monday 7	Tuesday 7	Wednesd. 7	Thursday 7	Friday 7	Saturday 7
	Monday 8	Tuesday 8	Wednesd. 8	Thursday 8	Friday 8	Saturday 8	*Sunday* 8
	Tuesday 9	Wednesd. 9	Thursday 9	Friday 9	Saturday 9	*Sunday* 9	Monday 9
	Wednesd. 10	Thursday 10	Friday 10	Saturday 10	*Sunday* 10	Monday 10	Tuesday 10
	Thursday 11	Friday 11	Saturday 11	*Sunday* 11	Monday 11	Tuesday 11	Wednesd. 11
	Friday 12	Saturday 12	*Sunday* 12	Monday 12	Tuesday 12	Wednesd. 12	Thursday 12
	Saturday 13	*Sunday* 13	Monday 13	Tuesday 13	Wednesd. 13	Thursday 13	Friday 13
	Sunday 14	Monday 14	Tuesday 14	Wednesd. 14	Thursday 14	Friday 14	Saturday 14
	Monday 15	Tuesday 15	Wednesd. 15	Thursday 15	Friday 15	Saturday 15	*Sunday* 15
	Tuesday 16	Wednesd. 16	Thursday 16	Friday 16	Saturday 16	*Sunday* 16	Monday 16
	Wednesd. 17	Thursday 17	Friday 17	Saturday 17	*Sunday* 17	Monday 17	Tuesday 17
	Thursday 18	Friday 18	Saturday 18	*Sunday* 18	Monday 18	Tuesday 18	Wednesd. 18
	Friday 19	Saturday 19	*Sunday* 19	Monday 19	Tuesday 19	Wednesd. 19	Thursday 19
	Saturday 20	*Sunday* 20	Monday 20	Tuesday 20	Wednesd. 20	Thursday 20	Friday 20
	Sunday 21	Monday 21	Tuesday 21	Wednesd. 21	Thursday 21	Friday 21	Saturday 21
	Monday 22	Tuesday 22	Wednesd. 22	Thursday 22	Friday 22	Saturday 22	*Sunday* 22
	Tuesday 23	Wednesd. 23	Thursday 23	Friday 23	Saturday 23	*Sunday* 23	Monday 23
	Wednesd. 24	Thursday 24	Friday 24	Saturday 24	*Sunday* 24	Monday 24	Tuesday 24
	Thursday 25	Friday 25	Saturday 25	*Sunday* 25	Monday 25	Tuesday 25	Wednesd. 25
	Friday 26	Saturday 26	*Sunday* 26	Monday 26	Tuesday 26	Wednesd. 26	Thursday 26
	Saturday 27	*Sunday* 27	Monday 27	Tuesday 27	Wednesd. 27	Thursday 27	Friday 27
	Sunday 28	Monday 28	Tuesday 28	Wednesd. 28	Thursday 28	Friday 28	Saturday 28
	Monday 29	Tuesday 29	Wednesd. 29	Thursday 29	Friday 29	Saturday 29	*Sunday* 29
	Tuesday 30	Wednesd. 30	Thursday 30	Friday 30	Saturday 30	*Sunday* 30	Monday 30
	Wednesd. 31	Thursday 31	Friday 31	Saturday 31	*Sunday* 31	Monday 31	Tuesday 31

NOTE.—To ascertain any day of the week, first look in the table for the year required, and under the months are figures which refer to the corresponding figures at the head of the columns of days below. *For Example:*—To know on what day of the week May 4 will be in the year 1883, in the table of years look for 1883, and in a parallel line, under May, is fig. 2, which directs to col. 2, in which it will be seen that May 4 falls on Friday.

¶ 1752 same as 1772 from Jan. 1 to Sept. 2. From Sept. 14 to Dec. 31 same as 1760. (Sept. 3-13 were omitted.

A TABLE OF THE KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

Name.		Accession.	Died.	Age.	Reigned.
	SAXONS AND DANES.				
Egbert	First King of all England	827	839	—	12
Ethelwulf	Son of Egbert	837	858	—	19
Ethelbald	Son of Ethelwulf	858	860	—	2
Ethelbert	Second son of Ethelwulf	858	866	—	8
Ethelred	Third son of Ethelwulf	866	871	—	5
Alfred	Fourth son of Ethelwulf	871	901	52	30
Edward the Elder	Son of Alfred	901	925	46	24
Athelstan	Eldest son of Edward	925	940	—	15
Edmund	Brother of Athelstan	940	946	23	6
Edred	Brother of Edmund	946	955	—	9
Edwy	Son of Edmund	955	958	20	3
Edgar	Second son of Edmund	958	975	31	17
Edward the Martyr	Son of Edgar	975	979	17	4
Ethelred II	Half-brother of Edward	979	1016	—	37
Edmund Ironside	Eldest son of Ethelred	1016	1016	28	1
Canute	By conquest and election	1017	1035	40	18
Harold I	Son of Canute	1035	1040	—	5
Hardicanute	Another son of Canute	1040	1042	—	2
Edward the Confessor	Son of Ethelred II	1042	1066	64	24
Harold II	Brother-in-law of Edward	1066	1066	—	0
	THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY.				
William I	Obtained the Crown by conquest	1066	1087	60	21
William II	Third son of William I	1087	1100	43	13
Henry I	Youngest son of William I	1100	1135	67	35
Stephen	Third son of Stephen, Count of Blois, by Adela, fourth daughter of William I	1135	1154	49	19
	THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.				
Henry II	Son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, by Matilda, only daughter of Henry I.	1154	1189	56	35
Richard I	Eldest surviving son of Henry II	1189	1199	42	10
John	Sixth and youngest son of Henry II	1199	1216	51	17
Henry III	Eldest son of John	1216	1272	65	56
Edward I	Eldest son of Henry III	1272	1307	67	35
Edward II	Eldest surviving son of Edward I	1307	1327	43	20
Edward III	Eldest son of Edward II	1327	1377	65	50
Richard II	Son of the Black Prince, eldest son of Edward III	1377	Dep. 1399	33	22
	THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.				
Henry IV	Son of John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III	1399	1413	46	14
Henry V	Eldest son of Henry IV	1413	1422	34	9
Henry VI	Only son of Henry V. (Died 1471)	1422	Dep. 1461	49	39
	THE HOUSE OF YORK.				
Edward IV	His grandfather was Richard, son of Edmund, fifth son of Edward III.; and his grandmother, Anne, was great-grand-daughter of Lionel, third son of Edward III.	1461	1483	41	22
Edward V	Eldest son of Edward IV	1483	1483	12	0
Richard III	Younger brother of Edward IV	1483	1485	33	2
	THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.				
Henry VII	Son of Edmund, eldest son of Owen Tudor, by Katharine, widow of Henry V.; his mother, Margaret Beaufort, was great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt	1485	1509	52	24
Henry VIII	Only surviving son of Henry VII	1509	1547	55	38
Edward VI	Son of Henry VIII. by Jane Seymour	1547	1553	16	6
Mary I	Daughter of Henry VIII. by Katherine of Arragon	1553	1558	42	5
Elizabeth	Daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn	1558	1603	69	45
	THE HOUSE OF STUART.				
James I	Son of Mary Queen of Scots, granddaughter of James IV. and Margaret, daughter of Henry VII	1603	1625	58	22
Charles I	Only surviving son of James I	1625	1649	48	24
Commonwealth	Commonwealth declared May 19	1649	—	—	—
	Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector	1653	1658	59	—
	Richard Cromwell, Lord Protector	1658	Res. 1659	—	—
	THE HOUSE OF STUART—RESTORED.				
Charles II	Eldest son of Charles I	1660	1685	54	25
James II	Second son of Charles I. (died Sept. 16, 1701) (Interregnum, Dec. 11, 1688—Feb. 13, 1689)	1685	Dep. 1688 Dec. 1701	68	3
William III and Mary II	Son of William, Prince of Orange, by Mary, daughter of Charles I	1689	1702	51	13
	Eldest daughter of James II		1694	32	6
Anne	Second daughter of James II	1702	1714	49	12
	THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.				
George I	Son of Elector of Hanover, by Sophia, daughter of Elizabeth, daughter of James I	1714	1727	67	13
George II	Only son of George I	1727	1760	77	33
George III	Grandson of George II	1760	1820	82	60
George IV	Eldest son of George III	1820	1830	68	10
William IV	Third son of George III	1830	1837	72	7
Victoria	Daughter of Edward, fourth son of George III	1837	WHOM GOD PRESERVE.		

SOVEREIGNS OF SCOTLAND FROM A.D. 1057 TO THE UNION OF THE CROWNS.

Names.	Began to reign.
Malcolm (*Ceanmohr*)	1057, Apr.
Donald (*Bane*)	1092, Nov.
Duncan	1094, May.
Donald (*Bane*) rest	1095, Nov.
Edgar	1097, Sept.
Alexander I.	1107, Jan. 8
David I.	1124, Apr. 27
Malcolm (*Maiden*)	1153, May 24
William (*The Lion*)	1165, Dec. 9
Alexander II.	1214, Dec. 4
Alexander III	1249, July 8
Margaret	1286, Mar. 19
John (Balliol)	1292, Nov. 17
Robert I. (Bruce)	1306, Mar. 27
David II.	1329, June 7
Robert II. (Stewart)	1371, Feb. 22
Robert III.	1390, Apr. 12
James I.	1406, Apr. 4
James II.	1437, Feb. 20
James III.	1460, Aug. 3
James IV.	1488, June 11
James V.	1513, Sept. 9
Mary	1542, Dec. 16
Francis and Mary	1558, Apr. 24
Mary	1560, Dec. 5
Henry and Mary	1565, July 29
Mary	1567, Feb. 10
James VI.	1567, July 29
(Ascended the throne of England as James I., March 24th, 1603.)	

WELSH SOVEREIGNS OR PRINCES—A.D. 840 to A.D. 1282.

Roderic the Great	840	Llewelyn ap Sitsylht	1015	Llewelyn the Great	1194
Anarawd, son of Roderic	877	Iago ap Idwal ap Meyric	1023	David ap Llewelyn	1240
Howel Dda, the Good	943	Griffith ap Llewelyn ap Sitsylht. Killed	1039	Llewelyn ap Griffith, last Prince, 1246; slain	1282
Jefan and Jago	948	Bleddyn	1063	Edward of Carnarvon, afterwards King Edward II. of England; born	1284
Howel ap Jefan, the Bad	972	Trahaern ap Caradoc	1073	Created Prince of Wales	1301
Cadwallon, his brother	984	Griffith ap Cynan	1079		
Meredith ap Owen ap Howel Dha	985	Owain Gwynedd	1136		
Idwal ap Meyric ap Edwal Voel	992	David ap Owain Gwynedd	1169		

FRENCH DYNASTIES AND SOVEREIGNS.

The Merovingians.	
Clovis, "The Hairy," King of the Salic Franks	428
Childeric III., last of the race	737
The Carlovingians.	
Pépin, "The Short," son of Charles Martel	752
Charlemagne, The Great, Emperor of the West	768
Louis V., "The Indolent," last of the race	986
The Capets.	
Hugh Capet, "The Great,"	987
Louis IX., "St. Louis"	1226
Charles IV., "The Handsome"	1322
The House of Valois.	
Philip VI. de Valois, "The Fortunate"	1328
Henry III., last of the race	1574
The House of Bourbon.	
Henry IV., "The Great," King of Navarre	1589
Louis XIII., "The Just"	1610
Louis XIV., "The Great," Dieudonné	1643
Louis XV., "The Well-beloved"	1715
Louis XVI. (guillotined January 21, 1793)	1774
Louis XVII. (never reigned)	1793
The First Republic.	
The National Convention first sat	September 21, 1792
The Directory nominated	November 1, 1795
The Consulate.	
Bonaparte, Cambacérès, and Lebrun	December 24, 1799
Bonaparte, Consul for 10 years	May 6, 1802
Bonaparte, Consul for Life	August 2, 1802
The Empire.	
Napoleon I. decreed Emperor	May 18, 1804
Napoleon II. (never reigned) died	July 22, 1832
The Restoration.	
Louis XVIII. re-entered Paris	May 3, 1814
Charles X. (deposed July 30, 1830, died November 6, 1836)	1824
Heir-expectant, Henry, Comte de Chambord	September 29, 1820
The House of Orleans.	
Louis Philippe, King of the French (Abdicated February 24, 1848, died August 26, 1850.)	1830
Heir-expectant, Comte de Paris, born	August 24, 1838
The Second Republic.	
Provisional Government formed	February 22, 1848
Louis Napoleon elected President	December 10, 1848
The Second Empire.	
Napoleon III. elected Emperor (Deposed September 4, 1870, died January 9, 1873.)	November 22 1852
Third Republic.	
Committee of Public Defence	September 4, 1870
L. A. Thiers elected President	August 31 1871
Marshal MacMahon elected President	May 24, 1873
Jules Grévy elected President	January 30, 1879

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Declaration of Independence	July 4, 1776
General Washington first President	1789 and 1793
John Adams	1797
Thomas Jefferson	1801 and 1805
James Madison	1809 and 1813
James Monroe	1817 and 1821
John Quincy Adams	1825
General Andrew Jackson	1829 and 1833
Martin Van Buren	1837
General William Henry Harrison (died April 4)	1841
John Tyler (elected as Vice-President)	1841
James Knox Polk	1845
General Zachary Taylor (died July 9, 1850)	1849
Millard Fillmore (elected as Vice-President)	1850
General Franklin Pierce	1853
James Buchanan	1857
Abraham Lincoln (assassinated April 14, 1865)	1861 and 1865
Andrew Johnson (elected as Vice-President)	1865
General Ulysses S. Grant	1869 and 1873
Rutherford B. Hayes	1877
James A. Garfield	1881
Chester A. Arthur	1881

Grover Cleveland, 1885; Benjamin Harrison, 1889.

Population in 1776, including slaves, 2,614,300. Population in 1890, all free, 62,622,250.

THE NEW LAW OF PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION.

The Presidential succession is fixed by chapter 4 of the acts of the Forty-ninth Congress, first session. In case of the removal, death, resignation or inability of both the President or Vice-President, then the Secretary of State shall act as President until the disability of the President or Vice-President is removed or a President is elected. If there be no Secretary of State, then the Secretary of the Treasury will act; and the remainder of the order of succession is: The Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Navy and Secretary of the Interior. The acting President must, upon taking office, convene Congress, if not at the time in session, in extraordinary session, giving twenty days' notice. This act applies only to such Cabinet officers as shall have been appointed by the advice and consent of the Senate, and are eligible under the Constitution to the Presidency.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

PASSPORTS are issued only to citizens of the United States, upon application, supported by proof of citizenship. Citizenship is acquired by birth, by naturalization and by annexation of territory. An alien woman who marries a citizen of the United States thereby becomes a citizen. Minor children resident in the United States become citizens by the naturalization of their father.

When the applicant is a native citizen of the United States he must transmit his own affidavit of this fact, stating his age and place of birth, with the certificate of one other citizen of the United States to whom he is personally known, stating that the declaration made by the applicant is true. The affidavit must be attested by a notary public, under his signature and seal of office. When there is no notary in the place the affidavit may be made before a justice of the peace or other officer authorized to administer oaths; but if he has no seal, his official act must be authenticated by certificate of a court of record.

A person born abroad who claims that his father was a native citizen of the United States must state in his affidavit that his father was born in the United States, has resided therein and was a citizen of the same at the time of the applicant's birth. This affidavit must be supported by that of one other citizen acquainted with the facts.

NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

If the applicant be a naturalized citizen, his certificate of naturalization must be transmitted for inspection (it will be returned with the passport), and he must state in his affidavit that he is the identical person described in the certificate presented. Passports cannot be issued to aliens who have only declared their intention to become citizens.

Military service does not of itself confer citizenship. A person of alien birth, who has been honorably discharged from military service in the United States, but who has not been naturalized, should not transmit his discharge paper in application for a passport, but should apply to the proper court for admission to citizenship, and transmit the certificate of naturalization so obtained. The signature to the application and oath of allegiance should conform in orthography to the applicant's name as written in the naturalization paper, which the department follows.

Every applicant is required to state his occupation and the place of his permanent legal residence, and to declare that he goes abroad for temporary sojourn and intends to return to the United States with the purpose of residing and performing the duties of citizenship therein.

The wife or widow of a naturalized citizen must transmit the naturalization certificate of the husband, stating in her affidavit that she is the wife or widow of the person described therein. The children of a naturalized citizen, claiming citizenship through the father, must transmit the certificate of naturalization of the father, stating in their affidavits that they are children of the person described therein and were minors at the time of such naturalization.

The oath of allegiance to the United States will be required in all cases.

APPLICATIONS.

The application should be accompanied by a description of the person, stating the following particulars—viz.: Age: —— years. Stature: —— feet, —— inches (English measure). Forehead: ——. Eyes: ——. Nose: ——. Mouth: ——. Chin: ——. Hair: ——. Complexion: ——. Face: ——.

If the applicant is to be accompanied by his wife, minor children or servants, it will be sufficient to state the names and ages of such persons and their relationship to the applicant, when a single passport for the whole will suffice. For any other person in the party a separate passport will be required. A woman's passport may include her minor children and servants.

FEE REQUIRED.

By act of Congress approved March 23, 1888, a fee of one dollar is required to be collected for every citizen's passport. That amount in currency or postal note should accompany each application. Orders should be payable to the Disbursing Clerk of the Department of State. Drafts or checks are inconvenient and undesirable.

A passport is good for two years from its date and no longer. A new one may be obtained by stating the date and number of the old one, paying the fee of one dollar and furnishing satisfactory evidence that the applicant is at the time within the United States. The oath of allegiance must also be transmitted when the former passport was issued prior to 1861.

Citizens of the United States desiring to obtain passports while in a foreign country must apply to the chief diplomatic representative of the United States in that country, or, in the absence of a diplomatic representative, then to the consul-general, if there be one, or, in the absence of both the officers last named, to a consul. Passports cannot be lawfully issued by State authorities, or by judicial or municipal functionaries of the United States. (Revised Statutes, § 4075.)

To persons wishing to obtain passports for themselves blank forms of application will be furnished by this department on request, stating whether the applicant be a native or a naturalized citizen, or claims citizenship through the naturalization of husband or parent. Forms are not furnished except as samples, to those who make a business of procuring passports.

Applications for forms should state whether for native or naturalized citizens or persons claiming citizenship through naturalization of parent—the form being different in each case.

Communications should be addressed to the Department of State, endorsed "Passport Division," and each communication should give the post-office address of the person to whom the answer is to be directed. Professional titles will not be inserted in passports.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, D. C., 1892.

NATURALIZATION LAWS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE conditions under and the manner in which an alien may be admitted to become a citizen of the United States are prescribed by Sections 2165–74 of the Revised Statutes of the United States.

DECLARATION OF INTENTION.

The alien must declare upon oath before a circuit or district court of the United States, or a district or supreme court of the Territories, or a court of record of any of the States having common law jurisdiction, and a seal and clerk, two years at least prior to his admission, that it is, *bona fide*, his intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or State, and particularly to the one of which he may be at the time a citizen or subject.

OATH ON APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION.

He must, at the time of his application to be admitted, declare on oath, before some one of the courts above specified, that he will support the Constitution of the United States, and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to every foreign prince, potentate, State or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, State or sovereignty of which he was before a citizen or subject, which proceedings must be recorded by the clerk of the court.

CONDITIONS FOR CITIZENSHIP.

If it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court to which the alien has applied that he has resided continuously within the United States for at least five years, and within the State or Territory where such court is at the time held one year at least; and that during that time "he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same," he will be admitted to citizenship.

TITLES OF NOBILITY.

If the applicant has borne any hereditary title or order of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of the same at the time of his application.

SOLDIERS.

Any alien of the age of twenty-one years and upward, who has been in the armies of the United States and has been honorably discharged therefrom, may become a citizen on his petition, without any previous declaration of intention, provided that he has resided in the United States at least one year previous to his application, and is of good moral character. (It is judicially decided that residence of one year in a particular State is not requisite.)

MINORS.

Any alien under the age of twenty-one years who has resided in the United States three years next preceding his arriving at that age, and who has continued to reside therein to the time he may make application to be admitted a citizen thereof, may, after he arrives at the age of twenty-one years, and after he has resided five years within the United States, including the three years of his minority, be admitted a citizen; but he must make a declaration on oath and prove to the satisfaction of the court that for two years next preceding it has been his *bona fide* intention to become a citizen.

CHILDREN OF NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

The children of persons who have been duly naturalized, being under the age of twenty-one years at the time of the naturalization of their parents, shall, if dwelling in the United States, be considered as citizens thereof.

CITIZENS' CHILDREN WHO ARE BORN ABROAD.

The children of persons who now are or have been citizens of the United States are, though born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, considered as citizens thereof.

CHINESE.

The naturalization of Chinamen is expressly prohibited by Section 14, Chapter 126, Laws of 1882.

PROTECTION ABROAD TO NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

Section 2000 of the Revised Statutes of the United States declares that "all naturalized citizens of the United States while in foreign countries are entitled to and shall receive from this government the same protection of persons and property which is accorded to native-born citizens."

THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE.

The right to vote comes from the State, and is a State gift. Naturalization is a federal right, and is a gift of the Union, not of any one State. In nearly one-half the Union aliens (who have declared intentions) vote and have the right to vote equally with naturalized or native-born citizens. In the other half only actual citizens may vote. The federal naturalization laws apply to the whole Union alike, and provide that no alien may be naturalized until after five years' residence. Even after five years' residence and due naturalization he is not entitled to vote unless the laws of the State confer the privilege upon him, and he may vote in one State (Minnesota) four months after landing, if he has immediately declared his intention, under United States law, to become a citizen.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES BY STATES AT THE CENSUSES OF 1870, 1880 AND 1890.

SHOWING THE GROWTH OF THE COUNTRY SINCE THE END OF THE RECONSTRUCTION PERIOD.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Alabama	996,992	1,262,505	1,513,017
Arizona	9,658	40,440	59,620
Arkansas	484,471	802,525	1,128,179
California	560,247	864,694	1,208,130
Colorado	39,864	194,327	419,198
Connecticut	537,454	622,700	746,258
Dakota	14,181	135,177	.....
Delaware	125,015	146,608	168,493
District of Columbia	131,700	177,624	230,392
Florida	187,748	269,493	391,422
Georgia	1,184,109	1,542,180	1,837,353
Idaho	14,999	32,610	84,385
Illinois	2,539,891	3,077,871	3,826,351
Indiana	1,680,637	1,978,301	2,192,404
Iowa	1,194,020	1,624,615	1,911,896
Kansas	364,399	996,096	1,427,096
Kentucky	1,321,011	1,648,690	1,858,635
Louisiana	726,915	939,946	1,118,587
Maine	626,915	648,936	661,086
Maryland	780,894	934,943	1,042,390
Massachusetts	1,457,351	1,783,085	2,238,943
Michigan	1,184,050	1,636,937	2,093,889
Minnesota	439,706	780,773	1,301,826
Mississippi	827,922	1,131,597	1,289,600
Missouri	1,721,295	2,168,380	2,679,184
Montana	20,595	39,159	132,159
Nebraska	122,993	452,402	1,058,910
Nevada	42,491	62,266	45,761
New Hampshire	318,300	346,991	376,530
New Jersey	906,096	1,131,116	1,444,933
New Mexico	91,874	119,565	153,593
New York	4,382,759	5,082,871	5,997,853
North Carolina	1,071,361	1,399,750	1,617,947
North Dakota	.....	.....	182,719
Ohio	2,665,260	3,198,062	3,672,316
Oklahoma	.....	.....	61,834
Oregon	90,923	174,768	313,767
Pennsylvania	3,521,951	4,282,891	5,258,014
Rhode Island	217,353	276,531	345,506
South Carolina	705,606	995,577	1,151,149
South Dakota	.....	.....	328,808
Tennessee	1,258,520	1,542,359	1,767,518
Texas	818,579	1,591,749	2,235,523
Utah	86,786	143,963	207,905
Vermont	330,551	332,286	332,422
Virginia	1,225,163	1,512,565	1,655,980
Washington	23,955	75,116	349,390
West Virginia	442,014	618,457	762,704
Wisconsin	1,054,670	1,315,497	1,686,880
Wyoming	9,118	20,789	60,705
Total	38,558,371	50,155,783	62,622,250

The inhabitants of Alaska and the Indian Territory are not included in the above. Total population of the United States in 1890, 62,830,361.

POPULATION OF CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

FIFTY PRINCIPAL CITIES IN 1890 IN THE ORDER OF THEIR RANK.

CENSUS OF 1890.

New York City	*1,710,715 †1,515,301
Chicago, Ill.	1,099,850
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,046,964
Brooklyn, N. Y.	‡853,945 †806,343
St. Louis, Mo.	451,770
Boston, Mass.	448,477
Baltimore, Md.	434,439
San Francisco, Cal.	298,997
Cincinnati, O.	296,908
Cleveland, O.	261,353
Buffalo, N. Y.	255,664
New Orleans, La.	242,039
Pittsburg, Pa.	238,617
Washington, D. C.	230,392
Detroit, Mich.	205,876
Milwaukee, Wis.	204,468
Newark, N. J.	181,830
Minneapolis, Minn.	164,738
Jersey City, N. J.	163,003
Louisville, Ky.	161,129
Omaha, Neb.	140,452
Rochester, N. Y.	133,896
St. Paul, Minn.	133,156
Providence, R. I.	132,146
Kansas City, Mo.	119,668
Denver, Col.	106,713
Indianapolis, Ind.	105,430
Allegheny, Pa.	105,287
Albany, N. Y.	94,923
Columbus, O.	88,150
Syracuse, N. Y.	88,143
Worcester, Mass.	84,655
Toledo, O.	81,434
Richmond, Va.	81,388
New Haven, Conn.	81,298
Paterson, N. J.	78,347
Lowell, Mass.	77,696
Nashville, Tenn.	76,168
Scranton, Pa.	75,215
Fall River, Mass.	74,398
Cambridge, Mass.	70,028
Atlanta, Ga.	65,533
Memphis, Tenn.	64,495
Wilmington, Del.	61,431
Dayton, O.	61,220
Troy, N. Y.	60,956
Grand Rapids, Mich.	60,278
Reading, Pa.	58,661
Camden, N. J.	58,313
Trenton, N. J.	57,458

* Municipal census of October, 1890. † Federal census of June, 1890. ‡ Municipal census of November, 1890.

POPULATION OF ALL OTHER CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES HAVING 15,000 POPULATION AND OVER.

Akron, O.	27,601
Allentown, Pa.	25,228
Altoona, Pa.	30,337
Amsterdam, N. Y.	17,336
Auburn, N. Y.	25,858
Augusta, Ga.	33,300
Aurora, Ill.	19,688
Bangor, Me.	19,103
Bay City, Mich.	27,839
Bayonne, N. J.	19,033
Belleville, Ill.	15,361
Binghamton, N. Y.	35,005
Birmingham, Ala.	26,178
Bloomington, Ill.	20,020
Bridgeport, Conn.	48,866
Brockton, Mass.	27,294
Burlington, Ia.	22,565
Canton, O.	26,189
Cedar Rapids, Ia.	18,020
Charleston, S. C.	54,955
Chattanooga, Tenn.	29,100
Chelsea, Mass.	27,909
Chester, Pa.	20,226
Cohoes, N. Y.	22,509
Columbia, S. C.	15,353
Columbus, Ga.	17,303
Concord, N. H.	17,004
Council Bluffs, Ia.	21,474
Covington, Ky.	37,371
Dallas, Tex.	38,067
Danbury, Conn.	16,552
Davenport, Ia.	26,872
Decatur, Ill.	16,841
Des Moines, Ia.	50,093
Dubuque, Ia.	30,311
Duluth, Minn.	33,115
Eau Claire, Wis.	17,415
Elgin, Ill.	17,823
Elizabeth City, N. J.	37,764
Elmira, N. Y.	29,708
Erie, Pa.	40,634
Evansville, Ind.	50,756
Findlay, O.	18,553
Fitchburg, Mass.	22,037
Fort Wayne, Ind.	35,393
Fort Worth, Tex.	23,076
Galesburg, Ill.	15,264
Galveston, Tex.	29,084
Gloucester, Mass.	24,651
Hamilton, O.	17,565
Harrisburg, Pa.	39,385
Hartford, Conn.	53,230
Haverhill, Mass.	27,412
Hoboken, N. J.	43,648
Holyoke, Mass.	35,637
Houston, Tex.	27,557
Jackson, Mich.	20,798
Jacksonville, Fla.	17,201
Jamestown, N. Y.	16,038
Johnstown, Pa.	21,805
Joliet, Ill.	23,264
Kalamazoo, Mich.	17,853
Kansas City, Kan.	38,316
Key West, Fla.	18,080
Kingston, N. Y.	21,261
Knoxville, Tenn.	22,535
La Crosse, Wis.	25,090
Lafayette, Ind.	16,243
Lancaster, Pa.	32,011
Lawrence, Mass.	44,654
Leavenworth, Kan.	19,768
Lewiston, Me.	21,701
Lexington, Ky.	21,567
Lima, O.	15,987
Lincoln, Neb.	55,154
Lincoln, R. I.	20,355
Little Rock, Ark.	25,874
Lockport, N. Y.	16,038
Long Island City, N.Y.	30,506
Los Angeles, Cal.	50,395
Lynchburg, Va.	19,709
Lynn, Mass.	55,727
McKeesport, Pa.	20,741
Macon, Ga.	22,746
Malden, Mass.	23,031
Manchester, N. H.	44,126
Meriden, Conn.	21,652
Mobile, Ala.	31,076
Montgomery, Ala.	21,883
Muskegon, Mich.	22,702
Nashua, N. H.	19,311
New Albany, Ind.	21,659
New Bedford, Mass.	40,733
New Brighton, N. Y.	16,423
New Britain, Conn.	19,007
New Brunswick, N. J.	18,603
Newburg, N. Y.	23,087
Newport, Ky.	24,918
Newport, R. I.	19,457
Newton, Mass.	24,379
Norfolk, Va.	34,871
Norristown, Pa.	19,791
North Adams, Mass.	16,074
Norwalk, Conn.	17,747
Norwich, Conn.	16,156
Oakland, Cal.	48,682
Orange, N. J.	18,844
Oshkosh, Wis.	22,836
Oswego, N. Y.	21,842
Pawtucket, R. I.	27,633
Peoria, Ill.	41,024
Petersburg, Va.	22,680
Pittsfield, Mass.	17,281
Portland, Me.	36,425
Portland, Ore.	46,385
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	22,206
Pueblo, Col.	24,558
Quincy, Ill.	31,494
Quincy, Mass.	16,723
Racine, Wis.	21,014
Richmond, Ind.	16,608
Roanoke, Va.	16,159
Rockford, Ill.	23,584
Sacramento, Cal.	26,386
Saginaw, Mich.	46,322
St. Joseph, Mo.	52,324
Salem, Mass.	30,801
Salt Lake City, Utah	44,843
San Antonio, Tex.	37,673
San Diego, Cal.	16,159
Sandusky, O.	18,471
San José, Cal.	18,060
Savannah, Ga.	43,189
Schenectady, N. Y.	19,902
Seattle, Wash.	42,837
Sheboygan, Wis.	16,359
Shenandoah, Pa.	15,944
Sioux City, Ia.	37,806
Somerville, Mass.	40,152
South Bend, Ind.	21,819
Spokane Falls, Wash.	19,922
Springfield, Ill.	24,963
Springfield, Mass.	44,179
Springfield, Mo.	21,850
Springfield, O.	31,895
Stamford, Conn.	15,700
Tacoma, Wash.	36,006
Taunton, Mass.	25,448
Terre Haute, Ind.	30,217
Topeka, Kan.	31,007
Utica, N. Y.	44,007
Waltham, Mass.	18,707
Warwick, R. I.	17,761
Waterbury, Conn.	28,646
Wheeling, W. Va.	35,013
Wichita, Kan.	23,853

POPULATION OF ALL OTHER CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES HAVING 15,000 POPULATION AND OVER.—(*Continued.*)

Wilkesbarre, Pa. 37,718	Winona, Minn. 18,208	York, Pa. 20,793
Williamsport, Pa. 27,132	Woonsocket, R. I. 20,030	Youngstown, O. 32,220
Wilmington, N. C. 20,056	Yonkers, N. Y. 32,033	Zanesville, O. 21,009

NOTE BY THE CENSUS OFFICE.

In defining what constitutes a city, in each case the Census Office has consistently maintained the policy of including only such population as lives within the charter limits, because no other defined limits exist. In many cases, however, this does not give to the city all the population which naturally belongs to it. There may be populous suburbs, which are to all intents and purposes parts of the city, whose inhabitants transact business within the city, who are served by the same post-office, etc., but who, living without the charter limits, are not included in the city's population. Of this our greatest city, New York, is a forcible example. Within a radius of fifteen miles of City Hall on Manhattan Island the people are in effect citizens of New York, so far as their business and social interests go, although politically they live in different cities, counties and States. This body of population, the commercial metropolis of the country, contains a population considerably in excess of 3,000,000, or two-thirds that of London, which is, similarly, a congeries of municipalities.

LARGEST CITIES OF THE EARTH.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE LATEST OFFICIAL CENSUSES.

Cities.	Census Year.	Population.	Cities.	Census Year.	Population.
London	1891	4,231,431	Buffalo	1890	254,457
Paris	1886	2,344,550	Seoul, Corea	estimated.	250,000
New York (municipal)	1890	1,710,715	Stockholm	1890	246,154
Canton	estimated.	1,600,000	Lisbon	1870	242,297
Berlin	1890	1,579,244	New Orleans	1890	241,995
Tokio, Japan	1890	1,389,684	Bordeaux	1886	240,582
Vienna	1890	1,364,548	Pittsburg	1890	238,473
Chicago	1890	1,098,576	Santiago, Chili	1885	236,412
Philadelphia	1890	,044,894	Washington	1890	229,796
St. Petersburg	1890	956,226	Alexandria	1882	227,064
Constantinople	1885	873,565	Benares	1891	222,420
Brooklyn (municipal)	1890	853,945	Bucharest	1876	221,805
Calcutta	1891	840,130	Bristol, England	1891	221,665
Bombay	1891	804,470	Hong Kong	1891	221,141
Moscow	1885	753,469	Montreal	1891	216,650
Glasgow	1891	565,714	Bradford, England	1891	216,361
Buenos Ayres	1891	546,986	Antwerp	1889	215,779
Naples	1890	530,872	Nottingham, England	1891	211,984
Liverpool	1891	517,951	Teheran, Persia	estimated.	210,000
Buda-Pesth	1890	506,384	Rotterdam	1890	209,136
Manchester	1891	505,343	Genoa	1890	206,185
Peking, China	estimated.	500,000	Detroit	1890	205,669
Melbourne	1891	488,999	Milwaukee	1890	204,105
Osaka, Japan	1890	476,271	Magdeburg	1890	202,325
Madrid	1887	472,228	Damascus	estimated.	200,000
Brussels	1889	469,317	Hull, England	1891	199,991
St. Louis	1890	460,357	Havana	1888	198,261
Madras	1891	449,950	Salford, England	1891	198,136
Boston	1890	446,507	Delhi	1891	193,580
Warsaw	1890	443,426	Florence	1890	191,453
Baltimore	1890	435,151	Penang	1881	190,597
Birmingham	1891	429,171	Lille	1886	188,272
Rome	1890	423,217	Mandelay	1891	187,910
Amsterdam	1890	417,539	Smyrna	1885	186,510
Milan	1890	414,551	Newcastle	1891	186,345
Lyons	1886	401,930	Cawnpore	1891	182,310
Hyderabad, India	1891	392,730	Newark, U. S.	1890	181,578
Sydney	1891	386,400	Toronto	1891	181,220
Marseilles	1884	376,143	Frankfort	1890	179,850
Cairo	1882	368,108	Riga, Russia	1885	175,332
Leeds	1891	367,506	Kharkoff, Russia	1885	171,416
Rio de Janeiro	1885	357,332	Valencia	1886	170,763
Shanghai	estimated.	355,000	Kieff, Russia	1887	170,216
Leipzig	1890	353,272	Hanover	1890	165,499
Munich	1890	348,317	Minneapolis	1890	164,738
Breslau	1890	335,174	Jersey City	1890	163,987
Mexico	1890	329,535	Konigsburg	1890	161,528
Sheffield	1891	324,243	Louisville	1890	161,005
Hamburg	1890	323,928	The Hague	1890	160,531
Turin	1890	320,808	Manila	estimated.	160,000
Copenhagen	1890	312,387	Patna	estimated.	160,000
Prague	1889	304,000	Portsmouth, England	1891	159,255
San Francisco	1890	297,990	Trieste	1890	158,344
Cincinnati	1890	296,309	Venice	1890	158,019
Cologne	1890	281,273	Dundee	1891	155,640
Kioto, Japan	1890	279,792	Ghent	1889	150,656
Dresden	1890	276,085	Toulouse	1886	147,617
Lucknow	1891	272,590	Seville	1887	143,182
Barcelona	1887	272,481	Liege	1889	142,657
Odessa	1887	270,643	Leicester, England	1891	142,051
Palermo	1890	267,416	Stuttgart	1890	139,659
Cleveland	1890	261,546	Omaha	1890	139,526
Edinburgh	1891	261,261	Rochester, U. S.	1890	138,327
Belfast	1891	255,896	Bremen	1890	125,830
Dublin	1891	254,709	Yokohama	1890	121,985

TABLE FOR THE CONVERSION OF METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES INTO ENGLISH.

Mètres into yards.		Kilomètres to miles and yards.			Litres into galls. and quarts.			Hectolitres into quarts and bushels.			Kilogrammes into cwts., qrs., lbs., oz.					Hectares into acres, r., p.			
1	1.094	1	0	1094	1	0	0.880	1	0	2.751	1	0	0	2	3¼	1	2	1	35
2	2.187	2	1	427	2	0	1.761	2	0	5.502	2	0	0	4	6½	2	4	3	31
3	3.281	3	1	1521	3	0	2.641	3	1	0.254	3	0	0	6	9¾	3	7	1	26
4	4.374	4	2	855	4	0	3.521	4	1	3.005	4	0	0	8	13	4	9	3	22
5	5.468	5	3	188	5		0.402	5	1	5.756	5	0	0	11	0¼	5	12	1	17
6	6.562	6	3	1282	6	1	1.282	6	2	0.507	6	0	0	13	3½	6	14	3	12
7	7.655	7	4	615	7	1	2.163	7	2	3.258	7	0	0	15	7	7	17	1	8
8	8.749	8	4	1709	8	1	3.043	8	2	6.010	8	0	0	17	10¼	8	19	3	3
9	9.843	9	5	1043	9	1	3.923	9	3	0.761	9	0	0	19	13½	9	22	0	38
10	10.936	10	6	376	10	2	0.804	10	3	3.512	10	0	0	22	0¾	10	24	2	34
20	21.873	20	12	753	20	4	1.608	20	6	7.024	20	0	1	16	1½	20	49	1	28
30	32.809	30	18	1129	30	6	2.412	30	10	2.536	30	0	2	10	2¼	30	74	0	21
40	43.745	40	24	1505	40	8	3.215	40	13	6.048	40	0	3	4	3	40	98	3	15
50	54.682	50	31	122	50	11	0.019	50	17	1.560	50	0	3	26	3¾	50	123	2	9
60	65.618	60	37	498	60	13	0.823	60	20	5.072	60	1	0	20	4½	60	148	1	3
70	76.554	70	43	874	70	15	1.627	70	24	0.585	70	1	1	14	5¼	70	172	3	37
80	87.491	80	49	1251	80	17	2.431	80	27	4.097	80	1	2	8	6	80	197	2	38
90	98.427	90	55	1627	90	19	3.235	90	30	7.609	90	1	3	2	6½	90	222	1	24
100	109.363	100	62	243	100	22	0.039	100	34	3.121	100	1	3	24	7	100	247	0	18
200	218.727	200	124	487	200	44	0.077	200	68	6.242	200	3	3	20	15	200	494	0	37
300	328.090	300	186	730	300	66	0.116	300	103	1.362	300	5	3	17	6	300	741	1	15
400	437.453	400	248	973	400	88	0.155	400	137	4.483	400	7	3	13	14	400	988	1	33
500	546.816	500	310	1217	500	110	0.193	500	171	7.604	500	9	3	10	5	500	1235	2	11

FOREIGN WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

FRANCE.

I. *Measure of Length.*

1 Myriamètre..... = 10000 Mètres.
1 Kilomètre..... = 1000 Mètres.
1 Decamètre..... = 10 Mètres.
1 Mètre..... = The 10,000,000 part of the quarter of the meridian of the earth.
1 Decimètre..... = 1-10th of a mètre.
1 Centimètre..... = 1-100th of a mètre.
1 Milimètre..... = 1-1000th of a mètre.

II. *Measure of Surface.*

1 Hectare..... = 100 Ares.
1 Are..... = 100 Square mètres.
1 Centiare..... = 1 Square mètre.

III. *Measure of Solidity.*

1 Stere..... = 1 Cubic mètre.
1 Decistere..... = 1-10th of a stere.

IV. *Measure of Capacity.*

1 Kilolitre..... = 1 Cubic mètre.
1 Hectolitre..... = 10 Decalitres.
1 Decalitre..... = 10 Litres.
1 Litre..... = 1 Cubic decimètre.
1 Decilitre..... = 1-10th of a litre.

V. *Measure of Weight.*

1 Millia..... = 1000 Kilogrammes, and is the weight of a ton of sea-water.
1 Quintal..... = 100 Kilogrammes.
1 Kilogramme..... = Weight of a cubic decimètre of water, at the temperature of 4° above melting ice, or about 40° Fahrenheit.
1 Hectogramme..... = 100 Grammes.
1 Decagramme..... = 10 Grammes.
1 Gramme..... = 1-1000th of a kilogramme.
1 Decigramme..... = 1-10th of a gramme.

These measures may be compared with the English measures by means of the following table:

1 Mètre..... = 39.38 English inches, nearly.
1 Are..... = 3.9 English perches, nearly.
1 Stere..... = 35.32 English cubic feet.
1 Litre..... = 1.76 English pints.
1 Gramme..... = 15.44 English grains.

BELGIUM.

The metrical system is used here; but the kilogramme is termed a livre; the litre, a litron; and the mètre, an aune.

NETHERLANDS.

Here, also, the metrical system has been adopted; but Flemish names are employed instead of those used in France.

LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM.

The metrical system, with Italian names substituted for most of the original terms, is used officially; but the old measures are also used. See *Venice.*

AUSTRIA.

The ell = 30.6 inches. The joch = 1 acre 1.75 rood. The metzen = 1-7 bushel. The eimer = 12.4 gallons. The pfund = 1-2 pound. Gold and silver are weighed by the mark of Vienna, which = 4333 grains.

BASLE.

100 pounds = 108.6 pounds avoirdupois. The ohm = 10.7 gallons. The sack = 3.6 bushels. The large and small ells = 46.4 and 21.4 inches respectively.

BAVARIA.

The long and short ells = 24 and 23.3 inches respectively. The schaff of 8 metzen = 5.6 bushels. The muid of 48 mass = 15 gallons. 100 pounds heavy and light weight = 108.3 and 104.2 pounds avoirdupois respectively. The mark of Augsburg = 3643 grains.

BREMEN.

The foot or half-ell = 11.4 inches. The ohm = 31.5 gallons. The last = 10.2 quarters. 100 pounds = 109.9 pounds avoirdupois.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The centner, or 100 pounds Dutch weight = 108.9 pounds avoirdupois. The leager of 15 ankers = 126.5 gallons. The muid of schepels = 3 bushels. The ell of 27 Rhynland inches = 27.8 inches.

CHINA.

The chang of 10 chih = 4 yards, nearly. The shing = 1 pint. 10 ho = 1 shing; 10 shing = 1 tow; 10 tow = 1 hwuh, or 120 catties. The catty = 1.33 pound avoirdupois. 16 taels = 1 catty; 100 catties = 1 pecul. Liquids are sold by weight; but the English gallon is used in trading with foreigners.

DENMARK.

The foot = 12.3 inches. 100 ells = 68.6 yards. The viertel = 1.7 gallon. 100 tonnen = 47.8 quarters. The pound = 1.1 pound avoirdupois. The pound for gold and siver weighs 7266 grains.

EAST INDIES.

Bengal.—The Factory maund = 74.66 pounds avoirdupois. 10 bazar maunds = 11 Factory maunds. 16 chittacks = 1 seer; 40 seers = 1 maund. The guz of 2 cubits = 1 yard.

Bombay.—The maund = 28 pounds avoirdupois. 40 seers = 1 maund; 20 maunds = 1 candy. The candy = 24.5 bushels.

Madras.—The maund = 25 pounds avoirdupois. 40 pollams = 1 vi; 8 vis = 1 maund, mauns = 1 candy. The covid = 18.6 inches. The gars of 80 parahs = 16.875 quarters, and weighs 8400 pounds avoirdupois.

EGYPT.

The Turkish pike = 27 inches. The ardeb of 24 Cairo rubbie = 6 quarters. The cantar = 100 pounds avoirdupois. 216 drams or 144 metricals = 1 rottole; 100 rottoli or 36 okes = 1 cantar.

FRANKFORT ON THE MAINE.

The ell = 21.2 inches. The foot = 11.2 inches. The matter = 3 bushels, nearly. The viertel = 1.6 gallon, nearly. The pound, light and heavy weight, = 1.03 and 1.1 pound avoirdupois. The Zoll-centner = 110.2 pounds avoirdupois. The Cologne mark, used for gold and silver, weighs 3609 grains.

GENEVA.

The ell = 45 inches. The acre = 1 acre 1.1 rood. The coupe, or sack = 2.1 bushels. The setier = 10 gallons. The heavy pound = 1.2 pound avoirdupois; the light pound 1-6th less. The mark weighs 3785 grains.

GENOA.

The braccio of 2.5 palmi = 22.9 inches. The mina = 3.3 bushels. The barile = 16.3 gallons. The pound = 0.7 pound avoirdupois. 1.5 pound = 1 rottole. The pound sottile, for gold and silver, weighs 4891.5 grains.

GREECE.

The Venetian measures of length are used, the braccio being called a piche. 100 kila = 11.4 quarters. The cantaro of 40 okes = 112 pounds avoirdupois.

HAMBURG.

The foot = 11.3 inches, nearly. 100 ells = 62.6 yards. The scheffel = 1 acre 6 perches. The last = 1.09 last. The viertel = 1.6 gallon. The pound = 1.06 pound avoirdupois. For the Cologne mark, see *Frankfort.* 2 marks = 1 pound troy.

LUBECK.

The ell = 22.9 inches. The last = 11 quarters. The viertel = 1.6 gallon. The pound = 1.07 pound avoirdupois, nearly.

MALTA.

The palme = 10.25 inches; 3.5 palmi = 1 yard; 8 palmi = 1 canna. The salma = 7.8 bushels. The caffiso = 4.5 gallons. The barile = 9.33 gallons. 64 rottoli = 1 hundredweight. The cantaro = 175 pounds avoirdupois.

MAURITIUS.

Besides the English weights and measures, those of France before the late alteration are used. The aune = 1.3 yard. The velte = 1.7 gallon. The poid de marc = 1.08 pound avoirdupois.

NAPLES.

The canna = 83.2 inches. The moggia = 3 roods 12 perches. The tomolo = 1.4 bushel. The barile = 9.1 gallons. The cantaro grosso and piccolo = 196.5 and 106 pounds avoirdupois, respectively. The pound used in weighing gold and silver contains 4950 grains.

PORTUGAL.

The covado = 25.8 inches. The almude = 3.6 gallons. The pound = 1.01 pound avoirdupois.

PRUSSIA.

The ell = 26.5 inches. The morgen = 2 roods 21 perches. The scheffel = 1.5 bushel. The eimer = 15.1 gallons. The pound = 1.03 pound avoirdupois. The mark of Cologne is used for gold and silver.

ROME.

The canna of 8 palmi = 2.2 yards. The canna of 10 palma = 88 inches, nearly. The rubbio = 8.1 bushels. The boccale = 0.4 gallon. The pound = 0.7 pound avoirdupois.

RUSSIA.

The arshine = 28 inches. The foot = 13.75 inches. The dessetnia = 2 acres 2.8 roods. The tschetwert = 5.7 bushels. The wedro = 2.7 gallons. The pound = 0.9 pound avoirdupois. The pood = 36 pounds avoirdupois.

ST. GALLEN.

The ells for silks and woolens = 31.5 and 24.25 inches, respectively. The mütt of 4 viertels = 2.09 bushels. The eimer = 11.25 gallons. The pound, light and heavy weight = 1.03 and 1.3 pound avoirdupois, respectively.

SAXONY.

The foot = 11.1 inches. The acre = 1 acre 1.5 rood, nearly. The eimer, at Dresden, = 14.9 gallons; at Leipsic = 16.8 gallons. The wispel, at Dresden = 69.9 bushels; at Leipsic = 91.7 bushels. The pound = 1.03 pound avoirdupois.

SICILY.

The canna = 76.5 inches. The salma = 7.6 bushels. The barrel = 8 gallons, nearly. The pound of 12 ounces = 0.7 pound avoirdupois. The cantaro = 175 pounds avoirdupois

SMYRNA.

The pike = 27 inches. The killow = 11.3 gallons. The rottolo = 1.2 pound avoirdupois.

SOUTH AMERICA.

The Spanish and Portuguese measures are most generally employed. The use of the English measures prevails in some parts.

SPAIN.

The vara, or ell = 33.3 inches. The fanegada = 1 acre 21 perches. The arroba = 3.5 gallons. The fanega = 1.5 bushel. The pound = 1.01 pound avoirdupois.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

The ell = 23.3 inches. The tunneland = 1 acre 1 rood, nearly. The tunnu = 0.6 quarter. The kann = 0.6 gallon. The pound = 0.9 pound avoirdupois.

TURKEY.

The pike = 26.25 inches. The killow = 0.9 bushel. The almud = 1.1 gallon. The oke = 2.8 pounds avoirdupois. The rottolo = 1.3 pound avoirdupois.

TUSCANY.

The braccio = 23 inches, nearly. The saccata = 1 acre 0.9 rood. The sacche = 2 bushels. The fiasche = 4 pints. The pound = 12 ounces avoirdupois.

VENICE.

Besides the metrical system, the following measures are used: The braccio, for woolens = 26.6 inches; for silks = 24.8 inches. The staje = 2.2 bushels. The secchia = 2.4 gallons. The pound sottile = 0.7 pound avoirdupois, nearly; grosso = 1.05 pound avoirdupois.

REDUCTION OF FRENCH, PARIS, ENGLISH, AND RHENISH MEASURES OF LENGTH, USED BY SCIENTIFIC WRITERS, TO THE SCALE OF EACH.

TOISES, REDUCED TO ENGLISH AND RHENISH LENGTHS.

TOISES.	METRES.	ENGLISH FEET.	RHENISH FEET.
1	1.94904	6.39459	6.21002
2	3.89807	12.78918	12.42004
3	5.84711	19.18377	18.63006
4	7.79615	25.57837	24.84008
5	9.74518	31.97296	31.05010
6	11.69422	38.36755	37.26012
7	13.64326	44.76214	43.47014
8	15.59229	51.15673	49.68016
9	17.54133	57.55132	55.89017
10	19.49037	63.94592	62.10019
100	194.99366	639.45916	621.00194
1000	1949.03659	6394.59160	6210.91941

METRES, REDUCED TO PARIS, ENGLISH, AND RHENISH LENGTHS.

METRES.	TOISES.	PARIS. ft.	in.	lines.	ENGLISH. feet	& inches.	RHENISH FT.
1	0.51307	3	0	11.296	3	3.3708	3.18620
2	1.02615	6	1	10.592	6	6.7416	6.37240
3	1.53922	9	2	9.888	9	10.1124	9.55860
4	2.05230	12	3	9.184	13	1.4832	12.74480
5	2.56537	15	4	8.480	16	4.8539	15.93100
6	3.07844	18	5	7.776	19	8.2247	19.11720
7	3.59152	21	6	7.072	22	11.5955	22.30340
8	4.10459	24	7	6.368	26	2.9663	25.48960
9	4.61767	27	8	5.664	29	6.3371	28.67580
10	5.13074	30	9	4.960	32	9.7079	31.86200
100	51.30471	307	10	1.600	328	1.0790	318.62000
1000	513.07407	3078	5	4.000	3280	10.7900	3186.19996

A TABLE OF SPECIFIC GRAVITIES OF BODIES.

BAROMETER, 30 INCHES; FAHRENHEIT'S THERMOMETER, 60°.

(From the Works of Drs. Thompson, Young and Ure.)

Platinum	22.069	Nitre	1.900
Gold	19.360	Ivory	1.825
Quicksilver	13.568	Brimstone	1.810
Lead	11.352	Coal	1.250
Silver	10.474	Boxwood	1.030
Copper	8.878	Sea Water	1.026
Brass	8.396	Common Water	1.000
Steel	7.833	Oak (English)	.760
Iron (cast)	7.645	Walnut	.671
Tin	7.320	Cedar	.613
Glass (crystal)	3.150	Elm	.600
Granite	3.000	Willow	.585
Marble (Parian)	2.838	Fir	.550
Flint	2.570	Poplar	.383
Brick	2.000	Cork	.240

NOTE.—The several sorts of wood are supposed to be dry.

VARIATIONS IN TIME.

Washington, D. C.	12 00 m.	Denver, Col.	10 07 a. m.	Paris, France	5 42 p. m.
Athens, Greece	6 43 p. m.	Dublin, Ireland	4 43 p. m.	Pekin, China	12 54 a. m.
Auckland, New Zealand	4 51 a. m.	Gibraltar, Spain	4 51 p. m.	Philadelphia, Pa	12 13 p. m.
Augusta, Me	12 29 p. m.	Glasgow, Scotland	4 51 p. m.	Pittsburg, Pa	11 48 a. m.
Austin, Texas	10 37 a. m.	Halifax, Nova Scotia	12 54 p. m.	Rio Janeiro, Brazil	2 16 p. m.
Batavia, Java	12 15 a. m.	Harrisburg, Pa.	12 01 p. m.	Rome, Italy	5 58 p. m.
Bombay, India	10 00 p. m.	Lima, Peru	12 00 m	St. Louis, Mo	11 07 a. m.
Boston, Mass.	12 24 p. m.	London, England	5 07 p. m.	St. Petersburg, Russia	7 09 p. m.
Berlin, Prussia	6 01 p. m.	Madrid, Spain	4 53 p. m.	Salt Lake City, Utah	9 40 a. m.
Calcutta, India	11 01 p. m.	Mecca, Arabia	7 49 p. m.	San Francisco, Cal.	8 58 a. m.
Canton, China	12 41 a. m.	Mexico, Mexico	10 27 a. m.	Tallahassee, Fla.	11 30 a. m.
Charleston, S. C.	11 49 a. m.	New Orleans, La.	11 08 a. m.	Toronto, Canada	11 51 a. m.
Chicago, Ill.	11 18 a. m.	New York, N. Y.	12 12 p. m.	Valparaiso, Chili	12 21 p. m.
Constantinople, Turkey	7 04 p. m.	Olympia, Washington Ter.	8 57 a. m.	Yeddo, Japan	2 27 a. m.
Copenhagen, Denmark	5 58 p. m.	Omaha, Neb.	10 44 a. m.		

THE ENGLISH MILE COMPARED WITH OTHER EUROPEAN MEASURES.

	ENGLISH STATUTE MILE.	ENGLISH GEOG. MILE.	FRENCH KILOMETRE.	GERMAN GEOG. MILE.	RUSSIAN VERST.	AUSTRIAN MILE.	DUTCH URE.	NORWEGIAN MILE.	SWEDISH MILE.	DANISH MILE.	SWISS STUNDE.
English Statute Mile	1 000	1.153	1.609	0.217	1.508	0.212	0.289	0.142	0.151	0.213	0.335
English Geographical Mile	1.153	1.000	1.855	0.250	1.738	0.245	0.333	0.164	0.169	0.246	0.386
Kilometre	0.621	0.540	1.000	0.135	0.937	0.132	0.180	0.088	0.094	0.133	0.208
German Geographical Mile	4 610	4.000	7.420	1.000	6.953	0.978	1.333	0.656	0.694	0.985	1.543
Russian Verst	0.663	0.575	1.067	0.144	1.000	0.141	0.192	0.094	0.100	0.142	0.222
Austrian Mile	4.714	4.089	7.586	1.022	7.112	1.000	1.363	0.672	0.710	1.006	1.578
Dutch Ure	3.458	3.000	5.565	0.750	5.215	0.734	1.000	0.493	0.520	0.738	1.157
Norwegian Mile	7.021	6.091	11.299	1.523	10.589	1.489	2.035	1.000	1.057	1.499	2.350
Swedish Mile	6.644	5.764	10.692	1.441	10 019	1.409	1.921	0.948	1.000	1.419	2.224
Danish Mile	4.682	4.062	7.536	1.016	7.078	0.994	1.354	0.667	0.705	1.000	1.567
Swiss Stunde	2.987	2.592	4.808	0.648	4.505	0.634	0.864	0.425	0.449	0.638	1.000

LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

A TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF MILES IN A DEGREE OF LONGITUDE AT EACH DEGREE OF LATITUDE.

LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.	LAT.	MILES.
1°	60	11°	58.9	21°	56.0	31°	51.4	41°	45.3	51°	37.8	61°	29 1	71°	19.5	81°	9.4
2	60	12	58.7	22	55.6	32	50.9	42	44.6	52	36.9	62	28.2	72	18.5	82	8.4
3	59.9	13	58.5	23	55.2	33	50.3	43	43.9	53	36.1	63	27.2	73	17.5	83	7.3
4	59.9	14	58.2	24	54.8	34	49.7	44	43.2	54	35 3	64	26.3	74	16.5	84	6.3
5	59.8	15	58 0	25	54.4	35	49.1	45	42.4	55	34.4	65	25.4	75	15.5	85	5.2
6	59.7	16	57.7	26	53.9	36	48.5	46	41.7	56	33.6	66	24.4	76	14.5	86	4.2
7	59.6	17	57.4	27	53.5	37	47.9	47	40.9	57	32.7	67	23.4	77	13.5	87	3.1
8	59 4	18	57.1	28	53.0	38	47.3	48	40.1	58	31.8	68	22.5	78	12.5	88	2.1
9	59 3	19	56.7	29	52.5	39	46.6	49	39.4	59	30.9	69	21.5	79	11.4	89	1.0
10	59.1	20	56.4	30	52.0	40	46.0	50	38.6	60	30.0	70	20.5	80	10.4	90	0.0

MISCELLANEOUS ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

MEASURES OF LENGTH.

	In.	*Ft.*	*Yds.*	*Pls.*	*Ch.*	*Fs.*
Foot	12					
Yard	36	3				
Rod, pole or perch	198	16½	5½			
Chain	792	66	22	4		
Furlong		660	220	40	10	
Mile		5,280	1,760	320	80	8

PARTICULAR MEASURES OF LENGTH.

4 inches 1 hand.
A cubit 18 inches.
A fathom 6 feet.

A degree 69⅛ miles=60 nautical knots or geographical miles.
A league 3 miles.

SQUARE OR SURFACE MEASURE.

	In.	*Ft.*	*Yds.*	*Pls.*	*R.*
Square foot	144	1			
Square yard		9	1		
Rod, pole or perch			30¼	1	
Rood				40	1
Acre				160	4

A square mile contains 640 acres.

APOTHECARIES' WEIGHTS AND MEASURES BY WHICH MEDICINES ARE COMPOUNDED.

20 Grains = 1 Scruple ℈ = 20 grs.
3 Scruples = 1 Drachm ʒ = 60 grs.
8 Drachms = 1 Ounce ℥ = 480 grs.
12 Ounces = 1 Pound lb = 5760 grs.

Drugs are purchased by Avoirdupois Weight.

FLUID MEASURE.

	Marked.
60 Minims ♏ = 1 Fluid Drachm	fʒ
8 Drachms = 1 Ounce	fʒ
20 Ounces = 1 Pint	Ō
8 Pints = 1 Gallon	gal.

PARTICULAR WEIGHTS.

A Stone, Horseman's weight = 14 lbs.
A Firkin of Butter = 56 lbs.
A Barrel of Raisins = 112 lbs.
A Sack—Potatoes, 168 lbs.; Coals, 224 lbs.; Flour, 280 lbs.

MEASURES OF TIME.

60 Seconds = 1 Minute.
60 Minutes = 1 Hour.
24 Hours = 1 Day.
7 Days = 1 Week.
12 Calendar Months = 1 Year.
365 Days = 1 Common Year.
366 Days = 1 Leap Year.

ANGULAR MEASURE.

60 Seconds = 1 Minute.
60 Minutes = 1 Degree.
30 Degrees = 1 Sign.
90 Degrees = 1 Quadrant.
4 Quadrants, or 360° = 1 Circumference, or G't Circle.

CUBIC OR SOLID MEASURE.

1728 Cubic Inches = 1 Cubic Foot.
27 Cubic Feet = 1 Cubic Yard.
42 Cubic Feet of Timber = 1 Shipping Ton.
128 Cubic Feet = 1 Cord of Wood.

LIQUID MEASURE.

	Gal.	*Qt.*	*Pt.*
Four Gills, one Pint			1
Quart (57.75 cu. in.)		1	2
Gallon	1	4	8
Barrel (a unit of measure)	31½		

DRY MEASURE.

2 Pints (67.2 cu. in.) = 1 Quart.
8 Quarts (537.6 cu. in.) = 1 Peck.
4 Pecks (2150.4 cu. in.) = 1 Bushel.

MEASURES OF WEIGHT—AVOIRDUPOIS.

16 Ounces = 1 Pound = 7000 Grains.
25 Pounds = 1 Quarter (qr.)
4 Quarters = 1 Hundredweight (cwt.)
20 Cwt. = 1 Ton.

This weight is used in almost all commercial transactions and common dealings. At the coal mines 2240 lbs. are a ton.

TROY WEIGHT.

3½ Grains = 1 Carat.
24 Grains = 1 Pennyweight.
20 Pennyweights = 1 Ounce = 480 Grains.
12 Ounces = 1 Pound = 5760 Grains.

FRENCH METRICAL SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The Metrical System is based upon the length of the fourth part of a terrestrial meridian. The ten-millionth part of this arc was chosen as the unit of measures of length, and called *Mètre*. The cube of the tenth part of the mètre was adopted as the unit of capacity, and denominated *Litre*. The weight of a litre of distilled water at its greatest density was called *Kilogramme*, of which the thousandth part, or *Gramme*, was adopted as the unit of weight. The multiples of these proceeding in decimal progression are distinguished by the employment of the prefixes *deca*, *hecto*, *kilo*, and *myria*, from the Greek, and the subdivisions by *deci*, *centi*, and *milli*, from the Latin:—

MEASURES OF LENGTH (UNIT MÈTRE).

EQUAL TO	*Inches.*	*Feet.*	*Yards.*	*Fathoms.*	*Miles.*
Millimètre	0.03937	0.003281	0.0010936	0.0005468	0.0000006
Centimètre	0.39371	0.032809	0.010936[illegible]	0.0054682	0.0000062
Décimètre	3.93708	0.328090	0.1093633	0.0546816	0.0000621
MÈTRE	39.37079	3.280989	1.093633[illegible]	0.5468165	0.0006214
Décamètre	393.70790	32.809892	10.9363[illegible]6	5.4681[illegible]53	0.0062138
Hectomètre	3937.07900	328.089917	109.3[illegible]056	54 6816528	0.0621382
Kilomètre	39370.79000	3280.899167	1093.6[illegible]556	546.8165278	0.6213824
Myriamètre	393707.90000	32808.991667	10936.3[illegible]556	5468.1652778	6.2138242

CUBIC, OR MEASURES OF CAPACITY (UNIT LITRE).

EQUAL TO	*Cubic Inches.*	*Cubic Feet.*	*Pints.*	*Gallons.*	*Bushels.*
Millilitre, or cubic centimètre	0.06103	0.000035	[illegible].00176	0.0002201	0.0000275
Centilitre, 10 cubic do	0.61027	0.000353	0.01761	0.0022010	0.0002751
Décilitre, 100 cubic do	6.10271	0.003532	0.17608	0.0220097	0.0027512
LITRE, or cubic Décimètre	61.02705	0.035317	1.76077	0 2200967	0.0275121
Décalitre, or Centistère	610.27052	0.353166	17.60773	2.2009668	0.2751208
Hectolitre, or Décistère	6102.70515	3.531658	176.07734	22.0096677	2.7512085
Kilolitre, or Stère, or cubic mètre	61027.05152	35.316581	1760.77341	220.0966767	27.5120846
Myrialitre, or Décastère	610270.51519	353.165807	17607.73414	2200.9667675	275.1208459

MEASURES OF WEIGHT (UNIT GRAMME).

EQUAL TO	*Grains.*	*Troy Oz.*	*Avoirdupois lb.*	*Cwt.* = 112 *lb.*	*Tons* = 20 *cwt.*
Milligramme	0.01543	0.000032	0.0000022	0.0000000	0.0000000
Centigramme	0.15432	0.000322	0.0000220	0.0000002	0.0000000
Décigramme	1.54323	0.003215	0.0002205	0.0000020	0.0000001
GRAMME	15.43235	0.032151	0.0022046	0.0000197	0.0000010
Décagramme	154.32349	0.321507	0.0220462	0.0001968	0.0000098
Hectogramme	1543.23488	3.215073	0.2204621	0.0019684	0.0000984
Kilogramme	15432.34880	32.150727	2.2046213	0.0196841	0.0009842
Myriagramme	154323.48800	321.507267	22.0462126	0.1968412	0.0098421

SQUARE, OR MEASURES OF SURFACE (UNIT ARE).

EQUAL TO	*Sq. Feet.*	*Sq. Yards.*	*Sq. Perches.*	*Sq. Roods.*	*Sq. Acres.*
Centiare, or square mètre	10.764299	1.196033	0.0395383	0.0009885	0.0002471
ARE, or 100 square mètres	1076.429934	119.603326	3.9538290	0.0988457	0.0247114
Hectare, or 10,000 square mètres	107642.993419	11960.332602	395.3828959	9.8845724	2.4711431

HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL TABLE OF THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES.

SHOWING THE AREA OF EACH IN SQUARE MILES, AND THE DATE OF ADMISSION OF NEW STATES INTO THE UNION, AND THE DATES OF ORGANIZATION OF TERRITORIES STILL REMAINING.

From the Report of the Commissioner of the General Land Office with Corrections. The areas are from the Census report of 1890.

The Thirteen Original States.	Ratified the Constitution.	Area of the Original States, in Square Miles.
New Hampshire	June 21, 1788	9,005
Massachusetts	Feb. 6, 1788	8,315
Rhode Island	May 29, 1790	1,250
Connecticut	Jan. 9, 1788	4,990
New York	July 26, 1788	49,170
New Jersey	Dec. 18, 1787	7,815
Pennsylvania	Dec. 12, 1787	45,215
Delaware	Dec. 7, 1787	2,050
Maryland	April 28, 1788	12,210
Virginia	June 25, 1788	42,450
North Carolina	Nov. 21, 1789	52,250
South Carolina	May 23, 1788	30,570
Georgia	Jan. 2, 1788	59,475

States Admitted.	Admission into the Union.	Area of Admitted States and Territories, in Square Miles.	States Admitted.	Admission into the Union.	Area of Admitted States and Territories, in Square Miles.
Kentucky	June 1, 1792	40,400	Wisconsin	May 29, 1848	56,040
Vermont	March 4, 1791	9,565	California	Sept. 9, 1850	158,360
Tennessee	June 1, 1796	42,050	Minnesota	May 11, 1858	83,365
Ohio	Nov. 29, 1802	41,060	Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859	96,030
Louisiana	April 30, 1812	48,720	Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861	82,080
Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816	36,350	West Virginia	June 19, 1863	24,780
Mississippi	Dec. 10, 1817	46,810	Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864	110,700
Illinois	Dec. 3, 1818	56,650	Nebraska	March 1, 1867	76,855
Alabama	Dec. 14, 1819	52,250	Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876	103,925
Maine	March 15, 1820	33,040	North Dakota	Nov. 3, 1889	70,195
Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821	69,415	South Dakota	Nov. 3, 1889	76,850
Arkansas	June 15, 1836	53,850	Montana	Nov. 8, 1889	145,310
Michigan	Jan. 26, 1837	58,915	Washington	Nov. 11, 1889	66,880
Florida	March 3, 1845	58,680	Idaho	July 3, 1890	84,290
Iowa	Dec. 28, 1846	56,025	Wyoming	July 11, 1890	97,576
Texas	Dec. 29, 1845	265,780			

Territories.	Organized.	Territories.	Organized.
New Mexico	September 9, 1850.	District of Columbia	July 16, 1790.
Utah	September 9, 1850.		March 3, 1791.
Arizona	February 24, 1863.	Alaska	July 27, 1868.
Indian*	June 30, 1834.	Oklahoma	May 2, 1890.

* The Indian Territory has as yet no organized Territorial government.

UNITED STATES MONEY.

United States money is the legal currency of the United States. Its denominations are shown in the following

TABLE.

10 cents are 1 dime, marked d.
10 dimes " 1 dollar, " $.

The Coins of the United States are of gold, silver, nickel, and bronze, as follows: Gold—Double-eagle, value $20; eagle, value $10; half-eagle, value $5; and the three-dollar, quarter-eagle and dollar gold pieces. Silver: Dollar, half-dollar, quarter-dollar and dime. The *Trade Dollar* is no longer coined. Nickel: Five-cent and three-cent pieces. Bronze: The cent. The two-cent piece is no longer coined.

The weight of the gold dollar is 25.8 grains, and of the other gold coins in proportion. The weight of the silver half-dollar is 12 1-2 grams (metric system) or 192.9 grains nearly, and of the smaller silver coins in proportion. The weight of the dollar is 412 1-2 grains and of the nickel five cents, 77.16 grains. The gold coins of the United States are nine parts pure gold and one part silver and copper; of the silver, nine parts pure metal and one of copper; of the nickel coin-metal twenty-five per cent. is nickel and seventy-five per cent. copper; of the bronze coin-metal five parts are zinc and tin and ninety-five parts copper.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Name.	Birthplace.	Year.	Residence.	Inaugurated. Year.	Inaugurated. Age.	Politics.	Place of Death.	Year.	Age.
1	George Washington	Westmoreland Co., Va.	1732	Virginia	1789	57	Fed.	Mt. Vernon, Va.	1799	67
2	John Adams	Quincy, Mass.	1735	Massachusetts.	1797	62	Fed.	Quincy, Mass.	1826	91
3	Thomas Jefferson	Shadwell, Va.	1743	Virginia.	1801	58	Rep.*	Monticello, Va.	1826	83
4	James Madison	Port Conway, Va.	1751	Virginia.	1809	58	Rep.	Montpelier, Va.	1836	85
5	James Monroe	Westmoreland Co., Va.	1758	Virginia.	1817	59	Rep.	New York City.	1831	73
6	John Quincy Adams	Quincy, Mass.	1767	Massachusetts	1825	58	Fed.	Washington, D. C.	1848	81
7	Andrew Jackson	Union County, N. C.	1767	Tennessee	1829	62	Dem.	Hermitage, Tenn.	1845	78
8	Martin Van Buren	Kinderhook, N. Y.	1782	New York	1837	55	Dem.	Lindenwold, N. Y.	1862	80
9	William H. Harrison	Berkeley, Va.	1773	Ohio	1841	68	Whig	Washington, D. C.	1841	68
10	John Tyler	Greenway, Va.	1790	Virginia.	1841	51	Dem.	Richmond, Va.	1862	72
11	James K. Polk	Mecklenburg Co., N. C.	1795	Tennessee	1845	50	Dem.	Nashville, Tenn.	1849	54
12	Zachary Taylor	Orange County, Va.	1784	Louisiana	1849	65	Whig	Washington, D. C.	1850	66
13	Millard Fillmore	Summerhill, N. Y.	1800	New York	1850	50	Whig	Buffalo, N. Y.	1874	74
14	Franklin Pierce	Hillsboro, N. H.	1804	N. Hampshire.	1853	49	Dem.	Concord, N. H.	1869	65
15	James Buchanan	Cove Gap, Pa.	1791	Pennsylvania.	1857	66	Dem.	Wheatland, Pa.	1868	77
16	Abraham Lincoln	Larue County, Ky.	1809	Illinois.	1861	52	Rep.	Washington, D. C.	1865	56
17	Andrew Johnson	Raleigh, N. C.	1808	Tennessee	1865	57	Rep.	Carter's Dep., Tenn.	1875	67
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Point Pleasant, O.	1822	D. C.	1869	47	Rep.	Mt. McGregor, N. Y.	1885	63
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Delaware, O.	1822	Ohio.	1877	54	Rep.			
20	James A. Garfield	Cuyahoga County, O.	1831	Ohio.	1881	49	Rep.	Long Branch, N. J.	1881	49
21	Chester A. Arthur	Fairfield, Vt.	1830	New York	1881	51	Rep.	New York City.	1886	56
22	Grover Cleveland	Caldwell, N. J.	1837	New York	1885	48	Dem.			
23	Benjamin Harrison	North Bend, O.	1833	Indiana	1889	55	Rep.			

* The Republican party previous to Jackson was the opponent of the Federalist party. John Quincy Adams claimed to be a Republican; but the Anti-Federalists repudiated him, adopted the name Democrat and elected Jackson over John Quincy Adams in 1828.

VICE-PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Name.	Birthplace.	Year.	Residence.	Qualified.	Politics.	Place of Death.	Year.	Age at Death.
1	John Adams	Quincy, Mass.	1735	Massachusetts	1789	Fed.	Quincy, Mass.	1826	91
2	Thomas Jefferson	Shadwell, Va.	1743	Virginia.	1797	Rep.	Monticello, Va.	1826	83
3	Aaron Burr	Newark, N. J.	1756	New York.	1801	Rep.	Staten Island, N. Y.	1836	80
4	George Clinton	Ulster Co., N. Y.	1739	New York.	1805	Rep.	Washington, D. C.	1812	73
5	Elbridge Gerry	Marblehead, Mass.	1744	Massachusetts.	1813	Rep.	Washington, D. C.	1814	70
6	Daniel D. Tompkins	Scarsdale, N. Y.	1774	New York.	1817	Rep.	Staten Island, N. Y.	1825	51
7	John C. Calhoun	Abbeville, S. C.	1782	SouthCarolina	1825	Rep.	Washington, D. C.	1850	68
8	Martin Van Buren	Kinderhook, N. Y.	1782	New York.	1833	Dem.	Kinderhook, N. Y.	1862	80
9	Richard M. Johnson	Louisville, Ky.	1780	Kentucky.	1837	Dem.	Frankfort, Ky.	1850	70
10	John Tyler	Greenway, Va.	1790	Virginia.	1841	Dem.	Richmond, Va.	1862	72
11	George M. Dallas	Philadelphia, Pa.	1792	Pennsylvania.	1845	Dem.	Philadelphia, Pa.	1864	72
12	Millard Fillmore	Summer Hill, N. Y.	1800	New York.	1849	Whig	Buffalo, N. Y.	1874	74
13	William R. King	Sampson Co., N. C.	1786	Alabama.	1853	Dem.	Dallas County, Ala.	1853	67
14	J. C. Breckinridge	Lexington, Ky.	1821	Kentucky.	1857	Dem.	Lexington, Ky.	1875	54
15	Hannibal Hamlin	Paris, Me.	1809	Maine.	1861	Rep.	Bangor, Me.	1891	81
16	Andrew Johnson	Raleigh, N. C.	1808	Tennessee.	1865	Rep.	Carter County, Tenn.	1875	67
17	Schuyler Colfax	New York City.	1823	Indiana.	1869	Rep.	Mankato, Minn.	1885	62
18	Henry Wilson	Farmington, N. H.	1812	Massachusetts	1873	Rep.	Washington, D. C.	1875	63
19	William A. Wheeler	Malone, N. Y.	1819	New York.	1877	Rep.	Malone, N. Y.	1887	68
20	Chester A. Arthur	Fairfield, Vt.	1830	New York.	1881	Rep.	New York City	1886	56
21	T. A. Hendricks	Muskingum Co., O.	1819	Indiana.	1885	Dem.	Indianapolis, Ind.	1885	66
22	Levi P. Morton	Shoreham, Vt.	1824	New York.	1889	Rep.			

JUSTICES OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

(Names of the Chief Justices in Italics.)

Name.	Term.	Born.	Died.	Name.	Term.	Born.	Died.
John Jay, N. Y	1789–1795	1745	1829	William Johnson, S. C	1804–1834	1771	1834
John Rutledge, S. C	1789–1791	1739	1800	Brockholdt Livingston, N. Y.	1806–1823	1757	1823
William Cushing, Mass	1789–1810	1733	1810	Thomas Todd, Ky	1807–1826	1765	1826
James Wilson, Pa	1789–1798	1742	1798	Joseph Story, Mass	1811–1845	1779	1845
John Blair, Va	1789–1796	1732	1800	Gabriel Duval, Md	1811–1836	1752	1844
Robert H. Harrison, Md	1789–1790	1745	1790	Smith Thompson, N. Y	1823–1843	1767	1843
James Iredell, N. C	1790–1799	1751	1799	Robert Trimble, Ky	1826–1828	1777	1828
Thomas Johnson, Md	1791–1793	1732	1819	John McLean, O	1829–1861	1785	1861
William Paterson, N. J	1793–1806	1745	1806	Henry Baldwin, Pa	1830–1844	1779	1844
John Rutledge, S. C	1795–1795	1739	1800	James M. Wayne, Ga	1835–1867	1790	1867
Samuel Chase, Md	1796–1811	1741	1811	*Roger B. Taney*, Md	1836–1864	1777	1864
Oliver Ellsworth, Conn	1796–1800	1745	1807	Philip P. Barbour, Va	1836–1841	1783	1841
Bushrod Washington, Va	1798–1829	1762	1829	John Catron, Tenn	1837–1865	1786	1865
Alfred Moore, N. C	1799–1804	1755	1810	John McKinley, Ala	1837–1852	1780	1852
John Marshall, Va	1801–1835	1755	1835	Peter V. Daniel, Va	1841–1860	1785	1860

JUSTICES OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT—(*Continued.*)

(Names of the Chief Justices in Italics.)

Name.	Term.	Born.	Died.	Name.	Term.	Born.	Died.
Samuel Nelson, N. Y.	1845–1872	1792	1873	Joseph P. Bradley, N. J.	1870–1892	1813	1892
Levi Woodbury, N. H.	1845–1851	1789	1851	Ward Hunt, N. Y.	1872–1882	1811	1886
Robert C. Grier, Pa.	1846–1870	1794	1870	*Morrison R. Waite*, O.	1874–1888	1816	1888
Benjamin R. Curtis, Mass.	1851–1857	1809	1874	John M. Harlan, Ky.	1877–....	1833	....
John A. Campbell, Ala.	1853–1861	1811	1889	William B. Woods, Ga.	1880–1887	1824	1887
Nathan Clifford, Me.	1858–1881	1803	1881	Stanley Matthews, O.	1881–1889	1824	1889
Noah H. Swayne, O.	186.–1881	1804	1884	Horace Gray, Mass.	1881–....	1828	....
Samuel F. Miller, Iowa.	1862–1890	1816	1890	Samuel Blatchford, N. Y.	1882–....	1820	....
David Davis, Ill.	1862–1877	1815	1886	Lucius Q. C. Lamar, Miss.	1888–....	1825	....
Stephen J. Field, Cal.	1863–....	1816	....	*Melville W. Fuller*, Ill.	1888–....	1833	....
Salmon P. Chase, O.	1864–1873	1808	1873	David J. Brewer, Kan.	1889–....	1837	....
William Strong, Pa.	1870–1880	1808	....	Henry B. Brown, Mich..	1890–....	1836	....

PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICIAL STATEMENT OF DECEMBER 1, 1891.

Interest-bearing Debt.

Funded loan of 1891	$25,364,500.00
Funded loan of 1907	559,573,650.00
Refunding certificates	88,720.00
Aggregate of interest-bearing debt, exclusive of Pacific Railroad bonds for which the United States is liable	$585,026,870.00

Debt on which Interest has Ceased since Maturity.

Aggregate of debt on which interest has ceased since maturity	$5,279,770.26

Debt Bearing no Interest.

Legal-tender notes		$346,681,016.00
Old demand notes		55,647.50
National bank notes:		
Redemption account		33,789,991.25
Fractional currency:		
Less $8,375,934 estimated as lost or destroyed, act of June 21, 1879		6,906,691.60
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest		$387,433,346.35

Certificates and Notes Issued on Deposits of Coin and Legal-tender Notes and Purchases of Silver Bullion.

Gold certificates	$161,852,139.00
Silver certificates	324,274,918.00
Currency certificates	10,135,000.00
Treasury notes of 1890	72,959,652.00
Aggregate of certificates and Treasury notes, offset by cash in the Treasury	$569,221,709.00

Classification of Debt, December 1, 1891.

Interest-bearing debt	$585,026,870.00
Debt on which interest has ceased since maturity	5,279,770.26
Debt bearing no interest	387,433,346.35
Aggregate of interest and non-interest-bearing debt	$977,739,986.61
Certificates and Treasury notes offset by an equal amount of cash in the Treasury	569,221,709.00
Aggregate of debt, including certificates and Treasury notes	$1,546,961,695.61

Cash in the Treasury.

Gold certificates	$161,852,139.00	
Silver certificates	324,274,918.00	
Currency certificates	10,135,000.00	
Treasury notes of 1890	72,959,652.00	
		$569,221,709.00
Fund for redemption of uncurrent National Bank notes	$5,560,510.47	
Outstanding checks and drafts	3,747,625.89	
Disbursing officers' balances	24,684,877.39	
Agency accounts, etc.	6,015,109.45	
		$40,008,123.20
Gold reserve	$100,000,000.00	
Net cash balance	39,126,917.96	
		$139,126,917.96
Total		$748,356,750.16
Cash balance in the Treasury, November 30, 1891		$139,126,917.96

PRINCIPAL OF THE PUBLIC DEBT, FROM 1791 TO 1891.

1791	Jan. 1	$75,463,476.52	1817	Jan. 1	$123,491,965.16	1842	Jan. 1	$20,601,226.28	1867	July 1	$2,678,126,103.87
1792	"	77,217,924.66	1818	"	103,466,633.83	1843	July 1	32,742,922.00	1868	"	2,611,687,851.19
1793	"	80,352,634.04	1819	"	95,529,648.28	1844	"	23,461,652.50	1869	"	2,588,452,213.94
1794	"	78,427,404.77	1820	"	91,015,566.15	1845	"	15,925,303.01	1870	"	2,480,672,427.81
1795	"	80,747,587.39	1821	"	89,987,427.66	1846	"	15,550,202.97	1871	"	2,353,211,332.32
1796	"	83,762,172.07	1822	"	93,546,676.98	1847	"	38,826,534.77	1872	"	2,253,251,328.78
1797	"	82,064,479.33	1823	"	90,875,877.28	1848	"	47,044,862.23	1873	"	2,231,482,993.20
1798	"	79,228,529.12	1824	"	90,269,777.77	1849	"	63,061,858.69	1874	"	2,251,690,468.43
1799	"	78,408,669.77	1825	"	83,788,432.71	1850	"	63,452,773.55	1875	"	2,232,284,531.95
1800	"	82,976,294.35	1826	"	81,054,059.99	1851	"	68,304,796.02	1876	"	2,180,395,067.15
1801	"	83,038,050.80	1827	"	73,987,357.20	1852	"	66,199,341.71	1877	"	2,205,301,392.10
1802	"	86,712,632.25	1828	"	67,475,043.87	1853	"	59,803,117.70	1878	"	2,256,205,892.53
1803	"	77,054,686.30	1829	"	58,421,413.67	1854	"	42,242,222.42	1879	"	2,349,567,232.04
1804	"	86,427,120.88	1830	"	48,565,406.50	1855	"	35,586,858.56	1880	"	2,128,791,054.63
1805	"	82,312,150.50	1831	"	39,123,191,68	1856	"	31,972,537.90	1881	"	2,077,389,253.58
1806	"	75,723,270.66	1832	"	24,322,235.18	1857	"	28,699,831.85	1882	"	1,926,688,678.03
1807	"	69,218,398.64	1833	"	7,001,698.83	1858	"	44,911,881.03	1883	"	1,892,547,412.07
1808	"	65,196,317.97	1834	"	4,760,082.08	1859	"	58,496,837.88	1884	"	1,838,904,607.57
1809	"	57,023,192.09	1835	"	37,513.05	1860	"	64,842,287.88	1885	"	1,872,340,557.14
1810	"	53,173,217.52	1836	"	336,957.83	1861	"	90,580,873.72	1886	"	1,783,438,697.78
1811	"	48,005,587.76	1837	"	3,308,124.07	1862	"	524,176,412,13	1887	Dec. 1	1,664,461,586.38
1812	"	45,209,737.90	1838	"	10,434,221.14	1863	"	1,119,772,138.63	1888	"	1,680,917,706.23
1813	"	55,962,827.57	1839	"	3,573,343.82	1864	"	1,815,784,370.57	1889	"	1,617,272,419 53
1814	"	81,487,846.24	1840	"	5,250,875.54	1865	"	2,680,647,869.74	1890	"	1,549,296,126 48
1815	"	99,833,660.15	1841	"	13,594,480.73	1866	"	2,773,236,173.69	1891	"	1,546,961,695.61
1816	"	127,334,933.74									

COPYRIGHT LAW OF THE UNITED STATES.

SECTION 4952 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, in force December 1, 1873, as amended by the act of June 18, 1874, as amended by the act of March 3, 1891, provides that the author, inventor, designer, or proprietor of any book, map, chart, dramatic or musical composition, engraving, cut, print, or photograph or negative thereof, or of a painting, drawing, chromo, statuary, and of models or designs intended to be perfected as works of the fine arts, and the executors, administrators, or assigns of any such person, shall, upon complying with the provisions of this chapter, have the sole liberty of printing, reprinting, publishing, completing, copying, executing, finishing and vending the same; and, in the case of a dramatic composition, of publicly performing or representing it, or causing it to be performed or represented by others. And authors or their assigns shall have exclusive right to dramatize or translate any of their works, for which copyright shall have been obtained under the laws of the United States.

A *printed* copy of the title of the book, map, chart, dramatic or musical composition, engraving, cut, print, photograph or chromo, or a *description* of the painting, drawing, statue, statuary, or model or design for a work of the fine arts, for which copyright is desired, must be delivered to the Librarian of Congress or deposited in the mail, within the United States, *prepaid*, addressed "LIBRARIAN OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, D. C." This must be done on or before day of publication in this or any foreign country.

The *printed title* required may be a copy of the title-page of such publications as have title-pages. In other cases, the title must be printed expressly for copyright entry, with name of claimant of copyright. The style of type is immaterial, and the print of a type-writer will be accepted. But a separate title is required for each entry, and *each* title must be printed on paper as large as commercial note. The title of a *periodical* must include the date and number; and each number of a periodical requires a separate entry of copyright.

No copyright is valid unless notice is given by inserting in every copy published, on the title-page or the page following, if it be a book; or if a map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, engraving, photograph, painting, drawing, chromo, statue, statuary, or model or design intended to be perfected as a work of the fine arts, by inscribing upon some portion thereof, or on the substance on which the same is mounted, the following words, viz.: "*Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year* ——, *by* ——, *in the office of the Librarian of Congress, at Washington*," or, at the option of the person entering the copyright, the words: "*Copyright*, 18—, *by* ——"

The law imposes a penalty of $100 upon any person who has not obtained a copyright who shall insert the notice "*Entered according to Act of Congress*," or "*Copyright*," etc., or words of the same import, in or upon any book or other article.

The copyright law secures to authors or their assigns the exclusive right to translate or to dramatize their own works.

Since the phrase *all rights reserved* refers exclusively to the right to dramatize or to translate, it has no bearing upon any publications except original works, and will not be entered upon the record in other cases.

Any person publicly performing or representing any dramatic compositions for which a copyright has been obtained, without the consent of the proprietor thereof, or his heirs or assigns, shall be liable for damages therefor; such damages in all cases to be assessed at such sum, not less than $100 for the first, and $50 for every subsequent performance, as to the court shall appear to be just.

Every person who shall print or publish any manuscript whatever, without the consent of the author or proprietor first obtained, shall be liable to the author or proprietor for all damages occasioned by such injury.

The original term of copyright runs for twenty-eight years. *Within six months before* the end of that time, the author or designer, or his widow or children, may secure a renewal for the further term of fourteen years, making forty-two years in all.

The time within which any work entered for copyright may be issued from the press is not limited by any law or regulation, but the courts have held that it should take place within a reasonable time. A copyright may be secured for a projected work as well as for a completed one. But the law provides for no *caveat*, or notice of interference—only for actual entry of title.

In the case of books published in more than one volume, or of periodicals published in numbers, or of engravings, photographs, or other articles published with variations, a copyright is to be entered for each volume or part of a book, or number of a periodical, or variety, as to style, title, or inscription, of any other article. But a book published serially in a periodical, under the same general title, requires only one entry. To *complete* the copyright on such a work, two copies of each serial part, as well as of the complete work (if published separately), should be deposited.

To secure copyright for a painting, statue, or model or design intended to be perfected as a work of the fine arts, a definite description must accompany the application for copyright, and a photograph of the same as large as "cabinet size," mailed to the Librarian of Congress not later than the day of publication of the work or design.

The fine arts, for copyright purposes, include only painting and sculpture, and articles of merely ornamental and decorative art are referred to the Patent Office, as subjects for Design Patents.

Every applicant for a copyright should state distinctly the full name and residence of the claimant, and whether the right is claimed as author, designer, or proprietor. No affidavit or witness to the application is required.

The Librarian of Congress has prepared the following statement in reply to requests for information as to International Copyright:

"I have to advise you that International Copyright arrangements between the United States and foreign countries now include Great Britain and her possessions, France, Belgium and Switzerland. For an American citizen to secure copyright in Great Britain three conditions are necessary:

"The title should be entered at Stationers' Hall, London, the fee for which is 5 shillings sterling, and 5 shillings additional if a certified copy of entry is required.

"The work must be published in Great Britain or in her dominions simultaneously with its publication in the United States.

"Five copies of the publication are required, one for the British Museum, and four on demand of the Company of Stationers for four other libraries.

"Copyright in Canada is to be registered with the Minister of Agriculture at Ottawa, fee $1 for registry and 50 cents for certificate; and the work to be published in Canada, and two copies deposited.

"Copyright may be secured in France, by a foreigner, by depositing two copies of the publication at the Ministry of the Interior at Paris. No fee nor entry of title required.

"To secure copyright in Belgium a foreigner may register his work at the Department of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works, at Brussels.

"In Switzerland, registry of title at the Department of Commerce and Industry at Berne is optional, not obligatory, fee 2 francs. If registered, deposit of one copy is required.

"The Librarian of Congress cannot take charge of any copyright entries or arrangements with other countries."

VALUES OF FOREIGN COINS IN UNITED STATES MONEY.

(Proclaimed by the Secretary of the Treasury, January 1, 1892.)

Country.	Standard.	Monetary Unit.	Value in Terms of U.S. Gold Dollar.	Coins.
Argentine Rep...	Gold and Silver	Peso	$0.96,5	Gold: Argentine ($4.82,4) and 1-2 Argentine. Silver: peso and divisions.
Austria-Hungary	Silver.	Florin	.34,1	Gold: 4 florins ($1.92,9), 8 florins ($3.85,8), ducat ($2.28,7) and 4 ducats ($9.15,8). Silver: 1 and 2 florins.
Belgium	Gold and Silver	Franc	.19,3	Gold: 10 and 20 francs. Silver: 5 francs.
Bolivia	Silver.	Boliviano	.69,1	Silver: Boliviano and divisions.
Brazil	Gold	Milreis	.54,6	Gold: 5, 10 and 20 milreis. Siver: 1-2, 1 and 2 milreis.
British N. Amer.	Gold	Dollar	1.00	
Central America.	Silver.	Peso	.69,1	Silver: peso and divisions.
Chili	Gold and Silver	Peso	.91,2	Gold: escudo ($1.82,4), doubloon ($4.56,1) and condor ($9.12,3). Silver: peso and divisions.
China	Silver.	Tael.... Shanghai	1.02,1	
		Tael.... Haikwan (Customs).	1.13,7	
Colombia	Silver	Peso	.69,1	Gold: condor ($9.64,7) and double-condor. Silver: peso.
Cuba	Gold and Silver	Peso	.92,6	Gold: doubloon ($5.01,7). Silver: peso.
Denmark	Gold	Crown	.26,8	Gold: 10 and 20 crowns.
Ecuador	Silver	Sucre	.69,1	Gold: condor ($9.64,7) and double-condor. Silver: sucre and divisions.
Egypt	Gold	Pound (100 piastres)	4.94,3	Gold: pound (100 piastres), 5, 10, 20 and 50 piastres. Silver: 1, 2, 5, 10 and 20 piastres.
Finland	Gold	Mark	.19,3	Gold: 20 marks ($3.85,9), 10 marks ($1.93).
France	Gold and Silver	Franc	.19,3	Gold: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 francs. Silver: 5 francs.
German Empire	Gold	Mark	.23,8	Gold: 5, 10 and 20 marks.
Great Britain	Gold	Pound sterling	4.86,6½	Gold: sovereign (pound sterling) and 1-2 sovereign.
Greece	Gold and Silver	Drachma	.19,3	Gold: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 drachmas. Silver: 5 drachmas.
Hayti	Gold and Silver	Gourde	.96,5	Silver: gourde.
India	Silver	Rupee	.32,8	Gold: mohur ($7.10,5). Silver: rupee and divisions.
Italy	Gold and Silver	Lira	.19,3	Gold: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 liras. Silver: 5 liras.
Japan	Gold and Silver	Yen.... Gold	.99,7	Gold: 1, 2, 5, 10 and 20 yen.
		Yen.... Silver	.74,5	Silver: yen.
Liberia	Gold	Dollar	1.00	
Mexico	Silver	Dollar	.75	Gold: dollar ($0.98,3), 2 1-2, 5, 10 and 20 dollars. Silver: dollar (or peso) and divisions.
Netherlands	Gold and Silver	Florin	.40.2	Gold: 10 florins. Silver: 1-2, 1 and 2 1-2 florins.
Newfoundland	Gold	Dollar	1.01.4	Gold: 2 dollars ($2.02,7).
Norway	Gold	Crown	.26,8	Gold: 10 and 20 crowns.
Peru	Silver	Sol	.69,1	Silver: sol and divisions.
Portugal	Gold	Milreis	1.08	Gold: 1, 2, 5 and 10 milreis.
Russia	Silver	Rouble.. Gold	.77,2	Gold: imperial ($7.71,8) and 1-2 imperial ($3.66).
		Rouble.. Silver	.55,3	Silver: 1-4, 1-2 and 1 rouble.
Spain	Gold and Silver	Peseta	.19,3	Gold: 25 pesetas. Silver: 5 pesetas.
Sweden	Gold	Crown	.26.8	Gold: 10 and 20 crowns.
Switzerland	Gold and Silver	Franc	.19,3	Gold: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 francs. Silver: 5 francs.
Tripoli	Silver	Mahbub of 20 piastres	.62,3	
Turkey	Gold	Piastre	.04,4	Gold: 25, 50, 100, 250 and 500 piastres.
Venezuela	Silver	Bolivar	.13,8	Gold: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 bolivars. Silver: 5 bolivars.

A PERPETUAL CALENDAR.

FOR 2,000 YEARS AFTER CHRIST, *Old Style*, AND FROM 1500 TO 2000 A.D., *New Style*.

TABLE I.—DOMINICAL LETTERS.

Years in excess of Hundreds.	Centuries.						
Old Style.	0	100	200	300	400	500	600
	700	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300
	1400	1500	1600	1700	1800	1900	2000
New Style.					1500	1600	
	1700		1800		1900	2000	
0 New Style.	C		E		G	A	
0 28 56 84	DC	ED	FE	GF	AF	BA	CB
1 29 57 85	B	C	D	E	F	G	A
2 30 58 86	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
3 31 59 87	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
4 32 60 88	FE	GF	AG	BA	CB	DC	ED
5 33 61 89	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
6 34 62 90	C	D	E	F	G	A	B
7 35 63 91	B	C	D	E	F	G	A
8 36 64 92	AG	BA	CB	DC	ED	FE	GF
9 37 65 93	F	G	A	B	C	D	E
10 38 66 94	E	F	G	A	B	C	D
11 39 67 95	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
12 40 68 96	CB	DC	ED	FE	GF	AG	BA
13 41 69 97	A	B	C	D	E	F	G

Years in excess of Hundreds.	Centuries.						
Old Style.	0	100	200	300	400	500	600
	700	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300
	1400	1500	1600	1700	1800	1900	2000
New Style.					1500	1600	
	1700		1800		1900	2000	
14 42 70 98	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
15 43 71 99	F	G	A	B	C	D	E
16 44 72	ED	FE	GF	AG	BA	CB	DC
17 45 73	C	D	E	F	G	A	B
18 46 74	B	C	D	E	F	G	A
19 47 75	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
20 48 76	GF	AC	BA	CB	DC	ED	FE
21 49 77	E	F	G	A	B	C	D
22 50 78	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
23 51 79	C	D	E	F	G	A	B
24 52 80	BA	CB	DC	ED	FE	GF	AG
25 53 81	G	A	B	C	D	E	F
26 54 82	F	G	A	B	C	D	E
27 55 83	E	F	G	A	B	C	D

A PERPETUAL CALENDAR—Continued.

TABLE II.

DAYS OF THE MONTHS.

January, October.	February, March, November.	April, July.	May.	Dominical Letters.
				A B C D E F G
1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30	7 14 21 28	Su. Sa. F. Th. W. Tu. M.
2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24 31	1 8 15 22 29	M. Su. Sa. F. Th. W. Tu.
3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	2 9 16 23 30	Tu. M. Su. Sa. F. Th. W.
4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	3 10 17 24 31	W. Tu. M. Su. Sa. F. Th.
5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	4 11 18 25	Th. W. Tu. M. Su. Sa. F.
6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	5 12 19 26	F. Th. W. Tu. M. Su. Sa.
7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29	6 13 20 27	Sa. F. Th. W. Tu. M. Su.

DAYS OF THE MONTHS.

June.	August.	September, December.	Dominical Letters.
			A B C D E F G
4 11 18 25	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24 31	Su. Sa. F. Th. W. Tu. M.
5 12 19 26	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	M. Su. Sa. F. Th. W. Tu.
6 13 20 27	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	Tu. M. Su. Sa. F. Th. W.
7 14 21 28	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	W. Tu. M. Su. Sa. F. Th.
1 8 15 22 29	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	Th. W. Tu. M. Su. Sa. F.
2 9 16 23 30	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29	F. Th. W. Tu. M. Su. Sa.
3 10 17 24	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30	Sa. F. Th. W. Tu. M. Su.

RULE.—Find the Dominical Letter for the year, in the First Table; and note, that in Leap Years there are two Dominical Letters, the first for January and February, the second for the other months; then in this Second Table, the days of the week under the Dominical Letter will be those for the required year.

N. B.—New Style commenced in Roman Catholic countries generally in 1582; but was not adopted in England till 1752. Old Style is still used in Russia.

POSTAL INFORMATION.

DOMESTIC RATES OF POSTAGE, REVISED IN 1892.

FIRST-CLASS MATTER.

RATES of letter postage to any part of the United States, *two cents per ounce or fraction thereof.*

Rates on local or drop letters at free delivery offices, two cents per ounce or fraction thereof. At offices where there is no free delivery by carriers, one cent per ounce or fraction thereof.

Rates on specially delivered letters, ten cents on each letter in *addition* to the regular postage. Special delivery stamps are sold at post-offices, and must be affixed to such letters. An ordinary ten-cent stamp affixed to a letter will *not* entitle it to special delivery.

Letter rates are charged on all productions by the typewriter or manifold process.

Prepaid letters will be reforwarded from one post-office to another upon the written request of the person addressed, without additional charge for postage.

SECOND-CLASS MATTER.

This class includes all newspapers, periodicals or matter exclusively in print and regularly issued at stated intervals as frequently as four times a year, from a known office of publication or news agency, to actual subscribers or news agents, and transient newspapers and publications of this character mailed by persons other than publishers.

Rates of postage to publishers, *one cent a pound or fractional part thereof*, prepaid by special stamps. Publications designed primarily for advertising or free circulation, or not having a legitimate list of subscribers, are excluded from the pound rate, and pay third-class rates.

Rates of postage on transient newspapers, magazines or periodicals, *one cent for each four ounces or fraction thereof.* These rates do not apply for transient publications mailed for local delivery by carriers at a Free Delivery Office.

THIRD-CLASS MATTER.

Mail matter of the third class includes printed books, pamphlets, engravings, circulars (in print or by the hectograph, electric pen or similar process), and other matter wholly in print, proof-sheets, corrected proof-sheets and manuscript copy accompanying the same.

The rate on matter of this class is *one cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof.*

Manuscript unaccompanied by proof-sheets must pay letter rates.

The limit of weight is four pounds, except single books in separate packages, on which the weight is not limited.

FOURTH-CLASS MATTER.

All mailable matter not included in three preceding classes is classed as fourth-class. Rate of postage one cent for each ounce or fraction thereof, except seeds, roots, bulbs, cuttings, cions and plants, the rate on which is one cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof.

MONEY ORDERS.

No fraction of cents allowed in any money order.

Rates on Money Orders in the United States: Not exceeding $5, five cents; $5 to $10, eight cents; $10 to $15, ten cents; over $15 to $30, fifteen cents; over $30 to $40, twenty cents; over $40 to $50, twenty-five cents; for $50 to $60, thirty cents; for $60 to $70, thirty-five cents; for $70 to $80, forty cents; for $80 to $100, forty-five cents.

POSTAL NOTES.

Postal notes will be issued for sums less than five dollars for a fee of three cents, and are payable to any person presenting them, either at the office designated on the note or at the office of issue within three months of date of issue.

All countries except Ascension, Cape Colony, China (via Brindisi), Comoro Islands, Madagascar (except French Stations), Morocco (except Spanish possessions), Natal and Zululand, Norfolk Island, Orange Free State, Queensland, Samoan Islands, St. Helena, Transvaal and Bechuanaland are in the Universal Postal Union, within which the rates are as follows, except as to Canada and Mexico:

Letters, per 15 grams (1-2 ounce), prepayment optional, 5 cents; postal cards, each 2 cents; newspapers and other printed matter, per 2 ounces, 1 cent; commercial papers—packets not in excess of 10 ounces, 5 cents; packets in excess of 10 ounces, for each 2 ounces, or fraction thereof, 1 cent; samples of merchandise—packets not in excess of 4 ounces, 2 cents; packets in excess of four ounces, for each 2 ounces, or fraction thereof, 1 cent; registration fee on letters or other articles, 10 cents.

All correspondence other than letters must be prepaid, at least partially.

CANADA.

Letters, per ounce, prepayment compulsory, 2 cents; postal cards, each 1 cent; newspapers, per four ounces, 1 cent; merchandise and samples of merchandise, not exceeding 4 pounds, per ounce, 1 cent; commercial papers, same as to other Postal Union countries; registration fee, 10 cents.

MEXICO.

Letters, newspapers and printed matter are now carried between the United States and Mexico at same rates as in the United States. Samples are 1 cent for 2 ounces; limit of weight, 8 3-4 ounces. Merchandise, other than samples, may only be sent by Parcels Post. No sealed packages other than letters in their usual and ordinary form may be sent by mail to Mexico, nor any package over 4 pounds 6 ounces in weight.

TABLES SHOWING THE HEIGHT OF THE MOUNTAINS, AND THE LENGTH OF THE CHIEF RIVERS OF THE GLOBE.

PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS.

Name.	Country.	Height.	Name.	Country.	Height.
Aconcagua	Chile	23,910	Mont Perdou	Spain	10,994
Ararat	Armenia	17,260	Monte Rosa	Switzerland	15,284
Ben Nevis	Scotland	4,368	Niti Pass	India	16,814
Cervin or Materhorn	Switzerland	14,837	Ortler Spitz	Tyrol	11,852
Chimborazo	Ecuador	18,175	Pic de Nethou	Spain	11,426
Cotopaxi	Ecuador	21,415	Popocatepetl	Mexico	17,773
Dhawalagiri	India	26,862	Sahama	Bolivia	22,350
El-burz (Caucasus)	Russia	18,493	St. Bernard (Great) Pass of	Switzerland	7,173
Etna	Sicily	10,874	St. Elias	Russian America	17,900
Everest	India	29,002	Scaw Fell	England	3,166
Finster-aar-horn	Switzerland	14,100	Simplon, Pass of	Switzerland	6,578
Grimsel Pass	Ditto	8,400	Skiddaw	England	3,022
Hekla	Iceland	5,095	Snowdon	Wales	3,571
Illimani	Bolivia	21,149	Sorata	Bolivia	21,286
Jungfrau	Switzerland	13,781	Stelvio, Pass of	Tyrol	9,177
Kunchinjinga	India	28,156	Teneriffe, Peak of	Canary Island	12,236
Macgillicuddy's Reeks	Ireland	3,404	Vesuvius	Italy	3,938
Mount Blanc	Piedmont	15,744			

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

River.	Mouth.	Course.	Length in English Miles.
Amazon	Atlantic Ocean	South America	3,900
Amoor	Pacific Ocean	Russia in Asia	2,300
Columbia	Pacific Ocean	North America	750
Danube	Black Sea	Germany and Hungary	1,760
Dnieper	Black Sea	Russia	1,140
Douro	Atlantic Ocean	Spain and Portugal	400
Elbe	North Sea	Germany	670
Euphrates	Persian Gulf	Turkey in Asia	1,900
Fraser	Pacific Ocean	British Columbia	600
Ganges	Bengal Bay	Hindostan	1,550
Hoang-ho	Pacific Ocean	China	2,625
Indus	Indian Ocean	Hindostan	1,630
Lawrence, St	Atlantic Ocean	Canada	2,340
Lena	Arctic Sea	Russia in Asia	2,500
Loire	Bay of Biscay	France	545
Mississippi	Mexico, Gulf	United States	4,000
Niger	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	2,000
Nile	Mediterranean Sea	Abyssinia, Nubia and Egypt	3,000
Obi	Arctic Ocean	Siberia	2,550
Ohio	Mississippi River	United States	1,188
Orinoco	Atlantic Ocean	South America	1,480
Parana	Plate River	South America	1,500
Platte	Atlantic Ocean	South America	2,130
Po	Adriatic Sea	Italy	410
Potomac	Chesapeake Bay	United States	410
Rhine	North Sea	Germany	810
Rhone	Mediterranean Sea	Switzerland and France	460
Scheldt	North Sea	Belgium	170
Seine	English Channel	France	425
Senegal	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	950
Shannon	Atlantic Ocean	Ireland	200
Susquehanna	Atlantic Ocean	United States	620
Tagus	Atlantic Ocean	Spain and Portugal	550
Thames	North Sea	England	215
Tigris	Euphrates River	Turkey in Asia	1,000
Vistula	Baltic Sea	Poland, Prussia	640
Volga	Caspian Sea	Russia	2,035
Yang-tze-kiang	Pacific Ocean	China	2,990
Yenesei	Arctic Ocean	Siberia	2,900

DIMENSIONS OF AMERICAN LAKES.

Name.	Length. Miles.	Width. Miles.	Depth. Feet.	Elevation Ab've the Sea. Feet.
Ontario	180	40	500	231
Erie	270	80	200	565½
Huron	250	100	900	618
Michigan	400	50	unknown.	618
Superior	480	109	900	641

DISTANCES SOUND MAY BE HEARD.

Human voice	150 yards
Rifle	5,300 "
Military band	5,300 "
Cannon	25,000 "

REDUCTION OF THE SCALE OF THE ENGLISH BAROMETER TO FRENCH MILLIMETRES.

Barometer, English.			Barometer, English.			Barometer, English.		
Inch.	10ths	Millim'tr's	Inch.	10ths	Millim'tres.	Inch.	10ths	Millim'tres
24	0	609.59	27	4	695.95	20	0	703.82
	1	612.13		5	698.49		1	706.07
	2	614.67		6	701.03		2	708.33
	3	617.21		7	703.57		3	710.59
	4	619.75		8	706.11		4	712.84
	5	622.29		9	708.65		5	715 10
	6	624.83	28	0	711 19		6	717.36
	7	627.37		1	713.73		7	719.61
	8	629.91		2	716.27		8	721.83
	9	632.45		3	718.81		9	724.12
25	0	634.99		4	721.35		10	726 38
	1	637.53		5	723.89		11	728.63
	2	640.07		6	726.43	27	0	730.89
	3	642.61		7	728.97		1	733 15
	4	645.15		8	731.51		2	735.40
	5	647.69		9	734.05		3	737.66
	6	650.23	29	0	736.59		4	739.91
	7	652.77		1	739.13		5	742.17
	8	655.31		2	741.67		6	744.42
	9	657.85		3	744.21		7	746.68
26	0	660.39		4	746.75		8	748.94
	1	662.93		5	749.29		9	751.19
	2	665.47		6	751.83		10	753.45
	3	668.01		7	754.37		11	755.70
	4	670.55		8	756.91	28	0	757.96
	5	673.09		9	759.45		1	760.22
	6	675.63	30	0	761 99		2	762.47
	7	678.17		1	764.53		3	764.73
	8	680.71		2	767.07		4	766.98
	9	683.25		3	769.61		5	769.24
27	0	685.79		4	772.15		6	771.49
	1	688.33		5	774.69		7	773 75
	2	690.87		6	777 23		8	776.01
	3	693.41		7	779.77		9	778.26

TEMPERATURES OF IMPORTANT PLACES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD.

Name of Place.	Latitude.			Mean Summer Temperature.	Mean Winter Temperature.	Annual Temperature.
		°	′	°	°	°
London	N.	51	30	63	39½	51
Dublin	"	53	23	60	40	50
Edinburgh	"	55	57	57	38	47
Paris	"	48	50	64	38	51
Vienna	"	48	12	69	32	51
Berlin	"	52	31	64	31	48
Copenhagen	"	55	41	62	31	46
Stockholm	"	59	21	60	26	43
St. Petersburg	"	59	56	61	18	39
Moscow	"	55	45	64	15	40
Naples	"	40	52	75	48	62
Rome	"	41	54	74	47	61
Madrid	"	40	25	76	43	59
Constantinople	"	41	0	71	41	56
Jerusalem	"	31	47	74	50	62
Calcutta	"	22	33	86	72	82
Bombay	"	18	56	83	77	81
Pekin	"	39	54	75	28	53
Canton	"	23	8	82	54	69
Hobart Town	S.	42	53	63	42	52
Auckland	"	36	51	67	51	59
Cairo	N.	30	2	85	58	72
Cape of Good Hope	S.	34	11	74	58	66
New York	N.	40	49	71	30	51
New Orleans	"	29	57	82	55	69
Rio Janeiro	S.	22	54	79	68	73
Quebec	N.	46	49	68	14	41
Toronto	"	43	40	65	25	45
Melbourne	S.	37	42	65	48	57
Sydney	"	33	51	74	55	65
Jamaica	N.	18	0	81	76	78
Warsaw	"	52	13	63½	24½	44

POPULATION OF THE EARTH BY CONTINENTS.

(From Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society for January, 1891.)

Continental Divisions.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabitants.		Continental Divisions.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	
		Number.	Per Sq. Mile.			Number.	Per Sq. Mile.
Africa	11,514,000	127,000,000	11.0	Australasia	3,288,000	4,730,000	1.4
America, North	6,446,000	89,250,000	13.8	Europe	3,555,000	380,200,000	106.9
America, South	6,837,000	36,420,000	5.3	Polar Regions	4,888,800	300,000	0.7
Asia	14,710,000	850,000,000	57.7				
Total					51,238,800	1,487,900,000	29.0

The above estimate was made by George Ernest Ravenstein, F.R.G.S., the geographer and statistician, and is for 1890.

An estimate of population of the earth made by Drs. Wagner and Supan, editors of "Bevölkerung der Erde" (Perthes, Gotha, 1891), is as follows: Europe, 357,379,000; Asia, 825,954,000; Africa, 163,953,000; America, 121,713,000; Australia, 3,230,000; Oceanic Islands, 7,420,000; polar regions, 80,400. Total, 1,479,729,400. The estimate of area of the continents and islands by the same authorities is 52,821,684.

Ravenstein's estimate of the earth's fertile region, in square miles, is 23,269,200; steppe, 13,901,600; desert, 4,180,000; polar regions, 4,888,800.

The population of the earth at the death of the Emperor Augustus, estimated by Bodio, was 54,000,000. The population of Europe hardly exceeded 50,000,000 before the fifteenth century.—*Mulhall.*

The area and cubic contents of the earth, according to the data of Clark, given above, are: Surface, 196,971,984 square miles; cubic contents, 259,944,035,515 cubic miles.

Murray (Challenger expedition) states the greatest depth of the Atlantic Ocean at 27,366 feet; Pacific Ocean, 30,000 feet; Indian Ocean, 18,582 feet; Southern Ocean, 25,200 feet; Arctic Ocean, 9,000 feet. The Atlantic Ocean has an area, in square miles, of 24,536,000; Pacific Ocean, 50,309,000; Indian Ocean, 17,084,000; Arctic Ocean, 4,781,000; Southern Ocean, 30,592,000.

DURATION OF LIFE.

The following Table has been Constructed by Dr. Farr, F. R. S.

Age.	Number of Persons Alive at Commencement of Year. No.	Male.	Female.	Total Deaths each Year.
0	1,000,000	511,745	488,255	149,493
1	850,507	428,026	422,481	53,680
2	796,827	400,505	396,322	28,238
3	768,589	386,290	382,299	18,456
4	750,133	377,077	373,056	13,315
5	736,818	370,358	366,460	9,899
6	726,919	365,325	361,594	7,768
7	719,151	361,372	357,779	6,559
8	712,592	358,062	354,530	5,458
9	707,134	355,328	351,806	4,625
10	702,509	353,031	349,478	4,028
11	698,481	351,048	347,433	3,637
12	694,844	349,272	345,572	3,431
13	691,413	347,606	343,807	3,382
14	688,031	345,969	342,062	3,468
15	684,563	344,290	340,273	3,669
16	680,894	342,509	338,385	3,957
17	676,937	340,581	336,356	4,317
18	672,620	338,469	334,151	4,720
19	667,900	336,149	331,751	5,150
20	662,750	333,608	329,142	5,583
21	657,167	330,844	326,323	5,668
22	651,499	328,043	323,456	5,748
23	645,751	325,207	320,544	5,820
24	639,931	322,339	317,592	5,886
25	634,045	319,442	314,603	5,950
26	628,095	316,516	311,579	6,009
27	622,086	313,562	308,524	6,065
28	616,021	310,581	305,440	6,121
29	609,900	307,572	302,328	6,176
30	603,724	304,534	299,190	6,231
31	597,493	301,466	296,027	6,287
32	591,206	298,366	292,840	6,343
33	584,863	295,232	289,631	6,404
34	578,459	292,061	286,398	6,466
35	571,993	288,850	283,143	6,533
36	565,460	285,596	279,864	6,601

Age.	Number of Persons Alive at Commencement of Year. No.	Male.	Female.	Total Deaths each Year.
37	558,859	282,296	276,563	6,678
38	552,181	278,944	273,237	6,756
39	545,425	275,538	269,887	6,841
40	538,584	272,073	266,511	6,931
41	531,653	268,544	263,109	7,027
42	524,626	264,948	259,678	7,127
43	517,499	261,280	256,219	7,236
44	510,263	257,534	252,729	7,348
45	502,915	253,708	249,207	7,467
46	495,448	249,796	245,652	7,592
47	487,856	245,795	242,061	7,722
48	480,134	241,700	238,434	7,857
49	472,277	237,508	234,769	7,997
50	464,280	233,216	231,064	8,141
51	456,139	228,821	227,318	8,414
52	447,725	224,195	223,530	8,590
53	439,135	219,437	219,698	8,761
54	430,374	214,552	215,822	9,259
55	421,115	209,539	211,576	9,583
56	411,532	204,395	207,137	9,909
57	401,623	199,114	202,509	10,245
58	391,378	193,686	197,692	10,593
59	380,785	188,102	192,683	10,958
60	369,827	182,350	187,477	11,338
61	358,489	176,421	182,068	11,737
62	346,752	170,303	176,449	12,149
63	334,603	163,989	170,614	12,572
64	322,031	157,474	164,557	13,002
65	309,029	150,754	158,275	13,430
66	295,599	143,833	151,766	13,846
67	281,753	136,718	145,035	14,244
68	267,509	129,421	138,088	14,607
69	252,902	121,963	130,939	14,925
70	237,977	114,370	123,607	15,184
71	222,793	106,675	116,118	15,369
72	207,424	98,919	108,505	15,468

Age.	Number of Persons alive at Commencement of year. No.	Male.	Female.	Total Deaths each Year.
73	191,956	91,149	100,807	15,469
74	176,487	83,416	93,071	15,363
75	161,124	75,777	85,347	15,136
76	145,988	68,294	77,694	14,789
77	131,199	61,026	70,173	14,319
78	116,880	54,036	62,844	13,726
79	103,154	47,381	55,773	13,021
80	90,133	41,115	49,018	12,214
81	77,919	35,283	42,636	11,320
82	66,599	29,922	36,677	10,358
83	56,241	25,060	31,181	9,352
84	46,889	20,711	26,178	8,324
85	38,565	16,877	21,688	7,300
86	31,265	13,549	17,716	6,298
87	24,967	10,709	14,258	5,346
88	19,621	8,325	11,296	4,459
89	15,162	6,360	8,802	3,653
90	11,509	4,770	6,739	2,933
91	8,576	3,510	5,066	2,310
92	6,266	2,531	3,735	1,781
93	4,485	1,787	2,698	1,343
94	3,142	1,234	1,908	989
95	2,153	833	1,320	713
96	1,440	548	892	500
97	940	352	588	342
98	598	220	378	228
99	370	134	236	147
100	223	79	144	98
101	131	46	85	57
102	74	25	49	33
103	41	14	27	19
104	22	7	15	10
105	12	4	8	6
106	6	2	4	3
107	3	1	2	2
108	1		1	1

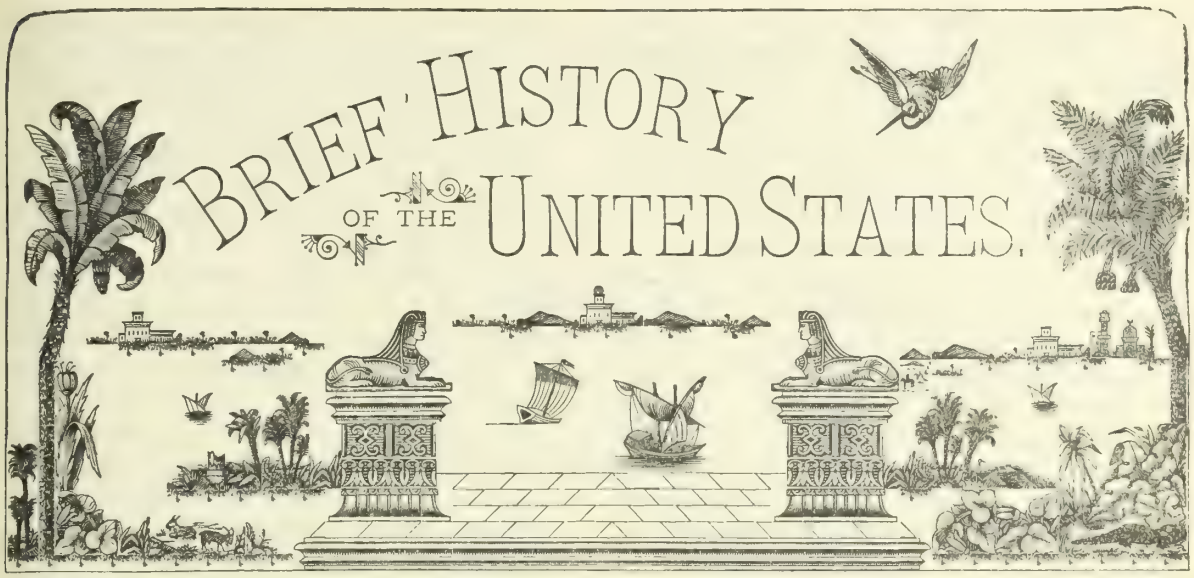
NOTE.—The rate of mortality of males of all ages is 1 in 39.91, and of females, 1 in 41.85.

EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT THE FOLLOWING AGES.

Calculated in Years and Hundredths. By Dr. Farr, F. R. S.

Age.	Male.	Female.	Age.	Male.	Female.	Age.	Male.	Female.	Age.	Male.	Female.	Age.	Male.	Female.
0	39.91	41.85	20	39.48	40.29	40	26.06	27.34	60	13.53	14.34	80	4.93	5.26
1	46.65	47.31	21	38.80	39.63	41	25 39	26.69	61	12.96	13.75	81	4.66	4.98
2	48 83	49.40	22	38.13	38.98	42	24.73	26.03	62	12.41	13.17	82	4.41	4.71
3	49.61	50.20	23	37.46	38.33	43	24.07	25.38	63	11.87	12.60	83	4.17	4.45
4	49 81	50.43	24	36.79	37.68	44	23.41	24.72	64	11.34	12.05	84	3.95	4.21
5	49.71	50.33	25	36.12	37.04	45	22.76	24 06	65	10.82	11.51	85	3.73	3.98
6	49.39	50.00	26	35.44	36.39	46	22.11	23.40	66	10.32	10.98	86	3.53	3.76
7	48.92	49.53	27	34.77	35.75	47	21.46	22.74	67	9.83	10.47	87	3.34	3.56
8	48.37	48.98	28	34.10	35.10	48	20.82	22.08	68	9.36	9.97	88	3 16	3.36
9	47.74	48.35	29	33.43	34.46	49	20.17	21.42	69	8.90	9.48	89	3.00	3.18
10	47.05	47.67	30	32.76	33.81	50	19.54	20.75	70	8.45	9.02	90	2.84	3.01
11	46.31	46.95	31	32.09	33.17	51	18.90	20.09	71	8.03	8.57	91	2.69	2.85
12	45.54	46.20	32	31.42	32.53	52	18.28	19.42	72	7.62	8.13	92	2.55	2.70
13	44.76	45.44	33	30.74	31.88	53	17.67	18.75	73	7.22	7.71	93	2.41	2.55
14	43.97	44.66	34	30.07	31.23	54	17.06	18.08	74	6.85	7.31	94	2.29	2.42
15	43.18	43.90	35	29.40	30.59	55	16.45	17.43	75	6.49	6.93	95	2.17	2.29
16	42.40	43.14	36	28.73	29.94	56	15.86	16.79	76	6.15	6.56	96	2.06	2.17
17	41.64	42.40	37	28.06	29.29	57	15.26	16.17	77	5.82	6.21	97	1.95	2.06
18	40.90	41.67	38	27.39	28.64	58	14.68	15.55	78	5.51	5.88	98	1.85	1.96
19	40.17	40.97	39	26.72	27.99	59	14.10	14.94	79	5.21	5.56	99	1.76	1.86
												100	1.68	1.76

The mean lifetime of boys at birth is 39.91 years, and of girls, 41.85.



AMERICA was known to the ancient Northmen as early as the tenth century, but its true discovery dates from the voyage of Columbus, in 1492. 1492.

Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, having enlisted the assistance of Isabella of Spain, sailed from the port of Palos, on the third day of August, 1492, on his voyage of discovery, with a fleet of three vessels, and a crew of one hundred and twenty men, and landed on the island of San Salvador on the twelfth of October of that year.

1493.—Having returned to Spain, where he gave an account of his discoveries to their majesties, Ferdinand and Isabella, Columbus sailed on the twenty-fifth of September, 1493, on his second voyage, in which he discovered more of the West India Islands.

1497.—Sebastian Cabot, who claims with Columbus to have been the first discoverer of the Western Continent, was a son of John Cabot, a Venetian, and a native of Bristol. He sailed in the spring of 1497, in search of the northwest passage to India, and discovered land, which he called Prima Vista, or Newfoundland, after which he sailed along the coast of America as far as Chesapeake Bay, and then returned to England.

1498.—On the thirteenth day of May, 1498, Columbus set out on his third voyage from the Bay of St. Lucas, and, after sighting some new islands, on the first of August he discovered the continent, but imagining it to be an island, he termed it Isla Santa.

1499.—Americus Vespucius, or Vespucci, from whom the Western Continent derives its name, was a native of Florence, and made four voyages to the New World from 1499 to 1503. After returning to Spain he was appointed by King Ferdinand to draw sea charts descriptive of the New World, from which circumstance the continent became known as America.

1512.—Ponce de Leon, a native of Spain, discovered Florida on Easter Sunday (*Pascua Florida*, in Spanish), April 6, 1512.

1513.—On September 29, 1513, Balboa, a Spaniard, crossed the Isthmus of Darien and discovered the Pacific Ocean. He took possession of all the lands it might touch in the name of the Spanish crown.

1524.—Francis I., of France, ambitious of the glory of Charles V., supplied Verazzano, a noble Florentine, with four vessels to prosecute discoveries in America. After a severe voyage he came upon a coast supposed to be North Carolina. Sailing north he entered a spacious bay receiving a noble river—the Hudson—and following the coast he reached Martha's Vineyard and Boston. Proceeding further, first west and then north, he skirted Nova Scotia,

discovered Cape Breton Island, and finally reached the land discovered by the Cabots, Newfoundland and Labrador.

1535.—Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, sailed from the port of St. Malo, France, and ascended the river St. Lawrence in 1535, as far as the site of the present city of Montreal.

1538.—The career of Hernando de Soto is one of the most adventurous episodes in the history of American discovery. He accompanied Pizarro to America, and distinguished himself in the severe battle that took place between his chief and Almagro. Having returned to Spain, he was created Captain-General of Cuba and Florida, and sailed in command of a brilliant armament from San Lucar de Barrameda, April 6th, 1538, to undertake the conquest of Florida. He arrived at Cuba on the 1st of May, sailed from Havana May 12, 1539, arrived at Espiritu Santo, Florida, on the 25th, and took formal possession of the country in the name of the Spanish Emperor. After being harassed by the Indians, he continued his route to the dominions of the caique Tuscaloosa, which comprised part of Alabama and Mississippi. Here he fought a disastrous battle on the site of the city of Mobile, and on the 1st of April, 1541, he came in sight of the Mississippi River, which he crossed. In the spring of 1542 De Soto returned to the Mississippi, where, after untold trials and disappointments, he succumbed to fever and fatigue. His body was sunk in the river, lest the Indians should desecrate it.

1542.—Cabrillo made the first voyage along the Pacific coast, sailing as far north as the boundaries of Oregon.

1562.—Admiral Coligni, one of the Huguenot leaders in France, conceived the design of establishing a trans-atlantic settlement for the purpose of affording an asylum to his Protestant brethren, and fitted out two vessels in 1562, which he placed under command of John Ribault, of Dieppe, a seaman of experience. The discoverers landed in Carolina, but the settlement did not prove successful.

1564.—In 1564 Coligni fitted out three vessels, which he placed under the command of Laudonniere, an officer who had accompanied Ribault, which attempt, however, was no more successful than the first. In 1565 Ribault was sent with several ships to supersede Laudonniere, bringing with him large supplies, which induced the colonists to remain.

1565.—Melendez, a Spanish explorer, landed in Florida in 1565, and laid the foundations of a colony. It was named St. Augustine, and is the oldest town in the United States.

1576.—Frobisher, an English navigator, tried to find a northwest passage, entered Baffin Bay, and twice endeavored to found a colony in Labrador, but was unsuccessful.

1578.—Sir Francis Drake, a famous English captain, from 1578 to '80 sailed through the Straits of Magellan and along the Pacific coast as far as Oregon, wintered in San Francisco harbor, and circumnavigated the globe.

1582.—In 1582 New Mexico was explored and named by the Spaniard Espejo, who founded Santa Fé, the second oldest city in the United States.

1584.—Sir Walter Raleigh is distinguished for having projected and established permanent British settlements in America. In April, 1584, he fitted out two ships, fully equipped and provisioned, under the command of Captain Philip Amadas and Arthur Barlow. Having arrived on the American coast, they entered into trade with the natives, and after a hasty examination of the country, returned to England, where they arrived in September. The country which they discovered was named Virginia, by order of Queen Elizabeth, in allusion to her unmarried state of life. Sir Walter soon fitted out another fleet for America, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, Mr. Ralph Lane having been appointed Chief Governor of the colony. The Governor returned to England for supplies shortly afterward. Raleigh dispatched another colony under John White, who was appointed Governor. Governor White returned to England, and when he came back, three years later, he found that the entire colony had perished. It is asserted by Camden that tobacco was now for the first time introduced into England, and the potato into Ireland, from America.

1605.—De Monts, a native of France, received a grant of all the land lying between the fortieth and forty-sixth parallels of latitude. The tract was termed Acadia. With Champlain, he founded Port Royal, the first permanent French possession in America.

1606.—James I. of England granted the London Company a colony in Virginia in 1606. The expedition reached America in 1607, and, ascending the James River, chose for their colony a spot which they called Jamestown. The colonists and their

posterity were declared English subjects, though they were invested with no political rights. The colonists suffered many severe hardships, and were saved from destruction mainly through the energy and sagacity of Captain John Smith, who had been installed as president. This was the first permanent English settlement in America.

1608.—The first permanent French settlement in Canada was established by Samuel de Champlain, who founded the city of Quebec in 1608. In the following year he discovered the beautiful lake which bears his name. He has been justly termed "The Father of New France," as the French possessions in America were named.

1609-10.—In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Dutch and English directed their attention to the discovery of a northwest passage to India. After the failure of several navigators in this endeavor, it was resumed by Henry Hudson, a navigator in the Dutch service. Not succeeding, he proceeded to explore the American coast, and sailed up the river that now bears his name.

In 1610 he was sent by a Dutch company on another voyage, when he explored the great bay to which his name is attached.

In virtue of Hudson's voyage, the Dutch claimed the country from the Delaware River to Cape Cod, and in 1610 several stations were formed on the island of Manhattan, the name then given to New York. In 1613, a settlement was founded. The country was called New Netherlands, and a cluster of cottages, where New York now stands, was named New Amsterdam.

1619.—The "first legislative body that ever assembled in America" was called at Jamestown by Governor Yeardly, July 30, 1619. Its laws were ratified by the company in England, but possessed no binding force unless subsequently ratified by the colonial assembly. These privileges were in 1621 embodied in a written constitution, "the first of its kind in America."

1619.—Slavery was introduced into the United States in 1619, by the captain of a Dutch trading vessel, who bought twenty negroes which he sold to the tobacco planters. Their labor being found profitable, a traffic in slaves soon sprung up.

1620.—After various abortive attempts to colonize New England, a tide of population poured into it from an unexpected quarter. The "Pilgrim Fathers"—Puritans who had fled from England to Holland to escape the persecution of the established church—sailed for America in September, 1620, and arrived on the 9th of November, in view of Cape Cod. They settled on a spot which they named New Plymouth. After suffering untold privations, which reduced their numbers in the spring of 1621 to fifty or sixty persons, they persevered, and in the spring of 1624 they counted one hundred and eighty. Their numbers were increased in 1629, and in 1630, fifteen hundred settlers having arrived from England in the latter year. They soon became involved in war with the Indians, which checked the progress of the colony, but the natives were finally subdued and dispersed. In 1692, Plymouth was united with Massachusetts Bay Colony, under the name of Massachusetts.

1622.—On the 22d of March, 1622, occurred the Indian Massacre of Virginia, when over three hundred men, women and children fell victims in a single day.

1630.—The first house erected in Boston, under Governor Winthrop, in July, 1630.

Connecticut was settled at Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield, in 1633-6.

1633.—Sir George Calvert, Secretary of State under James I., obtained from King Charles I. a large grant of land in America, which was named Maryland, in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria. Sir George, now created Lord Baltimore, died before the completion of the charter, and the establishment of the colony devolved accordingly on his son Cecil. The first emigrants, consisting of about two hundred persons, arrived in 1633. The colonists acted justly toward the natives, and the Maryland government was distinguished for proclaiming religious toleration to all. The Protestants having obtained a majority, deprived Catholics of their rights, and declared them outside the protection of the law. In 1691, Lord Baltimore was deprived of his proprietary rights, and Maryland became a royal province. In 1715, under the fourth Lord Baltimore, the government was recovered and religious toleration was restored.

1636.—Rhode Island was settled at Providence in 1636, by Roger Williams, who stamped upon the colonies the idea of religious toleration. In 1647, a set of laws guaranteeing freedom of worship were enacted—"the first legal declaration of liberty of conscience ever adopted in Europe or America."

1638.—The first permanent settlement in Delaware was made in 1638 by the Swedes, on a tract

lying near Wilmington. The settlement was subsequently conquered by the Dutch, and later still yielded to the English power.

1643.—In 1643 took place the Union of the Colonies, Massachusetts Bay, New Haven and Connecticut, for the purpose of common defense against the Indians, and the encroachment of the French and Dutch settlers.

1646.—In 1646 Peter Stuyvesant was appointed Governor of the New Netherlands, which colony continued to thrive under his just and humane rule till its conquest by the English in 1664.

1660.—In 1660, the British Parliament enforced the Navigation Act, whereby the commerce of the colony of Virginia should be carried on in English vessels, and their tobacco shipped to England.

1663.—In 1663 Charles II. granted a vast tract of land south of Virginia to Lord Clarendon and other noblemen, which was termed Carolina in honor of the king. Two settlements were established, *Albemarle Colony* and Carteret Colony (1670). The two colonies separated in 1729.

1664.—In August, 1664, Sir Robert Nichols, who had been sent out by Charles II. to effect the conquest of the Dutch possessions in America, arrived before New Amsterdam, having landed a portion of his troops on Long Island. The Governor, Peter Stuyvesant, was unable to offer any effective resistance, and the colony passed into the possession of the English.

1673.—The Jesuit Missionaries were the explorers of the Mississippi Valley. Father Marquette, in 1673, floated in a birch-bark canoe down the Wisconsin to the Mississippi, which he descended to the mouth of the Arkansas.

La Salle, another Jesuit missionary, in 1682, made his way to the Gulf of Mexico, and named the country bordering on the gulf Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV., King of France.

1682.—The first settlement in Pennsylvania was established by William Penn, an English Quaker, in 1682. In the following year he purchased land of the Swedes, and laid out on it the city of Philadelphia. He entered into a friendly treaty with the Indians, and the colony flourished apace. After his death, in 1718, his heirs ruled the colony until 1779, when their claims were bought out by the State for the sum of half a million dollars.

1689–1697.—King William's War.—In consequence of the war between England and France, in Europe, hostilities between their colonies broke out in America. The savage tribes took part on both sides. The war lasted eight years, during which time several horrible massacres and barbarities took place.

1692.—In 1692, the mania known as the Salem witchcraft broke out, and not till forty-five people had been tortured and twenty hung was it abated.

1702.—Queen Anne's War.—In this year, England having declared war against France and Spain, the colonies took up the contest. Hostilities continued for eleven years, during which period several fruitless expeditions and horrible massacres took place. Peace was ratified by the treaty of Utrecht.

1733.—Georgia Founded.—The last of the thirteen colonies was planned in 1732, and settled the following year by James Oglethorpe, an English officer, who received a tract of land from George II., which he termed Georgia, in honor of the donor. Georgia became a royal colony in 1752.

1744.—King George's War.—France and England being once more at war, the colonies entered into hostilities also. The war lasted four years and was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1754–1763.—During this period the French and Indian war raged, having originated in the English and French laying claim to the territory west of the Alleghany Mountains. Peace was signed at Paris in 1763, whereby the English acquired all the territory stretching from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico.

1765.—The Stamp Act, which ordered that stamps purchased from the British Government should be placed on all legal documents, pamphlets, newspapers, etc., was passed in 1765. Resistance to the measure was threatened on all sides. Deputies from nine of the colonies assembled at New York and drew up a Declaration of Rights and a petition to the King and Parliament. The Act was repealed in 1766, but the right to tax the colonies was still asserted.

1768.—In this year the "Mutiny Act" was passed, whereby soldiers were quartered on the inhabitants of the colonies, without the consent of the latter.

1770.—On March 5, 1770, occurred the "Boston Massacre." This was a fight between the soldiers sent by General Gage to quell the incipient resistance of the Bostonians to the "Mutiny Act," and

the citizens. Two of the latter were killed and three wounded.

1773.—On December 16, 1773, the climax of resistance to the principle of taxation without representation was reached by the colonists, who, disguised as Indians, boarded the vessels in Boston harbor and cast three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the water.

1774.—The first Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, September 5, 1775. All the colonies, with the exception of Georgia, sent delegates thither. The Congress, by its resolutions, virtually raised the standard of rebellion, and arrayed the colonies against the mother country.

1775.—The battle of Lexington, the first of the Revolution, was fought on April 19, of this year. Seven Americans were killed. The British were assailed on all sides by the surrounding inhabitants, and before their retreat to Boston was completed they had lost three hundred men.

1775.—Bunker Hill, the first regular battle of the Revolution, was fought June 17, 1775, and resulted in a victory for the Americans, though they were forced to retire in the end, owing to the exhaustion of their ammunition. On this day General Warren fell.

1775.—Capture of Ticonderoga, May 10, by Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold. By this surprise large stores of cannon and ammunition fell into the hands of the Americans.

1775.—On the 10th of May, 1775, the second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia. It voted to raise twenty thousand men, and on the 15th of June unanimously elected George Washington commander-in-chief.

1775.—Invasion of Canada.—In September, 1775, Canada was invaded by the American forces under General Schuyler. General Schuyler, being taken ill, left the command in the hands of General Montgomery, who prosecuted the enterprise. He laid seige to Quebec, and on the morning of the 31st of December, endeavored to carry it by assault. He fell at the first fire. The assault was unsuccessful, and the Americans soon after retreated from Canada.

1776.—Evacuation of Boston.—The evacuation of Boston by the British troops, under General Howe, took place on the 17th of March, 1776. On the following day Washington entered the city amid general rejoicing.

1776.—June 28. Attack on Fort Moultrie by an English fleet. The fleet was driven off in a badly shattered condition. Great rejoicing among the colonists, as this was their first encounter with the English navy.

1776.—Declaration of Independence.—On July 4th, 1776, the report of the committee appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence was adopted. This Declaration was signed by each of the members of Congress, and by it the thirteen colonies cast off their allegiance to Great Britain and declared themselves an independent people.

1776.—Battle of Long Island.—On the 27th of August, the British Army, thirty thousand strong, under the command of Howe and Clinton, engaged the Americans, who numbered about nine thousand men, commanded by General Putnam, in Brooklyn, L. I. The Americans were defeated with a loss of two thousand men.

1776.—November 16.—Fort Washington captured by the Hessians, after a stubborn defense.

1776.—Battle of Trenton.—After the battle of Long Island, Washington retreated into New Jersey, to prevent the British from capturing Philadelphia. On Dec. 25, it being Christmas night, Washington surmised that the Hessians were not expecting an attack, and falling upon them in the midst of a plunging storm, surprised them in the height of their revelry, slew their leader, Rall, killed a thousand of their number, and effected his retreat back to camp with a loss of four men, two killed and two frozen. This defeat of the enemy produced a marked effect throughout the colony.

1777.—January 3. Battle of Princeton.—In this battle Washington inflicted a serious defeat on the British troops. The Americans suffered severely also, losing one General, two Colonels, one Major and three Captains, killed. In this battle Colonel Monroe, who afterward became President of the United States, bore a conspicuous part.

1777.—Battle of Brandywine.—On September 11 the Americans, who had taken up a position at Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine, were attacked simultaneously in front and rear by the British, and after performing prodigies of valor, were defeated Philadelphia, in consequence, fell into the hands of the enemy.

1777.—Battle of Germantown, Oct. 4.

1777.—Battles of Saratoga.—On September 19

and October 7, of this year, were fought the battles of Saratoga between the forces of Generals Gates and Burgoyne. The latter was defeated on the 17th, and forced to capitulate, surrendering an army of nearly six thousand men, together with a splendid train of brass artillery, and all the arms and baggage of the troops. In consequence of this defeat, the British were unable to hold possession of the forts on the lakes, and retreated to Isle-aux-Noix and St. John's.

1778.—February 6, treaty with France signed at Paris. The chief articles of the treaty were, that if Britain, in consequence of the alliance, should begin hostilities against France, both countries should mutually assist each other, that the independence of America should be maintained, that if France should conquer any of the British West India Islands they should be deemed her property, that the contracting parties should not lay down their arms till the independence of America was formally acknowledged, and that neither of them should conclude peace without the consent of the other.

1778.—Battle of Monmouth, June 28.

1778.—The Wyoming Massacre.—On the 1st of July, 1778, a band of fifteen hundred men, composed of Indians and Tories, under the command of Colonel John Butler, burst into the settlement of Wyoming in the Susquehanna Valley. The able-bodied men being for the most part in the field with the patriot army, there remained none save the old men and boys to make a defense. They were quickly defeated, and, with the women and children, were tomahawked or burned in the flames, after enduring the most savage tortures. The entire settlement was destroyed, and those who escaped the hatchet and the flames forced to fly into the depths of the wilderness.

1779.—Capture of Stony Point.—About midnight on the 15th of July, General Wayne, with a force of only eight hundred men, performed one of the most brilliant exploits of the war, in the capture of Stony Point. After encountering unexpected difficulties, General Wayne surprised the garrison and compelled them to surrender. The military stores in the fort were considerable.

1779.—On the 22d of August General Sullivan led an expedition into the Genesee Country, and on the 29th fought a battle, near the present town of Elmira, with the Indians and their Tory allies, defeated them, and then laid waste their towns and orchards, so that they might have no inducement again to settle so near the States.

1779.—September 23d, capture of the Serapis by the Bon Homme Richard, under Captain Paul Jones, off the north-east coast of England.

1780.—Surrender of Charleston, May 12, to General Clinton, after a siege of forty days.

1780.—Battle of Camden.—Aug. 16, General Gates having been appointed to take command of the troops of the South, marched to meet Cornwallis near Camden. The armies encountered one another unexpectedly; the American troops were demoralized, defeated, and dispersed through the woods, marshes, and brushwood. By this disastrous defeat, South Carolina and Georgia were again laid prostrate at the feet of the royal army, and the hope of maintaining their independence seemed once more to vanish.

1780.—Arnold's Treason.—General Arnold, whose services at Quebec and Saratoga, were so conspicuous, having deemed himself unjustly treated, entered into a plot with the British Major Andre to hand over West Point to the enemy. Andre ascended the Hudson, and went ashore on the night of Sept. 21st, but was captured at Tarrytown on his return, condemned as a spy, and hanged.

1781.—Battle of Cowpens.—General Tarleton having attacked General Morgan's forces, Jan. 17, at Cowpens, suffered a crushing defeat. Cornwallis set out on the news reaching him to punish the victors and retake the prisoners, but Morgan had meantime effected a retreat into Virginia, and after a close pursuit gained the fords of the Dan.

1781.—Battle of Guilford House, March 15.

1781.—Battle of Eutaw Springs, Sept 8.

1781.—On the 4th of January, 1781, General Arnold, the traitor, who had been dispatched by Sir Henry Clinton to prosecute the war in that quarter, landed at Westover, 25 miles below Richmond, with 1,600 men and marched directly toward the city. He burned and destroyed all the property in his line of march, and acted with mingled hate and brutality. Cornwallis soon after took his place, and, after having destroyed ten million dollars worth of property, took up his position at Yorktown.

1781.—August 30, the combined American and French armies entered Philadelphia.

1781.—Surrender of Yorktown.—On the 28th of September, 1781, the combined American and

French forces, twelve thousand strong, laid siege to Yorktown. The French fleet in the harbor co-operated with the land forces. After a vain attempt to escape, Cornwallis capitulated to the allied forces on the 19th of October. Exclusive of seamen, nearly 7,000 men surrendered. Seventy-five brass and sixty-nine iron cannons, with a large amount of ammunition and military stores, fell into the hands of the allies; while one frigate, two ships of twenty guns, a number of transports and other vessels, with about 1,500 seamen, surrendered to the French Admiral, Count de Grasse. This virtually ended the war.

1783.—Peace Declared.—On Sept. 3d, 1783, a treaty of peace was signed at Paris, acknowledging the independence of the United States.

1783.—Savannah evacuated by the British, July 11, 1783.

1783.—On November 25, 1783, the British evacuated New York, and an American detachment under General Knox took possession of the town.

1787.—Adoption of the Constitution.—A stronger national government than that which existed being needed and desired, a Convention was called in Philadelphia, Sept. 17, 1787, to revise the Articles of Confederation. Washington was chosen President. After much deliberation an entirely new Constitution was adopted. During the year 1788, nine States, the number required to make it binding, had ratified the Constitution, and the same year the government was organized under the new instrument, and in 1789 it went into operation.

1789.—April 30.—Washington inaugurated first President of the United States. He took the oath to uphold the Constitution of the United States on the balcony of the old Federal Hall, in the city of New York, which was then the temporary capital.

1794.—Whiskey Rebellion in Western Pennsylvania.—The tax imposed on whiskey to restore the nation's shattered finances, provoked considerable opposition, and in Pennsylvania the rioters had to be subdued by the militia. No blood was shed, however.

1795.—Jay's treaty with England ratified by the Senate June 24, 1795, after prolonged opposition.

1795.—Treaty with Spain, whereby the United States secured free navigation of the Mississippi, and the boundary of Florida was fixed.

1795.—Treaty with Algiers by which American captives were released and the Mediterranean commerce was made free to American vessels.

1796.—Tennessee, the sixteenth State, was admitted into the Union June 1st, 1796. Two years previously it had been granted distinct territorial government.

1797.—On the 4th of March, 1797, John Adams was inaugurated second President of the United States. He was opposed by Thomas Jefferson, whom he defeated by two electoral votes.

1799.—Death of Washington.—On the 14th of December, 1799, George Washington died at Mount Vernon, his home, in Virginia, after a brief illness.

1800.—The capitol was removed to Washington in this year.

1801.—Inauguration of Jefferson.—Thomas Jefferson was inaugurated third President of the United States March 4th, 1801. He was the chief author of the Declaration of Independence and the embodiment of the principles of Democracy.

1801.—War Against Tripoli.—The Bashaw of Tripoli, who had been accustomed to receive annual tribute from the United States for immunity from his piratical cruisers, declared war against the United States in this year. The United States dispatched a fleet thither in 1803, which bombarded the city of Tripoli, and compelled a treaty of peace in 1805.

1802.—Ohio, the seventeenth State, was admitted to the Union November 29, 1802. It was first explored by the French, under La Salle, in the year 1680.

1803. — The Louisiana Purchase. — Louisiana Territory, embracing all the region west of the Mississippi, and covering an area of over a million of square miles, was purchased from France, under Napoleon, on the 30th April, 1803, for the sum of $15,000,000.

1804.—Death of Alexander Hamilton, who fell in a duel with Aaron Burr, at Weehawken, New Jersey, July 11, 1804.

1807.—Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made her memorable trip from New York to Albany, on September 14, 1807. This was the first steam vessel ever launched.

1807.—The American frigate *Chesapeake* was fired into by the British frigate *Leopard* off the coast of Virginia, June 22, 1807. This act was perpetrated in sustainment of a pretension of the English to the right of searching American vessels and impressing British subjects found therein into the English service. The immediate result of this outrage was an

embargo laid on American ships by Congress and the suspension of all intercourse with England.

1809.—James Madison was inaugurated fourth President of the United States, March 4, 1809.

1811.—Battle of Tippecanoe.—The battle of Tippecanoe was fought November 7, 1811, between General Harrison and a confederacy of the Indian tribes under Tecumseh, a famous chief. The Indians had been instigated to this war by British emissaries. The Indians were defeated and dispersed.

1812.—Louisiana, the eighteenth State, was received into the Union April 8, 1812. The territory was so named in honor of Louis XIV., King of France.

1812.—War with Great Britain.—The British Government continued to seize American vessels and impress our seamen. On the 19th of June, 1812, the United States declared war against Great Britain. On the 16th of May previous the American frigate *President* having hailed the British sloop *Little Belt* was fired upon by the latter. A fight ensued, in which the British sloop was disabled. All hope of a peaceful termination of the difficulty was thereby rendered impossible.

1812.—Canada was invaded by General Hull July 12, 1812. On the approach of the British and Indians he retreated to Detroit, which, with the whole of Michigan, he, in a most cowardly manner, surrendered to the enemy, August 16, with all its garrison and stores.

1812.—The battle of Queenstown Heights was fought October 13, 1812. The English were dislodged and their general, Brock, killed, but not being sustained by the American militia, who refused to cross over from their State, the Americans on the Canada side were compelled to surrender, after a heroic struggle.

1812.—August 19, 1812, the British frigate *Guerriere* was captured, after a hard fight, by the United States frigate *Constitution* (Old Ironsides) off the coast of Massachusetts, Captain Hull commanding.

1812.—October 13, capture of the English brig *Frolic*, off the coast of North Carolina, by the American sloop of war *Wasp*.

1813.—September 10, 1813, was made memorable by Captain Perry's brilliant victory over the British on Lake Erie. The American flotilla consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns; that of the enemy six vessels and sixty-three guns. Perry's famous message after the battle was: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

1813.—The American frigate *Chesapeake* captured by the British ship *Shannon*, June 1, 1813.

1813.—Battle of the Thames, October 5. This battle was fought between the forces of General Harrison and the British under Proctor, and their Indian allies under the famous chief Tecumseh. The enemy were defeated, Tecumseh being among the slain. This victory, in connection with Perry's triumphs on Lake Erie, virtually decided the issue of the war.

1814.—Massacre of Fort Mimms.—This deed was perpetrated by the Creek Indians, August 30, 1814, who broke in upon the garrison and slew all, including women and children. General Jackson was sent with a force against the Indians, and falling on them at Horseshoe Bend, slew six hundred of their number and compelled them to make peace.

1814.—Battle of Chippewa, July 5, gained by the Americans under General Scott.

1814.—Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25. This battle resulted in a victory for the Americans.

1814.—Battle of Lake Champlain, September 11, 1814. The American squadron, under the command of Commodore McDonough, almost wholly destroyed the British fleet in this conflict. Simultaneous with this signal victory, the American forces, numbering only fifteen hundred men, repelled the advance of General Prevost, the British commander in Plattsburg, at the head of twelve thousand veterans, who had served under Wellington.

1814.—Washington captured by the British, August 24, 1814. The Capitol was burned, and the Congressional Library, together with several public and private buildings, shared the same fate.

1814.—Treaty of peace with England, December 24, 1814. The treaty was signed at Ghent.

1815.—Battle of New Orleans. Though a treaty of peace had been signed on the 24th of December, at Ghent, the intelligence had not yet arrived in America. On the 8th of January, General Packenham, with an army of twelve thousand veteran troops, sustained by a powerful fleet, marched to the attack of New Orleans. General Jackson, with a force of scarce half that number, mostly raw recruits, inflicted an overwhelming defeat on the invaders. General Packenham was slain, and while the British lost over two thousand of their number,

the American loss was but seven killed and six wounded.

1815.—In May, 1815, Decatur was sent with a squadron to chastise the Algerines, who had renewed their piratical practices during our war with England. He obtained the liberation of all the American prisoners held by the Barbary States, with complete indemnity for all losses inflicted.

1816.—Indiana, the nineteenth State, was admitted to the Union on December 11, 1816.

1817.—James Munroe inaugurated fifth President of the United States, March 4, 1817.

1817.—Mississippi, the twentieth State, was received into the Union December 10, 1817. The State derived its title from the great river of that name.

1818.—Illinois, the twenty-first State, was admitted to the Union December 3, 1818. It derives its name from its greatest river, which signifies "The River of Men."

1819.—Alabama, the twenty-second State, was admitted to the Union, December 14, 1819. It derives its name from the Indian phrase, signifying "Here we rest."

1819.—Florida ceded by Spain to the United States, February 22, 1819. The treaty was not signed by the King of Spain until October 20, 1820, and the United States did not enter into full possession until July 17, 1821.

1820.—The Missouri Compromise passed March 3, 1820. This was the settlement of the difficulty that arose regarding the question of slavery, on the proposal of admitting Missouri into the Union. Through the efforts of Henry Clay, it was admitted as a slave State, under the compromise that slavery should be prohibited in all the other territories west of the Mississippi, and north of the southern boundary of Missouri.

1820.—Maine, the twenty-third State, was admitted to the Union, March 15, 1820.

1821.—Missouri, the twenty-fourth State, was admitted to the Union, August 10, 1821. It derives its name from its principal river, which signifies "Muddy water."

1824.—Lafayette's visit as "the Nation's guest," August 15, 1824. He was received with the most joyous welcome in all the States.

1825.—John Quincy Adams inaugurated sixth President of the United States, March 4, 1825. Four candidates being in the field, and none of them obtaining a majority of votes, the election went to the House of Representatives.

1826.—Thomas Jefferson and John Adams, ex-Presidents, died July 4, 1826.

1829.—Andrew Jackson inaugurated seventh President of the United States, March 4, 1829. He was distinguished for his honesty, tenacity of purpose, and his thorough American spirit.

1832.—Nullification Ordinance, passed by South Carolina threatening secession from the Union, in the event of force being employed to collect the revenue at Charleston. A settlement was effected by the acceptance of Henry Clay's "Compromise Bill."

1832.—Black Hawk War.

1835.—The Florida War. A war with the Seminole Indians broke out this year. It arose from a refusal of the Indian chief Osceola, to move west of the Mississippi, in accordance with a treaty. He plotted a wholesale massacre of the whites, in which Major Dade and one hundred men were slain. The Indians retreated to the everglades of Florida, where they were pursued and defeated by Taylor, at the Battle of Okechobee, December 25, 1837.

1835.—Great fire in New York, Dec. 16, 1835 Six hundred stores burned. Loss $18,000,000.

1836.—Arkansas, the twenty-fifth State, was admitted to the Union, June 15, 1836. Its name is derived from an extinct Indian tribe.

1837.—Michigan, the twenty-sixth State, was received into the Union, January 26, 1837. The name is Indian, signifying "Great Lake."

1837.—Martin Van Buren, the eighth President of the United States, inaugurated March 4, 1837. During his term of office a terrible financial crisis prevailed throughout the country. In two months alone in the city of New York the losses amounted to $100,000,000.

1841.—Wm. H. Harrison inaugurated the ninth President of the United States, March 4, 1841. One month after, April 4, he died.

1841.—John Tyler, the Vice-President, inaugurated tenth President of the United States, in accordance with the Constitution of the United States, April 6, 1841.

1842.—Ashburton treaty, by which the North-east boundary between Maine and New Brunswick was settled. The commissioners on each side were Lord Ashburton and Daniel Webster.

1842.—Dorr's Rebellion, a difficulty which arose from the endeavor to secure a more liberal Constitution in Rhode Island. This was secured in 1843.

1844.—Anti-Rent Rebellion in the State of New York. The occupants of the old "patroon" estates refused to comply with the feudal customs of the Patroon landlords, and resisted and killed the officers sent to serve warrants on them. The disturbances had to be quelled by the militia, and the allodial was substituted for the feudal tenure.

1845.—Florida, the twenty-seventh State, was admitted to the Union, March 3d, 1845.

1845.—James K. Polk, inaugurated eleventh President of the United States, March 4, 1845.

1845.—Joe Smith, the Mormon Prophet, killed, and the Mormons driven away from Nauvoo City, Ill., by the mob.

1845.—Texas, which had wrested its independence from Mexico, and applied for admission to the Union, was received into the family of States, December 27, 1845.

1846.—Battle of Palo Alto.—The Texas boundary having given rise to a dispute between the United States and Mexico, Gen'l Taylor was ordered to occupy the disputed territory with his troops. He was attacked by the Mexicans, with a superior force, May 8, at Palo Alto. The latter were defeated. Gen'l Taylor fought the battle of *Resaca de la Palma*, the following day, and gained a signal victory.

1846.—War declared against Mexico by Congress, May 11, 1846.

1846.—Capture of Monterey, with its garrison of ten thousand men, by Gen'l Taylor, with a force of six thousand, Sept. 24, 1846.

1846.—Iowa, the twenty-ninth State, was admitted to the Union December 28, 1846.

1846.—Conquest of New Mexico and California, by Captain John C. Fremont, assisted by Commodores Sloat and Stockton, and General Kearney.

1847.—Battle of Buena Vista, fought between a portion of General Taylor's command, and twenty thousand Mexican troops, under Santa Anna, Feb. 23. After a desperate struggle, lasting the entire day, the American troops, though vastly outnumbered, were victorious.

1847.—Capture of Vera Cruz, by Gen'l Scott, after a furious bombardment of four days, March 29, 1847.

1847.—Battle of Cerro Gordo, April 18, 1847.

1847.—Battle of Contreras, August 20.

1847.—Capture of Chapultepec, September 13.

1847.—Surrender of Mexico to the American army, September 14.

1848.—Treaty of Peace with Mexico, February 2, 1848. By this treaty the United States acquired the territory stretching south to the Gila, and to the Pacific on the west.

1848.—Gold was discovered in California in February, and soon attracted a tide of immigration from Europe, Asia, Australia, South America and all parts of the United States. Towns and settlements grew up as if by magic. More than one hundred thousand persons flocked to the mines from the United States within eighteen months after the discovery of the precious metal.

1849.—General Zachary Taylor, the twelfth President of the United States, was inaugurated March 5, 1849.

1850.—Death of President Taylor July 9, 1850.

1850.—Millard Fillmore, the Vice-President, inaugurated thirteenth President of the United States in accordance with the Constitution, July 16, 1850.

1850.—California, the thirty-first State, was admitted to the Union September 9, 1850.

1853.—Franklin Pierce, the fourteenth President of the United States, inaugurated March 4, 1853.

1854.—Kansas-Nebraska Bill passed, May 1854. This Bill was a virtual nullification of the Missouri Compromise Bill. It provided that the inhabitants of each Territory should decide whether the State should enter the Union as a free or slave State.

1854.—A Treaty with Japan was secured in May 1854, by Commodore Perry, whereby the United States were granted two ports of entry in that exclusive country.

1857.—James Buchanan, the fifteenth President of the United States, was inaugurated March 4, 1857.

1858.—Minnesota, the thirty-second State, was admitted to the Union, May 11, 1858. It derives its name from the Indian word, signifying "cloudy water."

1859.—Oregon, the thirty-third State, was received into the Union February 14, 1859. Its name is of Spanish origin.

1860.—Secession of South Carolina.—On the election of Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency, the

Southern leaders prepared to carry out their threats of secession from the Union. On December 20, South Carolina withdrew, and was soon followed by Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. The act of secession was the outcome of the question of State rights in regard to slavery, which had vexed the country almost from the formation of the Union.

1861.—Kansas, the thirty-fourth State, was admitted to the Union January 29, 1861. The name is derived from an Indian term, signifying "smoky water."

1861.—Southern Confederacy Inaugurated.—On the 4th of February, 1861, delegates from the seceded States met at Montgomery, Ala., and formed a government known as the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis, formerly a United States Senator from Mississippi, was chosen President, and Alex. H. Stevens, of Georgia, was chosen Vice-President. All the national property and munitions of war belonging to the United States, situated in the seceded States, were seized and held.

1861.—Attack on Fort Sumter, April 12, 1861.—The *Star of the West*, an unarmed steamer, bearing supplies to Major Anderson's garrison in Fort Sumter, had been fired upon and driven back January 9, 1861. At the same time the Southern leaders declared that any attempt to relieve Fort Sumter would be regarded as a declaration of war. At length Gen'l Beauregard opened fire on the fort on the morning of the 12 of April, and after a contest of thirty-seven hours the garrison surrendered. The garrison numbered only seventy men, while the besieging force was seven thousand.

1861.—Abraham Lincoln, the sixteenth President of the United States, inaugurated March 4, 1861.

1861.—Call for seventy-five thousand volunteers by President Lincoln to suppress the rebellion, April 15, 1861.

1861.—Seizure of Harper's Ferry by Confederate troops, April 18, 1861.

1861.—Seizure of the Norfolk Navy Yard by the Confederates, April 20, 1861.

1861.—Massachusetts troops attacked in the streets of Baltimore, April 19, 1861. First blood shed in the civil war on the anniversary of Concord and Lexington.

1861.—The Confederate Congress assembled at Richmond, Va., July 20, 1861.

1861.—Battle of Bull Run, Va., July 21, 1861.—The Federal troops having driven the enemy from the field after a sharp contest, were suddenly attacked in flank and thrown into a panic. The retreat was changed to a rout, arms and munitions being abandoned, the fugitives flying in all directions. The effect of this battle was to convince the Northern people of the desperate nature of the great conflict that had just opened. Congress immediately voted $500,000,000 and 500,000 men to prosecute the war.

1862.—Capture of Fort Donelson with its garrison of fifteen thousand men, by General Grant, February 16, 1862.

1862.—Battle of Shiloh (April 6 and 7) 1862.

1862.—Capture of New Orleans by Captain Farragut, April 25, 1862.

1862.—Battle of the *Merrimac* and *Monitor*, March 9, 1862. This was the first battle ever fought between turreted iron ships.

1862.—Invasion of Maryland by the Confederate forces under General Lee, September 5, 1862.

1862.—Battle of Antietam, September 17, 1862. This was one of the bloodiest conflicts of the war, and though the result could scarce be said to be decisive, the effect was a Federal victory. Lee was forced to retire across the Potomac, and Washington was no longer threatened.

1862.—Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862; overwhelming defeat of Union troops; Federal loss twelve thousand.

1862.—While the civil war was at its height, the Sioux Indians took to the war path, and perpetrated horrible massacres in Minnesota, Iowa and Dakota. They were finally routed by Colonel Sibley, and several of their number taken prisoners and hanged.

1862.—Battle of Murfreesboro, December 31, and January 2, 1863. This was one of the fiercest battles of the war, the loss being stated as one-fourth of the number engaged. The Confederates were compelled to retreat.

1863.—Emancipation Proclamation, declaring freedom to the slaves, issued by President Lincoln, January 1, 863.

1863.—Battle of Chancellorsville, Va., May 2–3, 1863.

1863.—West Virginia, the thirty-fifth State, was

admitted to the Union, June 20, 1863. This portion of Virginia remained loyal to the Union during the war, and was accordingly incorporated into a separate State.

1863.—Battle of Gettysburg, Penn., July 1–3, 1863. This was the bloodiest and most desperately contested struggle of the war. The loss on both sides numbered about fifty thousand men. Lee was forced to retreat beyond the Potomac, and a Northern invasion was no longer thought of. The backbone of the rebellion was broken.

1863.—Surrender of Vicksburg with 37,000 prisoners of war, July 4, 1863. This was one of the most important events of the war. By its capture the Confederacy was cut in two and the Mississippi opened to the Gulf.

1863.—Battle of Chickamauga, September 19–20, 1863.

1863.—Battle of Chattanooga, Tenn., November 24–25, 1863.

1864.—Battle of the Wilderness, May 5–6, 1864.

1864.—Battle of Spottsylvania, May 8–12, 1864.

1864.—Battle of Cold Harbor, June 3, 1864. Twenty minutes after the battle had opened, ten thousand Union soldiers had fallen.

1864.—Capture of Atlanta, Ga., by General Sherman, September 2, 1864.

1864.—Nevada, the thirty-sixth State, was received into the Union, October 31, 1864. The name is of Spanish origin.

1864.—Battle of Nashville, December 15–16, 1864.

1865.—Capture of Petersburg and Richmond, April 2–3, 1865, by the forces of General Grant.

1865.—Surrender of General Lee, at Appomatox Court House, Va., April 9, 1865. This event brought the civil war to a close.

1865.—Assassination of President Lincoln, April 14, 1865. This black deed was perpetrated in Ford's Theater, Washington, where the President occupied a box during the performance. It was the act of the crazed brain of one who, thinking he was ridding the country of a tyrant, struck an almost deadly blow at the now vanquished South, in the murder of her most powerful friend.

1865.—Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, inaugurated seventeenth President of the United States, in accordance with the Constitution, April 15, 1865.

1865.—The Thirteenth Amendment, declaring the abolition of slavery adopted as a part of the Constitution of the United States, December 18, 1865.

1867.—Nebraska, the thirty-seventh State, admitted to the Union, March 1, 1867.

1867.—Death of Maximilian, so-called Emperor of Mexico, June 19, 1867. During the American civil war, Napoleon III. sought to found an empire in Mexico, and established Maximilian, of the house of Austria, emperor, with the aid of French troops. This the Americans regarded as a violation of the "Monroe Doctrine," and after the close of the war they compelled the French Emperor to withdraw his troops from the neighboring republic. Deprived of foreign aid, Maximilian's regime was overthrown by the Mexicans, and the unfortunate monarch shot.

1867.—Purchase of Alaska from Russia by the United States Government for the sum of $7,200,000 in gold.

1868.—Impeachment of President Johnson, February 24, 1868. The order to impeach the President was made in consequence of the latter having attempted to remove the Secretary of War, a proceeding which was held to be in violation of the Tenure-of-Office Bill, which had some time previous been passed over the President's veto. After a protracted trial, President Johnson was acquitted, having escaped conviction by one vote.

1868.—The Fourteenth Amendment, whereby equal civil rights were guaranteed to all, irrespective of race or color, was adopted by Congress, July 28, 1868.

1868.—Treaty between China and the United States, whereby valuable commercial privileges were acquired by the latter.

1869.—Ulysses Simpson Grant, the eighteenth President of the United States, inaugurated Ma ch 4, 1869.

1869.—Completion of the great trans-continental railroad from New York to San Francisco.

1870.—The Fifteenth Amendment, whereby the right of suffrage is guaranteed to all, regardless of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, was formally announced as part of the Constitution, March 30, 1870.

1870.—The Treaty of Washington ratified whereby Great Britain was compelled to pay the United States the sum of $15,500,000 in gold, in consideration of damages caused to American commerce by the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruis-

ers fitted out in English ports during the Civil War.

1870.—Rejection by Congress of the proposed annexation of San Domingo to the United States.

1871.—Great fire broke out in Chicago, Oct. 8, 1871. Three thousand acres of the city devastated, $200,000,000 of property destroyed, and a hundred thousand people left homeless.

1872.—Great Boston fire, Nov. 9. Sixty acres of the business portion of the city laid waste and $70,000,000 of property destroyed.

1873.—Difficulties with the Modoc Indians. After dispatching troops against them, Captain Jack and several of the leaders were captured, and executed Oct. 3, 1873.

1875.—Colorado, the thirty-eighth State, received into the Union, March 3, 1875.

1876.—Centennial Exhibition of the "arts and industries of all nations," at Philadelphia, opened May 10, 1876. The exhibition lasted six months, and had an average daily attendance of 61,000 persons.

1877.—War with the Sioux Indians.—The Indian reservation being encroached on by gold prospectors, it led to difficulties which terminated in compelling a dispatch of regular troops to the reservation. General Custer and his entire command were slain in the conflict which occurred on the twenty-fifth of June on the Little Big Horn river.

1877.—Rutherford B. Hayes, the nineteenth President of the United States, inaugurated March 4, 1877.

1881.—James A. Garfield, the twentieth President of the United States, inaugurated March 4, 1881.

1881.—Assassination of President Garfield, July 2, 1881, by Charles J. Guiteau, at the railroad depot, Washington. The assassination was regarded as the act of a crazed brain. The wounded President was removed to Long Branch, N. J., where he died on the 19th of Sept. following.

1881.—Gen. Chester A. Arthur, Vice-President, inaugurated twenty-first President of the United States, in accordance with the Constitution, Sept. 20, 1881.

The centennial anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown was celebrated October 19, 1881. One month previous England had mourned with us over the death of President Garfield, and in recognition and grateful acknowledgment of the friendly feelings manifested upon that occasion, President Arthur directed that during the Yorktown celebration a national salute should be fired in honor of the flag of Great Britain. France, naturally and historically, had a place in the anniversary whose event her aid alone made possible. The Stars and Stripes floated in peaceful company with the cross of St. George and the lilies of France on the field of Yorktown, where, one hundred years ago, the decisive battle of the Revolution was fought.

The steam yacht *Jeannette*, fitted out by James Gordon Bennett, left San Francisco, July 8, 1879, under the command of Lieutenant G. W. DeLong, on an expedition into the Arctic regions. The vessel was caught in the ice soon after entering the Arctic Sea, floated about helplessly for more than twenty-one months and sank June 13, 1881. The nearest coast was Siberia, some four hundred miles distant. On sleds and boats mounted on runners the men started southward over the ice in three parties. The party under Lieutenant Danenhower and Chief Engineer Melville entered the Lena river and was rescued by the natives. That under Lieutenant DeLong perished of hunger and cold on the delta of the Lena. The other party has never been heard from.

At Lady Franklin Bay a Signal Service station was established under Lieutenant A. W. Greely in the Summer of 1881 for the purpose of investigating the meteorology of the Arctic regions. Several exploring parties were sent out, one under Greely. Supplies expected did not arrive, and the Greely expedition returned southward in August, 1883. They went into

Winter quarters at Cape Sabine, where their only food for several weeks was moss and lichens and sealskin broth. June 22, 1884, when the relief squadron under Commander Schley found the party, only seven of the original twenty-five members were alive. Though the party continued to die off, one by one, explorations were continued, and the results of the expedition have proved of great value to science.

The Signal Service of the United States, under General William B. Hazen, who was appointed December 8, 1880, began in 1881 to be recognized as a very important department. Signal Service stations were established at various points and equipped with the latest appliances for correct observations. Results were telegraphed to Washington, and the workings were soon regulated with methodical exactness. The track of storms across the continent is now so clearly marked out from day to day, and the laws of climatic movements and developments are so well understood, that data are easily obtainable for forecasting the time and nature of any important meteorological change likely to occur in any part of the country.

By a disastrous flood in the Mississippi Valley, in the Spring of 1882, 100,000 persons were made homeless. The appropriations by Congress to relieve the distress of the sufferers were liberal and timely, and the sums contributed by all the people were princely and unstinted.

The suspension bridge between New York and Brooklyn was opened May 24, 1883, having been begun January 3, 1870. The roadway is 85 feet wide and 5,989 feet long. The towers are 278 feet high. The suspended span, from tower to tower, is 1,596 feet long, and its height above the East river high tide is 135 feet. The four cables are 15 3-4 inches in diameter, each cable containing 5,296 parallel galvanized steel, oil-coated wires and weighing, with its covering, 897 1-8 tons. The strength of the four cables is estimated at 48,800 tons. The Brooklyn Bridge railway is operated by an endless wire rope. The railroad fare one way is three cents. Foot passengers are free.

Important measures passed by the Forty-seventh Congress (1881–1883) were: a civil service bill regulating the method of appointment and promotions in the civil service of the United States by means of a system of examinations and a bill reducing single letter postage from three cents to two cents per half ounce.

Important measures passed by the Forty-eighth Congress (1883–1885) were: a bill increasing from one-half an ounce to one ounce the maximum weight of a letter to be carried for two cents; a bill constituting Alaska a civil and judicial district, with temporary seat of government at Sitka, providing for the appointment of a governor, judge, marshal and other officers to serve four years, without authorizing a legislative assembly or a territorial delegate in Congress.

A World's Industrial and Cotton Exposition was held at New Orleans in the Winter of 1884–85. It was intended to commemorate the century of the cotton industry in this country. President Arthur, in the presence of distinguished men in the Executive Mansion at Washington, opened the exposition by telegraph. The exhibition was a great success, the exhibits from Mexico, West Indies and Central and South America attracting special attention.

The administration of President Cleveland (1885–1889) was marked by frequent efforts to change the economic policy of the government on the subject of the tariff. The Mills Bill, providing for the reduction of duties on imports to a revenue basis, failed to become a law. Cattle drovers were excluded from the government lands in the Far West. Many new cruisers were projected and built. The progress of the country was satisfactory and

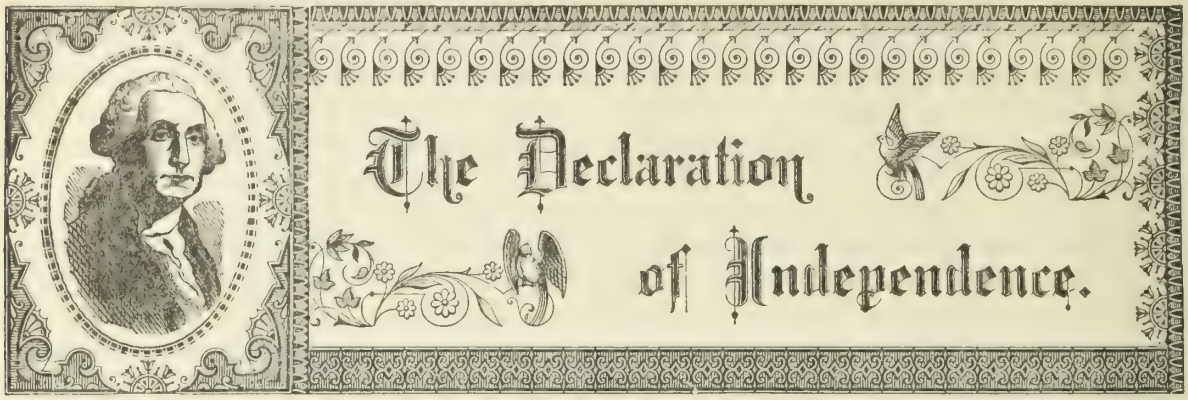
the policy of the administration conservative. General Grant died July 23, 1885, at Mount McGregor, sincerely mourned by the entire re-united nation and eulogized in many quarters as the foremost military chieftain of the century.

In the Fall of 1888 Hon. Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, was elected over President Cleveland. President Harrison's administration (1889–1893) was marked by many stirring events and important public acts. Six new States were admitted into the Union. The McKinley Bill, a protective tariff measure, became a law. The Congressional election of 1890 returned an extraordinary Democratic majority to the House of Representatives. The World's Fair site was located in Chicago, and buildings and improvements were erected and projected there on a scale never before witnessed in the civilized world. The census of 1890 showed a population of nearly 63,000,000. Chicago passed the 1,000,000 mark. Chili paid $75,000 indemnity for man-of-war's men killed and injured by a mob in Valparaiso, and Italy was paid a liberal sum indemnity for the death of Italian citizens in the Mafia massacre at New Orleans.

The Summer and Autumn of 1892 witnessed the following among other stirring events—viz.: Civil war in Tennessee on the subject of convict labor in the mines, which was put down after much reprehensible delay on the part of the State authorities; riotous violence in mining regions near Cœur d'Alene, Idaho, resulting in much bloodshed and not suppressed until many fiendish acts of cruelty had been committed by the rioters; a switchmen's strike at Buffalo, in which nearly all the railroads centering at that point were involved, and which developed such serious conditions that the entire State militia of New York was dispatched to the scene, the result being the unconditional declaring off of the strike, after much loss of property and disquietude in the public mind had been caused; a great lock-out strike at the Carnegie Mills in Homestead, Pa., by which nearly four thousand men were thrown out of employment and several lives lost in a battle between Pinkerton guards and strikers, the State militia of Pennsylvania finally taking possession of the town and mills, and, as a final settlement, the leaders of the strikers were arrested on charges of murder and treason and some of the officials of the mills charged with conspiracy; the struggle of American seaports, especially New York, against the cholera invasion from Hamburg, Russia and France, resulting in a signal victory for the vigilance of the great metropolis. President Harrison and ex-President Cleveland were again the opposing candidates for the Presidency.

A treaty between the United States and Chili, under which all disputes between the two countries, including claims of American citizens for damages during the Chili-Peru war, are to be settled by arbitration, was negotiated by Minister Egan and was to be submitted to the President and Senate as soon as possible after Congress met in December, 1892.

The issues between the Democratic and Republican parties were clearly defined in the Presidential and Congressional campaign of 1892. The Republicans favored the protective principle in tariff legislation, on the ground that American industries will be thereby built up. They also favored a Federal Elections Bill, giving the Federal authorities the right of supervision over Congressional and Presidential elections. On the tariff question the Democrats sharply declared their opposition to any but a tariff for revenue only, and solely for the needs of the government economically administered. They opposed the proposed Federal Elections Bill on the ground that it is a needless interference with the individual and is liable to be abused so as to give the Federal authority undue power to perpetuate themselves in office.



A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, July 4th, 1776.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bonds which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having, in direct object, the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world :—

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the danger of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of

these states ; for that purpose, obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them by a mock trial, from punishment, for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states :

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our consent :

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefit of trial by jury :

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses :

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the powers of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms ; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts made by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved ; and that, as free and independent states, they have full

power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other, our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New York.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

Delaware.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

North Carolina.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

New Jersey.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

Maryland.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

South Carolina.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, jr.,
Thomas Lynch, jr.,
Arthur Middleton.

Pennsylvania.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

Virginia.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

Georgia.
Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

Constitution of the United States.

WE the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Section 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2. [1] The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

[2] No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty-five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

[3] Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New-Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

[4] When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

[5] The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

Section 3. [1] The Senate of the United States shall be

[NOTE.—The small figures in brackets are not in the original, but have been added subsequently, to mark the different clauses in the section.]

composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

[2] Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

[3] No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

[4] The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

[5] The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

[6] The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

[7] Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and Disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honour, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

Section 4. [1] The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the places of chusing Senators.

[2] The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

Section 5. [1] Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

[2] Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

[3] Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

[4] Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. [1] The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

[2] No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof have been encreased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

Section 7. [1] All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

[2] Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

[3] Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

Section. 8 The Congress shall have Power

[1] To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

[2] To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

[3] To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

[4] To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

[5] To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

[6] To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

[7] To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

[8] To promote the progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

[9] To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

[10] To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;

[11] To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

[12] To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

[13] To provide and maintain a Navy;

[14] To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

[15] To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

[16] To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the Discipline prescribed by Congress;

[17] To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, Dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings;—And

[18] To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Section 9. [1] The Migration or Importation of such Person as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or Duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

[2] The privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

[3] No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

[4] No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

[5] No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

[6] No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

[7] No money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

[8] No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

Section 10. [1] No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

[2] No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

[3] No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of Delay.

ARTICLE II.

Section 1. [1] The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows:

[2] Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

[3] The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Num-

ber be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority and have an equal number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote: a Quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice-President.

[4] The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

[5] No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

[6] In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation, or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

[7] The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be encreased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

[8] Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:—

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully exe-
"cute the Office of President of the United States, and will to
"the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the
"Constitution of the United States."

Section 2. [1] The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

[2] He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

[3] The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

Section 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the officers of the United States.

Section 4. The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

Section 1. The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

Section 2. [1] The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority;—to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls;—to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction;—to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; to Controversies between two or more States;—between a State and Citizens of another State;—between Citizens of different States,—between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

[2] In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

[3] The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at

such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

Section 3. [1] Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

Section 1. Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

Section 2. [1] The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

[2] A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

[2] No person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

Section 3. [1] New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State: nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion, and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

[1] All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

[2] This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

[3] The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our Names,

Go Washington—
Presidt and deputy from Virginia

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

John Langdon — Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS.

Nathaniel Gorham — Rufus King

CONNECTICUT.

Wm Saml Johnson — Roger Sherman

NEW YORK.

Alexander Hamilton

NEW JERSEY.

Wil Livingston — David Brearley
Wm Paterson — Jona Dayton

PENNSYLVANIA.

B Franklin	Thomas Mifflin
Robt Morris	Geo Clymer
Tho Fitzsimons	Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson	Gouv Morris

DELAWARE.

Geo Read	Gunning Bedford, Jun'r
John Dickinson	Richard Bassett
Jaco Broom	

MARYLAND.

James M'Henry	Dan of St Thos Jenifer
Danl Carroll	

VIRGINIA.

John Blair	James Madison, Jr

NORTH CAROLINA.

Wm Blount	Rich'd Dobbs Spaight
Hu Williamson	

SOUTH CAROLINA.

J Rutledge	Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney	Pierce Butler

GEORGIA.

William Few	Abr Baldwin

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*.

ARTICLES

IN ADDITION TO, AND AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Proposed by Congress, and ratified by the Legislatures of the several States, pursuant to the fifth article of the original Constitution.

(ARTICLE I.)

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

(ARTICLE II.)

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms shall not be infringed.

(ARTICLE III.)

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

(ARTICLE IV.)

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

(ARTICLE V.)

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any Criminal Case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

(ARTICLE VI.)

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have Compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

(ARTICLE VII.)

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

(ARTICLE VIII.)

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

(ARTICLE IX.)

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or desparage others retained by the people.

(ARTICLE X.)

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

(ARTICLE XI.)

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

(ARTICLE XII.)

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate;—The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. —The Person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

(ARTICLE XIII.)

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

(ARTICLE XIV.)

Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States: nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation shall therein be reduced to the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or a judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

(ARTICLE XV.)

Section 1. The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.



BASEBALL.

THE ball must weigh not less than 5 ounces and not more than 5 1-4 ounces, and must measure not less than 9 and not more than 9 1-4 inches in circumference. The Spalding League Ball or the Reach American Association Ball must be used in all games under these rules for the championship of the League.

2. The bat must be made wholly of wood, except that the handle may be wound with twine or coated with a granular substance, not to exceed eighteen inches from the end. A "flat bat" has been allowed for "bunting," but its thickest or widest part must not exceed two and one-half inches in diameter.

3. The bases must be four in number, and designated as First Base, Second Base, Third Base and Home Base. The Home Base must be of whitened rubber twelve inches square, so fixed in the ground as to be even with the surface, and so placed in the corner of the infield that two of its sides will form part of the boundaries of said infield. The First, Second and Third Bases must be canvas bags, fifteen inches square, painted white, and filled with some soft material, and so placed that the center of the Second Base shall be upon its corner of the infield, and the center of the First and Third Bases shall be on the lines running to and from Second Base and seven and one-half inches from the Foul Lines, providing that each base shall be entirely within the Foul Lines. All the bases must be securely fastened in their positions, and so placed as to be distinctly seen by the Umpire.

4. The Foul Lines must be drawn in straight lines from the outer corner of the Home Base, along the outer edge of the First and Third Bases, to the boundaries of the Ground.

5. The Pitcher's Lines must be straight lines forming the boundaries of a space of ground in the infield, five and one-half feet long by four feet wide, distant fifty feet from the center of the Home Base, and so placed that the five and one-half feet lines will each be two feet distant from and parallel with a straight line passing through the centers of the Home and Second Bases. Each corner of this space must be marked by a flat, round rubber plate six inches in diameter fixed in the ground even with the surface.

6. The Batsman's Lines must be straight lines forming the boundaries of a space on the right and of a similar space on the left of the Home Base, six feet long by four feet wide, extending three feet in front of and three feet behind the center of the Home Base, and with its nearest line distant six inches from the Home Base.

7. The players of each club in a game shall be nine in number, one of whom shall act as Captain, and in no case shall less than nine men be allowed to play on each side. Players in uniform shall not be permitted to seat themselves among the spectators. Every Club shall be required to adopt uniforms for its players, and each player shall be required to present himself upon the field during said game in a neat and cleanly condition, but no player shall attach anything to the sole or heel of his shoes other than the ordinary baseball shoe plate.

8. The Pitcher shall take his position facing Bthe ats man with both feet square on the ground, one foot on the rear line of the "Box." He shall not raise either foot, unless in the act of delivering the ball, nor make more than one step in such delivery. He shall hold the ball, before the delivery, fairly in front of his body, and in sight of the Umpire. When the Pitcher

feigns to throw the ball to a base he must assume the above position and pause momentarily before delivering the ball to the bat. A Fair Ball is a ball delivered by the Pitcher while standing wholly within the lines of his position, and facing the Batsman, the ball, so delivered, to pass over the Home Base, not lower than the Batsman's knee, nor higher than his shoulder, provided a ball so delivered that touches the bat of the Batsman in his position shall be considered a batted ball, and in play. An Unfair Ball is a ball delivered by the Pitcher, as above, except that the ball does not pass over the Home Base, or does pass over the Home Base, above the Batsman's shoulder, or below the knee. A Balk is any motion made by the Pitcher to deliver the ball to the bat without delivering it, and shall be held to include any and every accustomed motion with the hands, arms or feet, or position of the body assumed by the Pitcher in his delivery of the ball and any motion calculated to deceive a Base Runner, except the ball be accidentally dropped; the holding of the ball by the Pitcher so long as to delay the game unnecessarily; or any motion to deliver the ball, or the delivering the ball to the bat by the Pitcher when any part of his person is upon ground outside of the lines of his position, including all preliminary motions with the hands, arms and feet.

9. A Dead Ball is a ball delivered to the bat by the Pitcher that touches the Batsman's bat without being struck at, or any part of the Batsman's person or clothing while standing in his position without being struck at; or any part of the Umpire's person or clothing, while on foul ground, without first passing the Catcher. In case of a Foul Strike, Foul Hit ball not legally caught out, Dead Ball, or Base Runner put out for being struck by a fair hit ball, the ball shall not be considered in play until it is held by the Pitcher standing in his position. A Block is a batted or thrown ball that is stopped or handled by any person not engaged in the game. Whenever a Block occurs the Umpire shall declare it, and Base Runners may run the bases, without being put out, until the ball has been returned to and held by the Pitcher standing in his position. In the case of a Block, if the person not engaged in the game should retain possession of the ball, or throw or kick it beyond the reach of the Fielders, the Umpire should call "Time," and require each Base Runner to stop at the last base touched by him until the ball be returned to the Pitcher standing in his position.

10. Every Championship Game must be commenced not later than two hours before sunset. A game shall consist of nine innings to each contesting nine, except that (*a*) if the side first at bat scores less runs in nine innings than the other side has scored in eight innings, the game shall then terminate; (*b*) if the side last at bat in the ninth inning scores the winning run before the third man is out, the game shall terminate; and (*c*) if the Umpire calls "Game" on account of darkness or rain at any time after five innings have been completed, the score shall be that of the last equal innings played, unless the side second at bat shall have scored more runs than the side first at bat, in which case the score of the game shall be the total number of runs made.

11. The Batsman is out if he fails to take his position at the bat in his order of batting, unless the error be discovered and the proper Batsman takes his position before a Fair Hit has been made; and in such case the Balls and Strikes called must be counted in the time at bat of the proper Batsman. *Provided*, this rule shall not take effect unless *the out* is declared before the ball is delivered to the succeeding Batsman; if he fails to take his position within one minute after the Umpire has called for the Batsman; if he makes a Foul Strike; if he attempts to hinder the Catcher from Fielding or throwing the ball, by stepping outside the lines of his position, or otherwise obstructing or interfering with that player; if, while the First Base be occupied by a Base Runner, three strikes be called on him by the Umpire, except when two men are already out; if, while making the third strike, the ball hits his person or clothing; if, after two strikes have been called, the Batsman obviously attempts to make a Foul Hit.

12. The Batsman becomes a Base Runner instantly after he makes a Fair Hit; instantly after four balls have been called by the Umpire; instantly after three strikes have been declared by the Umpire; if, while he be a Batsman, his person—excepting hands or forearm, which makes it a Dead Ball—or clothing be hit by a ball from the Pitcher, unless—in the opinion of the Umpire—he intentionally permits himself to be so hit; instantly after an illegal delivery of a ball by the Pitcher.

13. The Base Runner shall be entitled, without being put out, to take the base in the following cases: If, while he was Batsman, the Umpire called four balls; if the Umpire awards a succeeding Batsman a base on four balls, or for being hit with a pitched ball, or in case of an illegal delivery, and the Base Runner is thereby forced to vacate the base held by him; if the Umpire calls a "Balk"; if a ball delivered by the Pitcher pass the Catcher and touch the Umpire or any fence or building within ninety feet of the Home Base; if upon a Fair Hit the ball strikes the person or clothing of the Umpire on fair ground; if he be prevented from making a base by the obstruction of an adversary; if the Fielder stop or catch a batted ball with his bat, or any part of his dress.

14. The Base Runner shall return to his base, and shall be entitled to so return without being put out, if the Umpire declares a Foul Tip or any other Foul Hit not legally caught by a Fielder; if the Umpire declares a Foul Strike; if the Umpire declares a Dead Ball, unless it be also the fourth Unfair Ball, and he be thereby forced to take the next base; if the person or clothing of the Umpire interferes with the Catcher, or he is struck by a ball thrown by the Catcher to intercept a Base Runner.

15. The Umpire shall not be changed during the progress of a game, except for reason of illness or injury. The Umpire is master of the Field from the commencement to the termination of the game, and is entitled to the respect of the spectators, and any person offering any insult or indignity to him must be promptly ejected from the grounds. He must be invariably addressed by the players as Mr. Umpire; and he must compel the players to observe the provisions of all the Playing Rules, and he is hereby invested with authority to order any player to do


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LAWN TENNIS.
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15. or omit to do any act as he may deem necessary, to give force and effect to any and all of such provisions. The Umpire is the sole and absolute judge of play. In no instance shall any person be allowed to question the correctness of any decision made by him on a play, and no player shall leave his position in the field, his place at the bat, on the bases or players' bench, to approach or address the Umpire, except on an interpretation of the Playing Rules, and only that shall be done by the Captains of the contending nines. No Manager or any other officer of either club shall be permitted to go on the field or address the Umpire, under a penalty of a forfeiture of a game. Before the commencement of a game, the Umpire shall see that the rules governing all the materials of the game are strictly observed. He shall ask the Captain of the Home Club whether there are any special ground rules to be enforced, and if there are, he shall see that they are duly enforced, provided they do not conflict with any of these rules. He shall also secure from the Captains of the contesting teams their respective batting orders, which, upon approval, shall be followed. The Umpire must keep the contesting nines playing constantly from the commencement of the game to its termination, allowing such delays only as are rendered unavoidable by accident, injury or rain. He must, until the completion of the game, require the players of each side to promptly take their positions in the field as soon as the third man is put out, and must require the first striker of the opposite side to be in his position at the bat as soon as the fielders are in their places. The Umpire shall count and call every "Unfair Ball" delivered by the Pitcher, and every "Dead Ball," if also an Unfair Ball, as a "Ball," and he shall also count and call every "Strike." Neither a "Ball" nor a "Strike" shall be counted or called until the ball has passed the

15. Home Base. He shall also declare every "Dead Ball," "Block," "Foul Hit," "Foul Strike," and "Balk."

For the special benefit of the patrons of the game, and because the offenses specified are under his immediate jurisdiction, and not subject to appeal by players, the attention of the Umpire is particularly directed to possible violations of the purpose and spirit of the Rules, of the following character:

Laziness or loafing of players in taking their places in the field, or those allotted them by the Rules when their side is at the bat, and especially any failure to keep the bats in the racks provided for them; to be ready to take position as Batsmen and to remain upon the Players' Bench, except when otherwise required by the Rules.

Any attempt by players of the side at bat by calling to a Fielder, other than the one designated by his Captain, to field a ball, or by any other equally disreputable means seeking to disconcert a Fielder.

The Rules make a marked distinction between hindrance of an adversary in fielding a batted or thrown ball. This has been done to rid the game of the childish excuses and claims formerly made by a Fielder failing to hold a ball to put out a Base Runner. But there may be cases of a Base Runner so flagrantly violating the spirit of the Rules and of the Game in obstructing a Fielder from fielding a thrown ball that it would become the duty of the Umpire, not only to declare the Base Runner "out" (and to compel Base Runners to return to the bases last held by them), but also to impose a heavy fine upon him. For example: If the Base Runner plainly strike at the ball while passing him, to prevent its being caught by the Fielder; if he holds a Fielder's arms so as to disable him from catching the ball, or if he run against or knock the Fielder down for the same purpose.

CROQUET.

A FULL-SIZED croquet ground should measure 40 yards by 30 yards. Its boundaries should be accurately defined.

The *Hoops* should be of half-inch round iron, and should not be more than 6 inches in width, inside measurement. The crown of the hoop should be at least 12 inches clear of the ground. A hoop with the crown at right angles to the legs is to be preferred.

The *Pegs* should be of uniform diameter of not less than 1½ inch, and should stand at least 18 inches above the ground.

The *Balls* should be of boxwood, and should not weigh less than 14 ounces each.

The FOUR-BALL GAME is recommended for adoption in preference to any other.

When odds are given, the *Bisque* is recommended. A bisque is an extra stroke which may be taken at any time during the game in continuation of the turn. A player receiving a bisque cannot roquet a ball twice in the same turn without making an intermediate point. In other respects, a bisque confers all the advantages of an extra turn. A player receiving two or more bisques cannot take more than one in the same turn. Passing the boundary, or making a foul stroke, does not prevent the player taking a bisque.

The following *Settings* are recommended:

No. 1. *Eight-Hoop Setting.*—Distances on a full-sized ground: Pegs 3 yards from boundary; first and corresponding hoop 5 yards from pegs; center hoops midway between first and sixth hoops, and 5 yards from each other; corner hoops 6 yards from end of ground, and 5 yards from side. Starting spot 2 feet in front of first hoop, and opposite its center.

No. 2. *Seven-Hoop Setting.*—Distances on a full-sized ground: Pegs in center line of ground 8 yards from nearest boundary. Hoops up center line of ground 6 yards from peg, and 6 yards apart; corner hoops 7 yards from center, and in a line with pegs. Starting spot 1½ yard from first hoop in center line of ground.

No. 3. *Six-Hoop Setting.*—Distances on a full-sized ground as in No. 2, except the middle-line hoops 8 yards apart. Starting spot 1 foot from left-hand corner hoop, and opposite its center.

It is essential to match play that bystanders should abstain from walking over the grounds, speaking to the players or the umpires, making remarks upon them aloud, or in any way distracting their attention.

DEFINITIONS.

A *Point* is made when a hoop is run, or a peg is hit, in order

The striker's hoop or peg *in order* is the one he has next to make.

A *Roquet* is made when the striker's ball is caused by a blow of the mallet to hit another which it has not before hit in the same turn since making a point.

The striker's ball is said to be *in play* until it roquets another. Having made roquet, it is *in hand* until croquet is taken. *Croquet* is taken by placing the striker's ball in contact with the one roqueted, the striker then hitting his own ball with the mallet. The non-striker's ball, when moved by a croquet, is called the *croqueted ball.*

A *Rover* is a ball that has made all its points in order except the winning peg.

THE LAWS OF CROQUET.

1. *Mallets.*—There should be no restriction as to the number weight, size, shape, or material of the mallets; nor as to the attitude or position of the striker; nor as to the part of the mallet held, provided the ball be not struck with the handle, nor the mace stroke used.
2. *Size of Balls.*—The balls used in match play shall be 3⅝ inches in diameter.
3. *Choice of Lead and of Balls.*—It shall be decided by lot which side shall have choice of lead and of balls. In a succession of games the choice of lead shall be alternate, the sides keeping the same balls.
4. *Commencement of Game.*—In commencing, each ball shall be placed on the starting spot (see Settings). The striker's ball, when so placed and struck, is at once in play, and can roquet another, or be roqueted, whether it has made the first hoop or not.
5. *Stroke, when taken.*—A stroke is considered to be taken if a ball be moved in the act of striking; but should a player, in taking aim, move his ball accidentally, it must be replaced to the satisfaction of the adversary, and the stroke be then taken. If a ball be moved in taking aim, and then struck without being replaced, the stroke is foul (see Law 25).
6. *Hoop, when run.*—A ball has run its hoop when having passed through from the playing side and ceased to roll, it cannot be touched by a straight-edge placed against the wires on the side from which it was played.
7. *Ball driven partly through Hoop.*—A ball driven partly through its hoop from the non-playing side cannot run the hoop at its next stroke, if it can be touched by a straight-edge placed against the wires on the non-playing side.
8. *Points counted to Non-Striker's Ball.*—A ball driven through its hoop, or against the turning peg, by any stroke not foul, whether of its own or of the adverse side, counts the point so made.
9. *Points made for Adversary's Ball.*—If a point be made for an adversary's ball, the striker must inform his adversary of it. Should the striker neglect to do so, and the adversary make the point again, he may continue his turn as though he had played for his right point.

10. *The Turn.*—A player, when his turn comes round, may roquet each ball once, and may do this again after each point made. The player continues his turn so long as he makes a point or a roquet.

11. *Croquet imperative after Roquet.*—A player who roquets a ball must take croquet, and in so doing must move both balls (see Law 25). In taking croquet, the striker is not allowed to place his foot on the ball.

12. *Ball in hand after Roquet.*—No point or roquet can be made by a ball which is in hand. If a ball in hand displace any other balls, they must remain where they are driven. Any point made in consequence of such displacement counts, notwithstanding that the ball displacing them is in hand.

13. *Balls Roqueted simultaneously.*—When a player roquets two balls simultaneously, he may choose from which of them he will take croquet; and a second roquet will be required before he can take croquet from the other ball.

14. *Balls found Touching.*—If at the commencement of a turn the striker's ball be found touching another, roquet is deemed to be made, and croquet must be taken at once.

15. *Roquet and Hoop made by same Stroke.*—Should a ball, in making its hoop, roquet another that lies beyond the hoop, and then pass through, the hoop counts as well as the roquet. A ball is deemed to be beyond the hoop if it lies so that it cannot be touched by a straight-edge placed against the wires on the playing side. Should any part of the ball that is roqueted be lying on the playing side of the hoop, the roquet counts, but not the hoop.

16. *Pegging out.*—If a rover (except when in hand) be caused to hit the winning peg by any stroke of the same side, not foul, the rover is out of the game, and must be removed from the ground. A rover may similarly be pegged out by an adverse rover.

17 *Rover pegged out by Roquet.*—A player who pegs out a rover by a roquet loses the remainder of his turn.

18. *Balls sent off the Ground.*—A ball sent off the ground must at once be replaced 3 feet within the boundary, measured from the spot where it went off, and at right angles to the margin. If this spot be already occupied, the ball last sent off is to be placed anywhere in contact with the other, at the option of the player sending off the ball.

19. *Ball sent off near Corner.*—A ball sent off within 3 feet of a corner is to be replaced 3 feet from both boundaries.

20. *Ball touching Boundary.*—If the boundary be marked by a line on the turf, a ball touching the line is deemed to have been off the ground. If the boundary be raised, a ball touching the boundary is similarly deemed to have been off the ground.

21. *Ball sent off and returning to Ground.*—If a ball be sent off the ground, and return to it, the ball must be similarly replaced, measuring from the point of first contact with the boundary.

22. *Ball sent within 3 feet of Boundary.*—A ball sent within 3 feet of the boundary, but not off the ground, is to be replaced as though it had been sent off—except in the case of the striker's ball, when the striker has the option of bringing his ball in, or of playing from where it lies.

23. *Boundary interfering with Stroke.*—If it be found that the height of the boundary interferes with the stroke, the striker, with the sanction of the umpire, may bring in the balls a longer distance than 3 feet, so as to allow a free swing of the mallet. Balls so brought in must be moved in the line of aim.

24. *Dead Boundary.*—If, in taking croquet, the striker send his own ball, or the ball croqueted, off the ground, he loses the remainder of his turn; bnt if by the same stroke he make a roquet, his ball, being in hand, may pass the boundary without penalty. Should either ball while rolling after a croquet be touched or diverted from its course by an opponent, the striker has the option given him by Law 26, and is not liable to lose his turn should the ball which has been touched or diverted pass the boundary.

25. *Foul Strokes.*—If a player make a foul stroke, he loses the remainder of his turn, and any point or roquet made by such stroke does not count. Balls moved by a foul stroke are to remain where they lie, or be replaced, at the option of the adversary. If the foul be made when taking croquet, and the adversary elect to have the balls replaced, they must be replaced in contact as they stood when the croquet was taken. The following are foul strokes:

(*a*) To strike with the mallet another ball instead of or beside one's own in making the stroke.

(*b*) To spoon, *i. e.*, to push a ball without an audible knock.

(*c*) To strike a ball twice in the same stroke.

(*d*) To touch, stop, or divert the course of a ball when in play and rolling, whether this be done by the striker or his partner.

(*e*) To allow a ball to touch the mallet in rebounding from a peg or wire.

(*f*) To move a ball which lies close to a peg or wire by striking the peg or wire.

(*g*) To press a ball round a peg or wire (crushing stroke).

(*h*) To play a stroke after roquet without taking croquet.

(*i*) To fail to move both balls in taking croquet.

(*k*) To croquet a ball which the striker is not entitled to croquet.

26. *Balls touched by Adversary.*—Should a ball when rolling, except it be in hand, be touched, stopped, or diverted from its course by an adversary, the striker may elect whether he will take the stroke again, or whether the ball shall remain where it stopped, or be placed where, in the judgment of the umpire, it would have rolled to.

27. *Balls stopped or diverted by Umpire.*—Should a ball be stopped or diverted from its course by an umpire, he is to place it where he considers it would have rolled to.

28. *Playing out of Turn, or with the Wrong Ball.*—If a player play out of turn, or with the wrong ball, the remainder of the turn is lost, and any point or roquet made after the mistake. The balls remain where they lie when

the penalty is claimed, or are replaced as they were before the last stroke was made, at the option of the adversary. But if the adverse side play without claiming the penalty, the turn holds good, and any point or points made after the mistake are scored to the ball by which they have been made—that is, the ball is deemed to be for the point next in order to the last point made in the turn—except when the adversary's ball has been played with, in which case the points are scored to the ball which ought to have been played with. If more than one ball be played with during the turn, all points made during the turn, whether before or after the mistake, are scored to the ball last played with. Whether the penalty be claimed or not, the adversary may follow with either ball of his own side.

29. *Playing for Wrong Point.*—If a player make a wrong point it does not count, and therefore—unless he have, by the same stroke, taken croquet, or made a roquet—all subsequent strokes are in error, the remainder of turn is lost, and any point or roquet made after the mistake. The balls remain where they lie when the penalty is claimed, or are replaced as they were before the last stroke was made, at the option of the adversary. But if the player make another point, or the adverse side play, before the penalty is claimed, the turn holds good; and the player who made the mistake is deemed to be for the point next in order to that which he last made.

30. *Information as to Score.*—Every player is entitled to be informed which is the next point of any ball.

31. *State of Game, if disputed.*—When clips are used, their position, in case of dispute, shall be conclusive as to the position of the balls in the game.

32. *Wires knocked out of Ground.*—Should a player, in trying to run his hoop, knock a wire of that hoop out of the ground with his ball, the hoop does not count. The ball must be replaced, and the stroke taken again; but if by the same stroke a roquet be made, the striker may elect whether he will claim the roquet or have the balls replaced.

33. *Pegs or Hoops not Upright.*—Any player may set upright a peg or hoop, except the one next in order; and that must not be altered except by the umpire.

34. *Ball lying in a Hole or on Bad Ground.*—A ball lying in a hole or on bad ground may be removed with the sanction of the umpire. The ball must be put back—*i. e.*, away from the object aimed at—and so as not to alter the line of aim.

35. *Umpires.*—An umpire shall not give his opinion, or notice any error that may be made, unless appealed to by one of the players. The decision of an umpire, when appealed to, shall be final. The duties of an umpire are—
   (*a*) To decide matters in dispute during the game, if appealed to.
   (*b*) To keep the score, and, if asked by a player, to disclose the state of it.
   (*c*) To move the clips, or to see that they are properly moved.
   (*d*) To replace balls sent off the ground, or to see that they are properly replaced.
   (*e*) To adjust the hoops or pegs not upright, or to see that they are properly adjusted.

36. *Absence of Umpire.*—When there is no umpire present, permission to move a ball, or to set up a peg or hoop, or other indulgence for which an umpire would be appealed to, must be asked of the other side.

37. *Appeal to Referee.*—Should an umpire be unable to decide any point at issue, he may appeal to the referee, whose decision shall be final; but no player may appeal to the referee from the decision of an umpire.

CRICKET.

THE BALL must weigh not less than 5½ oz., nor more than 5¾ oz. It must measure not less than 9¼ inches in circumference. At the beginning of each innings either party may call for a new ball.

2. THE BAT must not exceed 4½ inches in the widest part; it must not be more than 38 inches in length.

3. THE STUMPS must be three in number, 27 inches out of the ground; the bails 8 inches in length; the stumps of equal and sufficient thickness to prevent the ball from passing through.

4. THE BOWLING-CREASE must be in a line with the stumps, 6 feet 8 inches in length, the stumps in the center, with a return-crease at each end towards the bowler at right angles.

5. THE POPPING-CREASE must be 4 feet from the wicket, and parallel to it; unlimited in length, but not shorter than the bowling-crease.

6. THE WICKETS must be pitched opposite to each other by the umpires, at the distance of 22 yards.

7. It shall not be lawful for either party, during a match, without the consent of the other, to alter the ground by rolling, watering, covering, mowing, or beating, except at the commencement of each innings, when the ground may be swept and rolled at the request of either party, such request to be made to one of the umpires within one minute after the conclusion of the former innings. This rule is not meant to prevent the striker from beating the ground with his bat near to the spot where he stands during the innings; nor to prevent the bowler filling up holes with sawdust, etc., when the ground is wet.

8. After rain the wickets may be changed with the consent of both parties.

9. THE BOWLER shall deliver the ball with one foot on the ground behind the bowling-crease and within the return-crease, and shall bowl four balls before he

change wickets, which he shall be permitted to do only once in the same innings.

10. The ball must be bowled. If thrown or jerked, the umpire shall call "No ball."

11. He may require the striker at the wicket from which he is bowling to stand on that side of it which he may direct.

12. If the bowler shall toss the ball over the striker's head, or bowl it so wide that in the opinion of the umpire it shall not be fairly within the reach of the batsman, he shall adjudge one run to the party receiving the innings, either with or without an appeal, which shall be put down to the score of "wide balls." Such ball shall not be reckoned as one of the four balls; but if the batsman shall by any means bring himself within reach of the ball, the run shall not be adjudged.

13. If the bowler deliver a "no ball" or a "wide ball" the striker shall be allowed as many runs as he can get, and he shall not be put out, except by running out. In the event of no run being obtained by any other means, then one run shall be added to the score of no balls, or wide balls, as the case may be. All runs obtained for wide balls to be scored for wide balls. The names of the bowlers who bowl wide balls and no balls in future to be placed on the score, to show the parties by whom either score is made. If the ball shall first touch any part of the striker's dress or person, except his hands, the umpire shall call "leg-bye."

14. At the beginning of each innings the umpire shall call "Play!" From that time to the end of each innings no trial ball shall be allowed to any bowler.

15. THE STRIKER IS OUT if either of the bails be bowled off, or if a stump be bowled out of the ground;

16. Or if the ball, from the stroke of the bat or hand, but not the wrist, be held before it touch the ground, although it be hugged to the body of the catcher;

17. Or if, in striking, or any other time while the ball shall be in play, both his feet shall be over the popping-crease and his wicket put down, except his bat be grounded within it;

18. Or if, in striking at the ball, he hit down his wicket;

19. Or if, under pretense of running or otherwise, either of the strikers prevent a ball from being caught, the striker of the ball is out;

20. Or if the ball be struck and he wilfully strike it again;

21. Or if, in running, the wicket be struck down by a throw, or by the hand or arm (with ball in hand), before his bat (in hand) or some part of his person be grounded over the popping-crease. But, if both the bails be off, a stump must be struck out of the ground;

22. Or if any part of the striker's dress knock down the wicket;

23. Or if the striker touch or take up the ball while in play, unless at the request of the opposite party;

24. Or if with any part of his person he stop the ball, which, in the opinion of the umpire at the bowler's wicket, shall have been pitched in a straight line from it to the striker's wicket, and would have hit.

25. If the players have crossed each other, he that runs for the wicket which is put down is out.

26. A ball being caught, no run shall be reckoned.

27. A striker being out, that run which he and his partner were attempting shall not be reckoned.

28. If a lost ball be called, the striker shall be allowed six runs; but if more than six shall have been called, then the striker shall have all that have been run.

29. After the ball shall have been finally settled in the wicket-keeper's or bowler's hands, it shall be considered dead; but when the bowler is about to deliver the ball, if the striker at his wicket go outside the popping-crease before such actual delivery, the said bowler may put him out, unless (with reference to Law 21) his bat in hand, or some part of his person, be within the popping-crease.

30. The striker shall not retire from his wicket, and return to it to complete his innings, after another has been in, without the consent of the opposite party.

31. No substitute shall in any case be allowed to stand out or run between wickets for another person without the consent of the opposite party; and in case any person shall be allowed to run for another, the striker shall be out if either he or his substitute be off the ground, in manner mentioned in Laws 17 and 21, while the ball is in play.

32. In all cases where a substitute shall be allowed, the consent of the opposite party shall also be obtained as to the person to act as substitute, and the place in the field which he shall take.

33. If any fieldsman stop the ball with his hat, the ball shall be considered dead, and the opposite party shall add five runs to their score; if any be run, they shall have five in all.

34. The ball having been hit, the striker may guard his wicket with his bat, or with any part of his body except his hands, that Law 23 may not be disobeyed.

35. The wicket-keeper shall not take the ball for the purpose of stumping until it shall have passed the wicket; he shall not move until the ball be out of the bowler's hand; he shall not by any noise incommode the striker; and if any part of his person be over or before the wicket, although the ball hit it, the striker shall not be out

36. The umpires are the sole judges of fair or unfair play, and all disputes shall be determined by them, each at his own wicket; but in case of a catch which the umpire at the wicket bowled from cannot see sufficiently to decide upon it, he may apply to the other umpire, whose decision shall be conclusive.

37. The umpires in all matches shall pitch fair wickets, and the parties shall toss up for choice of innings. The umpires shall change wickets after each party has had one innings.

38. They shall allow two minutes for each striker to come in, and ten minutes between each innings, when the umpire shall call "play." The party refusing to play shall lose the match.

39. They are not to order a striker out, unless appealed to by the adversaries;

40. But if one of the bowler's feet be not on the ground be-

hind the bowling-crease and within the return-crease when he shall deliver the ball, the umpire at his wicket, unasked, must call "no ball."

41. If either of the strikers run a short run, the umpire must call "one short."
42. No umpire shall be allowed to bet.
43. No umpire is to be changed during a match, unless with the consent of both parties, except in case of violation of Law 42; then either party may dismiss the transgressor.
44. After the delivery of four balls the umpire must call "over," but not until the ball shall be finally settled in wicket-keeper's hands: the ball shall then be considered dead. Nevertheless, if an idea be entertained that either of the strikers is out, a question may be put previously to, but not after, the delivery of the next ball.
45. The umpire must take especial care to call "no ball" instantly upon delivery, and "wide ball" as soon as it shall pass the striker.
46. The players who go in second shall follow their innings if they have obtained 80 runs less than their antagonists, except in all matches limited to only one day's play, when the number of runs shall be limited to 60 instead of 80.
47. When one of the strikers shall have been put out, the use of the bat shall not be allowed to any person until the next striker shall come in.

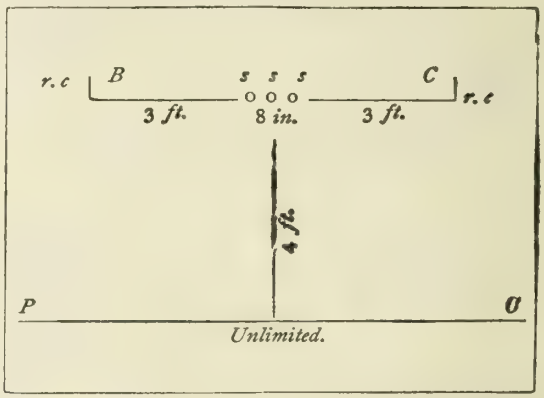
THE LAWS OF SINGLE WICKET.

1. When there shall be less than five players on a side, bounds shall be placed 22 yards each in a line from the off and leg stump.
2. The ball must be hit before the bounds, to entitle the striker to run, which run cannot be obtained unless he touch the bowling-stump or crease in a line with his bat, or some part of his person, or go beyond them, returning to the popping-crease, as at double wicket, according to Law 21.
3. When the striker shall hit the ball, one of his feet must be on the ground and behind the popping-crease; otherwise the umpire shall call "no hit."
4. When there shall be less than five players on a side, neither byes nor overthrows shall be allowed; nor shall the striker be caught out behind the wicket, nor stumped out.
5. The fieldsman must return the ball so that it shall cross the play between the wicket and the bowling-stump, or between the bowling-stump and the bounds; the striker may run till the ball be so returned.
6. After the striker shall have made one run, if he start again, he must touch the bowling-stump and turn before the ball cross the play, to entitle him to another.
7. The striker shall be entitled to three runs for lost ball, and the same number for ball stopped with bat, with reference to Laws 28 and 23 of double wicket.
8. When there shall be more than four players on a side, there shall be no bounds. All hits, byes and overthrows shall then be allowed.
9. The bowler is subject to the same laws as at double wicket.
10. Not more than one minute shall be allowed between each ball.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULES.

DOUBLE WICKET.

Rules 3, 4 and 5 —The accompanying diagram will explain, better than many words, the arrangement and method of marking the various creases, which are usually marked out on the turf with a mixture of chalk or whiting and water.



s s s, the Stumps (the three together forming the *Wicket*); *B. C.* the Bowling-crease; *r. c.* the Returning-crease; *P. C.* the Popping-crease.

It is well to practice always with the creases duly marked, and in strict observance of all rules connected with them, as the mind thus forms a habit of unconscious conformity to them, and the player is not embarrassed, as too many are when they come to play in an actual match, by the necessity of keeping a watch over his feet as well as over the ball. Many a good bat, especially amongst boys, allows himself to be cramped in his play in this very unsatisfactory manner.

The purposes of the several creases are as follows:

The BOWLING-CREASE marks the nearest spot to the striker from which the bowler may deliver the ball.

The RETURN-CREASE prevents the bowler from delivering the ball at an unreasonable distance laterally from the wicket; and the two together mark out within sufficiently exact limits the precise spot from which the striker may expect the ball.

The POPPING-CREASE, while giving the striker ample space to work in, puts a check upon any attempt to get unduly forward to meet the ball; it forms, too, a distinct and convenient mark by which to judge of a man's being on his ground, and of his having run the requisite distance between wickets. It is unlimited, to avoid the confusion between strikers and fieldsmen, which must inevitably be of constant recurrence were the strikers required to run directly from wicket to wicket.

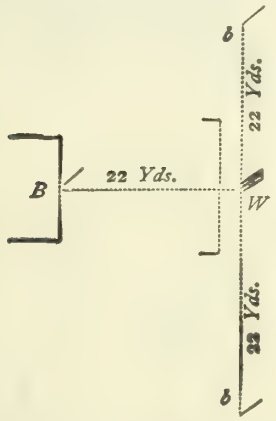
Rule 13.—"All runs obtained from wide balls to be scored to wide balls." This does not include hits, as, by the latter part of Rule 12, "if the batsman bring himself within reach of the ball, the wide does not count." Hits, therefore, made off wide balls score to the striker.

Rule 17.—The popping-crease itself, it must be remembered, does not form part of the ground; the bat or part of the body must, therefore, be *inside* it; *on* it is not sufficient to meet the requirements of the rule: if the bat or some portion of the body be not *on the ground inside* the crease when the wickets are put down, the player is out.

Rule 20.—The striker may block or knock the ball away from his wicket after he has played it, if that be necessary to keep it from the stumps. The rule only forbids striking it a second time with intent to make runs.

SINGLE WICKET.

The accompanying diagram shows the ground marked out for single wicket with less than five players on a side:



B, the Bowling-stump, Crease, &c.; *W*, the Wickets, with Popping-crease, as in double wicket; *b b*, the Boundaries.

Rule 2.—"Hit before the bounds" means that the ball, after leaving the bat, must first *touch the ground* in *front* of the line marked by the two bounds, which line, by the way, is, like the popping-crease, supposed to extend illimitably either way.

Single wicket is chiefly valuable in dearth of sufficient players to form an adequate field at double wicket. It is so inferior in interest to double wicket, that it is hardly ever played, unless when the latter is impracticable.

A good game at single wicket, though, where only a few players have met for practice, is far better, and infinitely more improving, than any amount of the desultory knocking about which is usual on such occasions. For a player deficient in driving and forward hitting of all kinds the practice it affords is invaluable, and to such a good course of single wicket is strongly recommended.

IMPLEMENTS.—A few words upon the choice of bats, balls, gloves, etc. Too much pains cannot be taken by a cricketer in thus providing his outfit. None but experienced hands *can* estimate the vital importance of attention to all such details: that the bat is the right weight and size, and properly balanced; that the gloves, shoes, pads, etc., are perfect in their fit and appointments; in fine, that the player stands at the wicket or in the field fully equipped for the fray, yet in nowise impeded or hindered by ill-fitting garments, clumsy shoes, or cumbersome pads.

First, then, for the bat. This is limited in Rule 2 both as to length and width; but the thickness and weight are left to the fancy and capacity of the player. In a general way, a tall man can use a heavier bat than a short one. About 2 pounds is a fair weight for a player of middle height and ordinary muscular development.

Although it is a great mistake to play with too heavy a bat—for nothing so cramps the style, and so entirely does away with that beautiful wrist-play which is the *ne plus ultra* of good batting, as attempting to play with a bat of a weight above one's powers—yet extreme lightness is still more to be deprecated: it is useless for hard hitting, and can therefore do little in the way of run-getting against a good field; "shooters," too, will be apt to force their way past its impotent defense.

The points most to be looked for in a bat are these: First, weight suited to the player. The young player should play with a heavier bat every year, until he attains to his full stature. Don't let him think it "manly" to play with a full-sized bat before he is thoroughly up to the weight and size; it is much more manly to make a good score.

Secondly, good thickness of wood at the drive and lower end of the bat, *i. e.*, at the last six inches or so.

Thirdly, balance. Badly balanced bats give a sensation as of a weight attached to them when they are wielded, while a well-balanced one plays easily in the hand. Experience alone can teach the right feel of a bat.

The outward appearance of a bat must not always be taken as a certain indication of its inherent merits: varnish and careful getting up may hide many a defect. There are many fancies, too, in favor of different *grains*: a good knot or two near the lower end is generally a good sign; but, after all, nothing but actual trial of each several "bit of willow" can decide its real merits or defects.

Last, but not least, the *handle* is a very important consideration. Cane handles, pure and simple, or in composition with ash or other materials, are the best: some prefer oval handles, some round. The handle should, at least, be as thick as the player can well grasp: a thick handle greatly adds to the driving power of the bat; it is also naturally stronger, and therefore more lasting. A good youth's bat costs about eight shillings.

It should be remembered that a good bat, like good wine, improves with keeping.

In purchasing balls, wickets, and other needful "plant," it will be found better economy to pay a little more in the beginning, and thus get a good article. With reasonable care, such first-class goods will last out whole generations of the more cheaply got-up articles, and prove more satisfactory throughout into the bargain.

In choosing wickets, attention must be paid to two points: first, that each stump be perfectly straight; and, secondly, that it be free from flaws or knots. The least weakness is sure to be found out sooner or later.

Great attention should be paid to the bails, that they are exactly of the right size, especially that they are not too long. The least projection beyond the groove in the stump may make all the difference between "out" and "not out"—between, perhaps, winning a match and losing it.

Stumps and bails, with ordinary care, ought to last a very long time. The chief thing to guard against is their lying about in the wet, or being put away damp: moisture is very apt to warp them.

So that the gloves and pads *fit*, the player may be left pretty much to his own discretion in selecting a pattern. Vulcanized India-rubber is the best for gloves.

Spiked or nailed shoes are a *necessity*. The player may please himself in the vexed question of spikes *v.* nails. Many players keep two pairs of shoes—with spikes for wet and slippery ground, with nails for dry ground.

It is hardly worth while for a boy in the rapid-growing stage to set up a regularly built pair of cricketing-shoes: an admirable substitute may be found, though, in the ordinary *canvas* shoes, as used for rackets, etc., price half-a-crown; a few nails will make them answer all the purposes of the more legitimate article.

Parents and guardians may be informed that a proper costume of flannel and shoes is actually better economy than condemning a boy to play in his ordinary clothes; and for this reason—flannels are made to suit the exigencies of the game: loose where they should be loose, and *vice versâ*, without regard to the exigencies of fashion; they are cheaper, and are, nevertheless, more lasting, than ordinary cloth clothes; they never get shabby, will wash when dirty, and will carry a darn or patch without detriment to their dignity; they are not injured by perspiration or wet; and, above all, they are great preservatives against colds and other ailments.

Shoes may put in much the same claim. Cricket is marvelously destructive to the ordinary walking-boot; is it not, then, better to substitute a cheaper and more durable article?

In choosing spikes, care should be taken to obtain good length and small diameter; a squat, clumsy spike is an awful nuisance. If nails be the choice, they should not be put much nearer than at intervals of an inch, otherwise they will be liable to clog.

If men play cricket, let that cricket be their very best; any little extra trouble at first will be more than repaid by the results. It is not given to every man to be a first-rate cricketer; but most men might play far better than they do, and many men, who now hardly deserve the name of players, might, with very little expenditure of trouble in their younger days, have been now men of mark in the cricketing world.

Be it remembered, then, that there is a *right way* to perform each function of cricket, and a *wrong way*, or perhaps I should rather have said, innumerable wrong ways.

Now, this *right way* will hardly come of itself: cricket, by the light of nature only, would be a prodigy indeed. The beginner must, therefore, first ascertain what this *right way* is, and thenceforth strive continually to practice and perfect himself in it, whether it be in batting, bowling, or fielding, until habit has become a second nature.

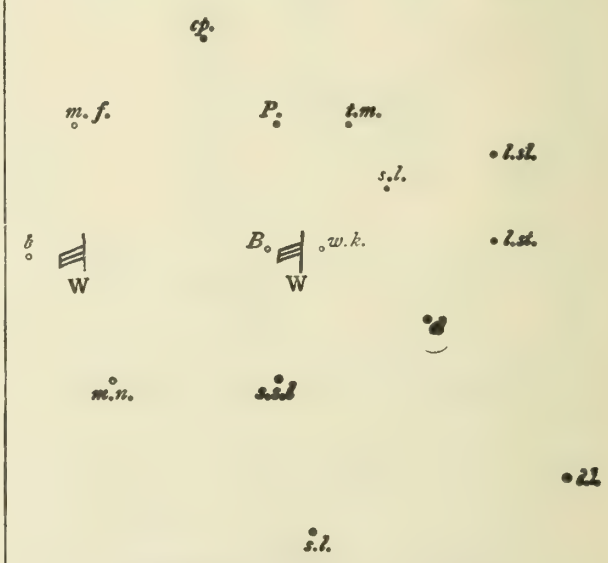
And not only must the learner cultivate *good* habits, he must diligently eschew all *bad* ones; for bad habits are wonderfully easy of acquirement, but, once acquired, can hardly ever be completely shaken off.

It is all very well to say, "I know the right way, and that is enough," and then, from sheer laziness or indifference, go the wrong; but when it comes to the point of practical experience, it will be found that the bad habit will have an uncomfortable knack of coming into play at critical moments, just when it is least desired.

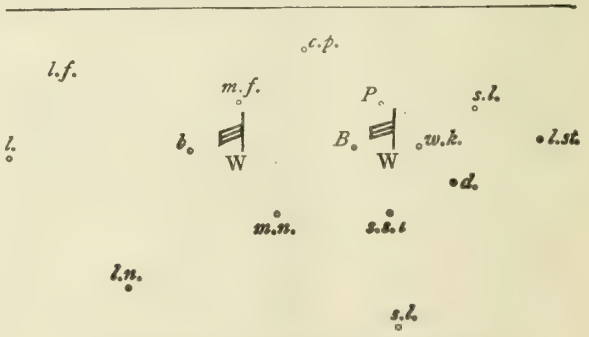
For cricket, it should be remembered, is a series of surprises. Give a man time to think, and he can decide between the right way and the wrong; but *time to think* is just the very thing a man does *not* get at cricket: instant, unhesitating action is his only chance.

If he has habituated himself to one only method of action, he *must*, he *can*, only act in accordance with it; but if there be several conflicting habits, who shall say which shall be the one that comes first to hand in an emergency?

Let the young cricketer, then—and the old one, too, for the matter of that—make this his rule and study, to make every ball he bowls, he bats, or he fields, one link more in the chain of good habits, one step farther on the road to success.



ARRANGEMENT OF THE FIELD FOR FAST BOWLING.



ARRANGEMENT OF THE FIELD FOR SLOW BOWLING.

W W., wickets; B., batsman; *b.*, bowler; *w.k.*, wicket-keeper; *l.st.*, long-stop; *s.l.*, slip; *l.sl.*, long-slip; *t.m.*, third man; *p.*, point; *c.p.* cover-point; *m.f.*, *m.n.*, mid-wicket, off and on; *l.*, long-field or cover bowler; *l.f.* & *l.n.*, long-field, off and on; *s.l.*, square leg; *s.s.l.*, short square leg; *l.l.*, long leg; *d.*, draw or short leg.

FOOTBALL.

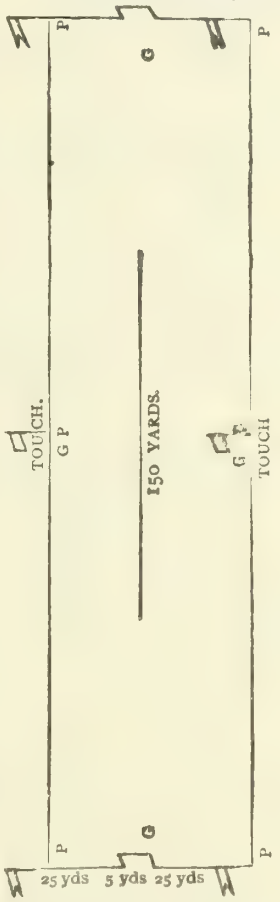
THEORY OF THE GAME.—Football, like cricket, requires two opposing sides. It is played with a hollow ball, some eight or ten inches in diameter, of India-rubber (in former times a bladder) blown full of air, and protected by a leather case.

The goals are placed at opposite ends of the field, each side defending its own, and trying to drive the ball through its opponents'.

It is a game only suitable for cold weather, as cricket is for hot, for the exertion is not only very severe while it lasts, but the intervals of rest in a well-contested game are few and far between.

RULES.

1. The length of the ground shall be not more than 150 yards, and the breadth 55 yards. The ground shall be marked out by posts, two at each end, parallel with the goal-posts, and 55 yards apart; and by one at each side of the ground, half-way between the side-posts.
2. The goal shall consist of two uprights 15 feet apart, with a cross-bar 8 feet from the ground.
3. The choice of goal and kick-off shall be determined by tossing.
4. In a match, when half the time agreed upon has elapsed, the sides shall change goals the next time the ball is out of play. In ordinary games the change shall be made after every goal.
5. The heads of sides shall have the sole management of the game.
6. The ball shall be put in play as follows:
   (*a*) At the commencement of the game, and after every goal, by a place-kick 25 yards in advance of the goal, by either side alternately, each party being arrayed on its own ground.
   (*b*) If the ball have been played behind the goal-line (1) by the opposite party, the side owning the goal shall have a place-kick from behind the goal-line at their discretion; (2) by the side owning the goal, whether by kicking or guiding, the opposite party shall have a place-kick from a spot 25 yards in front of the goal, at their discretion.
   (*c*) If the ball have been played across the side-lines, the player first touching it with the *hand* shall have a place-kick from the point at which the ball crosssd the line.
7. In all the above cases the side starting the ball shall be *out of play* until one of the opposite side has played it.
8. When a player has played the ball, any one of the same side who is nearer the opponents' goal-line on their ground is *out of play*, and may not touch the ball himself, or obstruct any other player, until the ball be first played by one of the opposite side, or he have crossed into his own ground.
9. No player shall carry the ball, hold it, throw it, pass it to another with his hands, or lift it from the ground with his hands, on any pretense whatever.
10. All charging is fair; but holding, pushing with the elbows or hands, tripping up, and hacking are forbidden.
11. No player may wear iron plates, projecting nails, or gutta percha on his boots or shoes.
12. A goal is gained when the ball is *kicked* from the front between the uprights and beneath the cross-bar, or in any way passed through from the front, by the side owning the goal.
13. In case of any distinct and willful violation of these rules of play by one of either side, the opposite side may claim a fresh kick-off.



DEFINITION OF TERMS.

A place-kick is a kick at the ball while at rest on the ground. The kicker may claim a free space of 3 yards in front of the ball.

Ground.—Each side claims as its own that portion of the ground which lies between its goal and the center.

Charging is bringing the body into collision with that of an opponent. The arms, and especially the elbows, must be kept well to the sides, not to violate Rule 10.

Hacking is kicking an adversary intentionally.

Tripping is throwing an adversary by placing the foot, leg, or any part of the body in the way of an adversary's legs, and thus causing him to fall or stumble.

ARCHERY.

THE BOW.

BOWS are of two kinds. The *self* bow consists either of one piece of wood, or of two dove-tailed together at the handle, in which latter case it is called a *grafted* bow; by far the best material for a self bow is yew, although a variety of other woods, such as lancewood, hickory, &c., are used. As it is but very rarely that we are able to obtain a piece of yew long enough for a bow of equal quality throughout, the grafted bow was invented, in order that the two limbs, being formed by splitting one piece of wood into two strips, may be of exactly the same nature.

The *backed* bow consists of two or more strips of wood glued together longitudinally and compressed so as to insure perfect union. The strips may be of the same or of different woods—for instance, of yew backed with yew, yew with hickory, lancewood, &c.; but of all backed bows the yew-backed yew is far the best. It has been a great subject of controversy whether the self or the backed bow be the best for shooting purposes; we most unhesitatingly decide in favor of the self, although many good authorities prefer the backed.

HOW TO CHOOSE IT.

In purchasing a bow, it is always better to go to a good maker; the inferior makers, although they may sell their goods a trifle cheaper, are still not to be depended upon, and as a good deal concerning a bow has to be taken on trust—*e. g.*, whether the wood is properly seasoned, horns firmly fastened, &c.—a maker who has a reputation to loose always proves the cheapest in the end. Having selected a maker and determined on the price you are willing to give, you will proceed to see that the bow tapers gradually from the handle to the horns; that the wood is of straight, even grain, running longitudinally and free from knots and pins, or that, if there are any pins, they are rendered innocuous by having the wood left raised around them. The bow should be quite straight, or even follow the string (bend in the direction it will take when strung) a little. Beware of a bow which bends away from the string: it will jar your arms out of their sockets, and should the string break, there will be an end of it. See that both limbs are of equal strength, in which case they will describe equal curves. The handle should not be quite in the middle of the bow, but the upper edge of it should be about an inch above the center, and above the handle a small piece of ivory or mother-of-pearl should be let in on the left side of the bow, in order to prevent the friction of the arrow wearing away the wood. See that there are no sharp edges to the nocks on the horns of the bow, for if they are not properly rounded off they will be continually cutting your string. Lastly, make sure that your bow is not beyond your strength—in other words, that you are not overbowed. It is a very common thing for persons to choose very strong bows under the idea that it gives them the appearance of being perfect Samsons; but their ungainly struggles to bend their weapon, and the utterly futile results of their endeavors, are, we think, anything but dignified. The weight of the bow should be such that it can be bent without straining, and held steadily during the time of taking aim. The strength of bows is calculated by their *weight*, which is stamped in pounds upon them, and which denotes the power which it takes to bend the bow until the center of the string is a certain distance (twenty-eight inches for a gentleman's, twenty-five inches for a lady's bow) from the handle. It is ascertained by suspending the bow by the handle from a steelyard whilst the string is drawn the required distance. Gentlemen's bows generally range from 48 lbs. to 56 lbs., and ladies' from 20 lbs. to 32 lbs.

HOW TO PRESERVE IT.

Many things will spoil a bow which a little care and attention would prevent. Amongst the most fatal enemies to the bow are chrysals, which, unless noticed in time, will surely end in a fracture. A chrysal should at once be tightly lapped with fine string saturated with glue; this, if neatly done and then varnished, will interfere but little with the appearance of the bow. Care should be taken not to scratch or bruise the bow. When shooting in damp weather, the bow, especially if a backed one, should be kept well wiped, and perfectly dried with a waxed cloth before putting away. A backed bow is always the better for a little lapping round each end just by the horn, which prevents the bow from breaking if by any chance the glue is softened by damp. A bow should always be kept as dry as possible; when going to shoot at a distance, a waterproof cover is advisable. Do not unstring the bow too often while shooting; once in every six double ends is quite enough, unless there are many shooters.

THE ARROW.

Arrows are distinguished by weight in the same manner as bows, only in the former it is calculated as weighed against silver money, and arrows are known as of so many shillings' weight, &c. The lengths recommended by the best authorities are as follows:

		Length.
For ladies		25 inches
For Gentlemen	Bows of 50 lbs. and upwards, and 6 feet long,	28 '
	Bows under 50 lbs. and not exceeding 5 ft. 10 in. long,	28 '

There are two kinds of arrows—*self*, made of one piece of wood, and *footed*, having a piece of hard wood at the pile end. The latter are the best for several reasons, one being that they are not so likely to break if they strike anything hard. The best material for arrows is red deal footed with lancewood.

HOW TO CHOOSE IT.

The first thing to ascertain is whether it is quite straight, which is done by bringing the tips of the thumb and two first fingers of the left hand together and laying the arrow thereon, while it is turned round by the right hand. If it goes smoothly it is straight; but if it jerks at all it is crooked. Then make sure that it is stiff enough to stand the force of the bow without bending, as, if too weak, it will never fly straight. The pile or point should be what is called the square-shouldered pile; some prefer the sharp pile, but the other answers best for all purposes. The nock should be full and the notch pretty deep; a piece of horn should be let in at the notch to prevent the string splitting the arrow. The feathers should be full sized, evenly and well cut, and inserted at equal distances from each other.

THE BOW-STRING.

The string should be not too thin, or it will not last long; in the selection of it, it is best to be guided by the size of the notch of your arrows. At one end of it a strong loop should be worked to go over the upper horn, the other end should be left free in order to be fixed on to the lower horn. When the lower end is fastened, the distance between it and the loop at the other end should be such, that when the loop is in its place (*i.e.*, the bow strung) the string is, in a gentleman's bow, six inches, in a lady's five inches, from the center of the bow. The string should be lapped for an inch above the nocking point, and five inches below it, with waxed thread and this again with floss silk—to such a thickness that it completely fills the notch of the arrow, but without being too tight, or it may split it. Never trust a worn string; take it off and put on a new one—should it break, it will most probably snap your bow.

THE BRACER.

This is a guard for the left arm, to prevent its being abraded by the string when loosed; it also has another object, viz., to confine the sleeve and keep it out of the way. It consists of an oblong piece of smooth leather, and is fastened to the arm by straps.

The shooting-glove is used to protect the fingers of the right hand from abrasion by the string when loosing, and consists of three finger-guards, attached by strips of leather, passing down the back of the hand to a strap fastening round the wrist.

THE QUIVER.

The quiver is a tin case somewhat in the shape of the quiver usually represented as forming part of the equipment of Robin Hood and his band; it is not now, however, used as part of the personal equipment of the archer, but is employed simply for the purpose of protecting the spare arrows.

TARGETS.

A target is made of straw bound with string into an even rope, which is twisted upon itself until it forms a flat disc, and then covered on one side with canvas painted in five concentric rings, viz. gold or center, red, blue or inner white, black, and white. These rings should be all of exactly the same width, the target itself being four feet in diameter. In scoring, the following value is given to the rings:

Gold	9
Red	7
Blue	5
Black	3
White	1

When an arrow strikes on the edge of two rings, the higher is counted, unless it is otherwise agreed upon. It is necessary to have two targets, one at each extremity of the distance fixed upon—as it is not usual to shoot more than *three* arrows at each "end," as it is called—walking over between each three to reclaim your arrows, and then shooting them back at the target you have just left. By this means a different set of muscles are called into play, those used in shooting are relaxed, and in addition, a great deal is added to the exercise which renders archery so healthy a pastime; for example, in shooting the national round the archer walks 3,920 yards, or nearly two miles and a quarter, between the ends. The stands for the targets are usually made of iron or wood, and somewhat resemble in shape an artist's easel. The legs should be padded or wrapped round with straw, otherwise arrows striking them will be apt to break.

STRINGING THE BOW.—In stringing the bow it is held by the handle in the right hand (flat part towards the body) with the lower horn resting on the ground against the hollow of the right foot. The left hand is then placed upon the upper part of the bow in such a manner that the base of the thumb rests upon the flat side of it, the thumb pointing upwards. The bow is then bent by the combined action of the two hands, the right pulling, the left pressing it; at the same time the loop of the string is slipped into its place by the left thumb and forefinger.

POSITION.—It is difficult to determine exactly what is the *best* position for the archer. Every one naturally subsides into that which is most easy to him; still there are certain fundamental rules, which are given in almost every book on archery, by attention to which in the first place the shooter ultimately falls into the best position for himself. The left foot should point rather to the right of the mark, the right foot being nearly at right angles to it, the heels six or eight inches apart, in a straight line from target to target, both feet flat on the ground, knees straight, body erect but not too stiff, face turned towards the mark. The body must be carried as easily as possible on the hips, not too stiffly upright nor yet bending forward. Nothing looks worse than a stiff, constrained attitude, except a loose, slouching one.

NOCKING.—Having mastered the position, the next thing to be looked to is the *nocking*. The bow being held by the handle in the left hand, let the arrow be placed with the right (*over* the string, not *under*) on that part of the bow upon which it is to lie; the thumb of the left hand, being then gently placed over it, will serve to hold it perfectly under command, and the forefinger and thumb of the right hand can then take hold of the nock end of the arrow and manipulate it with the most perfect ease in any manner that may be required.

When the arrow is nocked it should be at right angles with the string. Some archers are accustomed to try to alter the range of the arrow by heightening or lowering the nocking point, but this is a great mistake. Care must be taken that the whipped portion of the string exactly fits the notch of the arrow. If too large or too small, it will probably split it.

DRAWING.—Having nocked the arrow according to the foregoing direction, the next thing to proceed with is the drawing, which is managed as follows: Extend the left arm downwards until it is perfectly straight, the hand grasping the handle of the bow, the arrow being held by the nocking end by the two first fingers of the right hand passed over the string and on each side of the arrow, care being taken not to pass the fingers too far over the string, or the sharpness of the loose will be interfered with. This done, the left arm should be smoothly raised, *still extended*, until at right angles, or nearly so, with the body, the string being drawn at the same time with the right hand until the arrow is drawn about three-fourths of its length, when the right wrist and elbow should be at about the level of the shoulder. Having got it thus far a slight pause may be made before drawing the arrow to its full length (although we think it better to make it all one motion), which done, the archer must take his aim before loosing. By drawing the arrow below the level of the eye, the archer is enabled to look along it as he would along the barrel of a rifle. As regards the direction, the archer will find that it is but seldom he will be able to aim directly at the gold. He will almost always have to aim to one side or the other, to make allowance for wind, etc. This cannot be taught. The archer will soon learn by experience whereabouts on the target his proper point of sight lies, and will aim accordingly. He will also learn the degree of elevation required by his bow at the various distances, which elevation he will always give by raising or lowering his *left* hand, and in no other way if he values success.

Remember! the arrow must always be drawn to exactly the same spot. If possible, let the spot where the pile and stele join just reach the bow.

LOOSING.—Having drawn the arrow to its full extent, the next thing is to loose it properly, and this, although apparently a very simple thing, is by no means so easy as it looks. The great object to be attained in loosing is to remove the obstruction of the fingers from the string suddenly, and yet in such a manner that no jerk is given to the string (which would be fatal to the aim), and that the fingers do not *follow* the string, which would weaken the force of the shot. The string should lie across the fingers at an equal distance from the tip of each—not too near the joint nor too near the tip; about midway between the tip and joint of the first finger, and on the others in proportion, will be found about the most convenient position for a good loose. The fingers must all be withdrawn at once, for should one be an instant behind the others, it would be fatal to the aim.

Skating and Sliding.

BEGIN by putting out of your mind the notion of walking. Skaters place their feet *flat* on the ice so as to slide along it, but do not rise on the toe, as if they were walking.

The best way to learn to advance on skates is as follows: stand as if in the "third position" in dancing, but with the heel of the right foot a few inches away from the hollow of the left. Then, with the *edge* of the left foot press against the ice, so as to push the right forward. Bring up the left foot parallel with the right, and slide along until the impetus is exhausted. Do this with both feet alternately for some little time, and you will then begin to "feel your skates," as the saying is.

After you have practiced these movements for some time, gradually increasing the length of each stroke, you will begin to find yourself skating on the "inside edge," a movement to which nine out of ten skaters restrict themselves. It is, however, an ungraceful plan, and is of little use except in racing, and, moreover, tires the ankle sooner than the "outside edge" skating, which is the only mode worth practicing.

The mode of learning this is very simple. Put a stone or stick on the ice, to act as a center for the circle you are about to describe.

Now stand about three or four yards from the stone, with your right side towards it, and your head looking over your right shoulder at the stone. Press the outside edge of your right skate as firmly as you can into the ice, and with your left skate propel yourself round the stone, leaning as much inwards as you can.

After a short time you will be able to lift the left foot off the ice for a short time, and as soon as you can do this, try how long you can keep the left foot in the air. Practice these movements with both feet alternately until you feel that you can confidently trust yourself to the outside edge.

As soon as you are firm on the edge, try to describe a complete circle, taking care to keep the right knee quite straight and the left foot the least particle in advance of the right. When you can get completely round on either foot, combine the two circles, and you have the 8, which, with the 3, is at the bottom of all figure-skating.

Now for the 3. Start *forwards*, as before, on the outside edge of the right foot, but leave the left foot well *behind* the right, the toe slightly behind the heel. Do not change the position of your feet, and you will find that when you have rather more than half completed your circle, you will spin round on the right foot and make half another circle *backwards*.

The books on skating say that, in order to turn round, the skater ought to rise on his toe a little. I consider this advice as totally wrong. True, the rising on the toe does bring the

body round, but it gives an appearance of effort, which a good skater never shows. If you will only keep the off foot well behind the other, you *must* come round at the proper spot, and without effort of any kind.

In fact, in all outside edge skating you steer yourself by the foot which is off the ice, and on no consideration ought any of the work to be done by the foot which is on the ice.

When you can cut the figure 3 equally well with either foot, combine them, passing from one foot to the other without jerking yourself. Practice this until you do it without any effort, the mere swing of the body at the time supplying just enough impetus to carry you round.

The next thing to be done is to get on the outside edge *backwards*. This feat, difficult as it looks, and indeed *is* at the first attempt, in reality is easy enough. It all depends on the position of the feet. If you have kept your feet precisely in the attitude which has been described, the outside edge backwards is a necessary corollary of the figure 3.

After you have turned on your right foot and got partly round the lower half of the 3, simply put your left foot on the ice and lift your right foot. Don't be afraid of it. Press the outer edge of the left foot well into the ice, and you *must* complete the circle. Provided that you do not alter the position of your head, body, or limbs, it is the easiest thing in the world. Only dare to do it, and it will be done.

When you have learned to shift in this way from one foot to the other with ease, you will soon attain to the summit of a skating ambition, the quadrille.

We will end with a few cautions.

Keep the knee of the acting leg perfectly rigid: a knee ever so slightly bent ruins the effect of the best skating.

Never carry a stick.

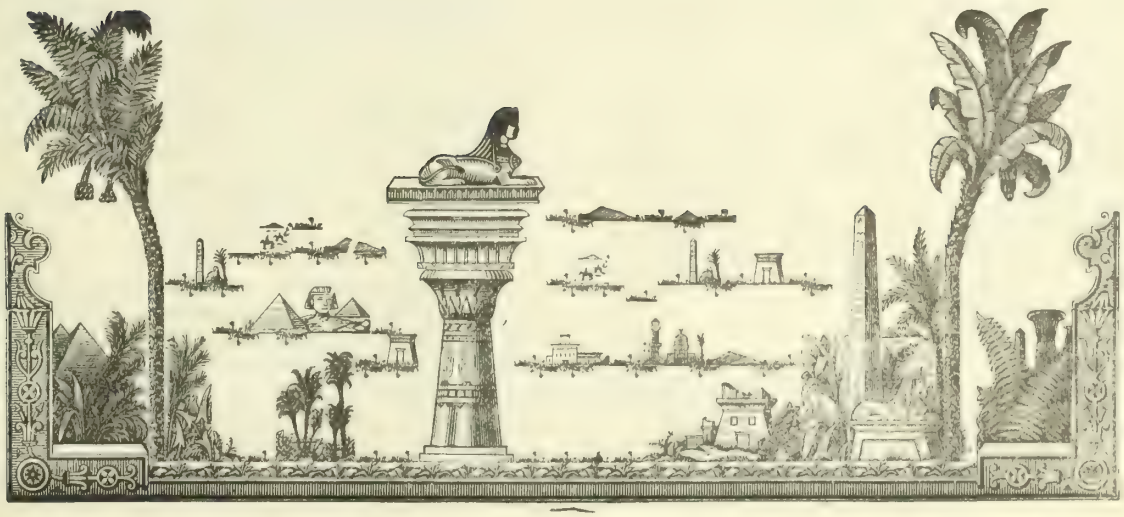
Never raise, bend, or fold your arms; but let them hang easily by your side, and keep your hands out of your pockets.

Keep the toe of the off foot within an inch of the ice, and the heel rather up.

SLIDING.

The only remark that need be made about sliding is that the feet should always be kept close together and parallel with the line of the slide. The sideways sliding adopted by many boys is altogether wrong, and is sure to lead to a nasty fall some time or other.

Accustom yourself to put your weight on each foot alternately, so as to be able to lift the other off the slide, and with the off foot give a double stamp on the ice. This is called the "postman's knock." Keep the arms close to the body, and, as in skating, if you find yourself likely to fall, slip down and roll aside, so as to be out of the way of those who are following you.





Consequences.

This is a capital indoor table game, especially when there are some ten or a dozen players to keep the game alive.

It is founded upon the absurd incongruities that result when a number of people combine together to make one connected sentence, each taking his own part irrespective of each and all of the others.

Just as in the preceding game a connected drawing was made by uniting three several parts, each drawn in ignorance of the other two, so in this the several component parts of a sentence are written down by a number of players separately and without collusion, and then joined together in one.

We will suppose eleven players are sitting round the table, severally provided with a pencil and a strip of paper. Each writes on the top of his paper one or more adjectives attributable to a man, folds his paper down over the writing, and passes it to his left-hand neighbor, receiving one in return from him on his right; and proceeding in the same order he writes in succession,

Adjectives suitable to a man,
A man's name,
Adjectives suitable to a woman,
A woman's name,
The name of a place,
Some productions of ditto,
A date,
A short sentence suited to a man,
A woman's reply,
The consequenees, and
What the world said.

As an example we will suppose the following to have been written down on one of the papers:

The irascible and enthusiastic—Paul Pry—The pious and charitable—The Queen of the Cannibal Islands—Coney Island—Bloaters and ginger beer—Christmas Day, B.C. 450—Have you seen Jumbo?—Ask mamma—They both perished miserably—It always knew how it would be.

When all have been filled up, the president takes the papers and reads them out; the one instanced above reading thus:

The irascible and enthusiastic Paul Pry *met* the pious and charitable Queen of the Cannibal Islands *at* Coney Island, *famous for its* bloaters and ginger beer, *on* Christmas Day, B.C. 450. *He asked her in tender strains*, "Have you seen Jumbo?" *To which she replied, with a modest blush*, "Ask mamma." *As a natural consequence* they both perished miserably; *and the world said* it always knew how it would be.



This is also a very amusing game. One of the players writes a letter, which of course he does not show, leaving a blank for every adjective. He then asks each player in turn round the table for an adjective, filling up the blank spaces with the adjectives as he receives them.

The following short letter will explain the game better than a long description:

MY *detestable* FRIEND,

In answer to your *amiable* letter, I am *silly* to inform you that the *dirty* and *degraded* Miss Jones sends you her most *fallacious* thanks for your kindness, and bids me tell you she will always think of you as the *vainest* and most *adorable* friend she ever had. As for that *sagacious* fellow, Smith, he is such a *delightful* ass, such a *filthy* and *eminent* muff, you need not fear he will prove a very *complicated* rival.

Believe me, my *foolish* fellow,

Yours, etc.



This is a game only for those who have some facility in rhyming and versifying; with half dozen such it will always afford unlimited amusement. It is played as follows:

The players sit round the table, each with a pencil and two slips of paper; on one he writes a question—any question that occurs to him, the quainter the better—and on the other, a noun.

These slips are put into two separate baskets or hats, and shaken up well, so as to be thoroughly mixed. The hats or baskets are then passed round, and each player draws two slips at random, one from either basket, so that he has one slip with a question and one with a noun.

The players thus furnished now proceed to write on a third slip each a practical answer to the question before him. The answer must consist of at least four lines, and must introduce the afore-mentioned noun.

For instance, supposing a player to have drawn the question, *Who killed Cock Robin?* and the noun *Jaw*, he might answer it somewhat as follows;

"I, said the Sparrow,
With my bow and arrow,
If you'd known him too
You'd have wished him at Harrow;
With his cheek, and his jaw,
And his dandy red vest,
He became such a bore.
Such a regular pest!
'Twas really no joke;
Such troublesome folk
Must not be surprised if they're promptly suppressed."

Or, as a more concise example, question asked, *Do you bruise your oats?* Noun, *Cheese*. Answer,

As I don't keep a steed,
For oats I've no need;
For myself, when my own private taste I would please,
I prefer wheaten bread to oat-cake with my cheese.

Here is another example of veritable crambo rhymes. The question was, "Can you pronounce Llyndgynbwlch?" and the noun "Oil." Answer as follows:

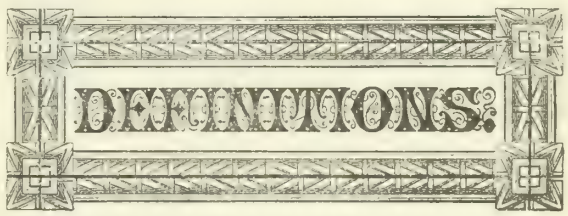
"Pronouncing Llyndgynbwlch
My glottis will spoil,
Unless lubricated
With cocoa-nut oil."

There happened to be cocoa-nut cakes on the table.

These will be amply sufficient as guides to the method of playing the game. They are not offered as models of poetry or diction, but as just the sort of things anybody might write on the spur of the moment, and therefore better suited for our purpose than any more finished and elaborate productions.

Of course this game *can* only be played by those who will take an interest in it, and who possess some little facility of versification. A player who, after half an hour or so spent in puzzling his brain and beating about for rhymes and sense, cannot succeed in turning out a few lines of doggerel, had better, for his own sake and that of others, turn his attention to other and less intellectual amusements.

But we would not alarm any timid players—we have no wish to seem to require any great poetical gifts in the player, though, of course, the more witty and brilliant they are, the more delightful and interesting the game: the merest doggerel is quite sufficient for all purposes, and the facility of stringing verses together will be found to increase rapidly with every days' practice. None but a veritable dunce need despair of taking at least a creditable part in this very amusing game.



The theory of this game is very simple, but the opening it gives for wit and satire is simply unbounded, and for pure intellectuality it stands unrivaled amongst evening games.

The players sit round a table each with a pencil and piece of paper; a noun is then selected at random from a list, or in any convenient way, and each is then bound to furnish an original definition. This done, another is given out and similarly defined.

When a convenient number have been thus disposed of, the papers are handed up to the president, who is chosen for the occasion, and the several definitions read aloud.

Some very brilliant impromptus are sometimes flung off in this manner; and we would strongly advise, where the game is much played, that a book should be kept for the enshrinement of the special flowers of wit.

We offer a few here as examples, not so much for imitation, but as illustrations of the *modus operandi*, or perhaps we might rather say, *ludendi*.

NOUN—MIRROR.

DEFINITIONS.

(*a*) The rarest gift the fays can gie us—
We see oursels as ithers see us.

(*b*) The vain man's most intimate friend; the wise man's acquaintance.

(*c*) The type of perfect unselfishness, giving away all that it receives and retaining nothing for itself.

(*d*) The hermit of modern life: it spends all its time reflecting on the vanities of the world.

NOUN—PROSPERITY.

DEFINITIONS.

(*a*) The reward of exertion.

(*b*) Man's greatest temptation.

(*c*) The world's touchstone of merit.

(*d*) What each man most thinks he has a right to expect for himself and is least inclined to desire for his neighbor.

(*e*) The pass-key that unlocks the gates of society.

(*f*) A prize in the lottery of fate.

NOUN—HUMANITY.

DEFINITIONS.

(*a*) The best abused virtue in the calendar.
(*b*) The highest triumph of civilization.
(*c*) The basis of Christian charity.
(*d*) The most God-like of virtues.
(*e*) A common cloak for cupidity.
(*f*) The begging impostor's Tom Tiddler's ground.
(*g*) The weakness of the many, the virtue of the few.

HOW DO YOU LIKE IT?

HOW DO YOU LIKE IT, WHEN DO YOU LIKE IT, AND WHERE DO YOU LIKE IT?—This is also, like "Proverbs," a guessing game. One player, as before, goes out of the room while the others fix upon a word. He then returns, and puts to them severally in turn the question, "How do you like it?" and then, having completed the circle, "When do you like it?" and thirdly, in like manner, "Where do you like it?" To each of which questions the other players are bound to return a satisfactory reply.

At the end of these questions, or at any time in the game, the questioner may make a guess at the word, being allowed three guesses in all, as before in "Proverbs." If he succeed in guessing rightly, he points out the player from whose answer he got the right clue, who therefore pays a forfeit and takes his place, and the game goes on as before. If he do not succeed in guessing rightly, he himself pays a forfeit and goes out again.

The great secret of the game is to select words that, though pronounced alike (spelling does not matter), have two or more meanings.

For instance, Z goes out, and the word "bow" is chosen. He asks of each, "How do you like it?" A answers "In a good temper" (*beau*); B, "With long ends" (a bow tied in a ribbon); C, "Very strong" (an archer's bow); and so on, ringing the changes upon three different sorts of bow.

In the next round the players are not bound to adhere to the same meaning they selected before, but may take any meaning they think most likely to puzzle the questioner.

Thus, to the question "When do you like it?" the answers may quite legitimately be as follows: A, "When I am dressing; B, "When I want exercise;" C, "When I am going to a party." And to the last question, "Where do you like it?" A answers, "Under my chin;" B, "At my feet;" C, "Outside on the lawn."

If there be only three to be questioned, this would prove hard enough to find out, though "Under the chin" might perhaps give a clue. Z's chance lies in the number of answers that have to be given to the same question, and in the short time each has to prepare a satisfactory answer—one that shall satisfy all conditions and yet give no clue to the word.

The whole fun in this game, as in "Proverbs," depends entirely upon the wit and spirit of the players. To be seen at its very best it should be played by a party of really clever grown-up people. The contest of wit is then, as Mr. Cyrus Bantam would say, "to say the least of it, re-markable."

Below will be found a few words, taken almost at random, suitable for this game:

Air—Heir	Bowl	Mail—Male
Ant—Aunt	Cask—Casque	Main—Mane
Bow—Bough	Cell—Sell	Pear—Pair
Bow—Beau	Chord—Cord	Fair—Fare
Flour—Flower	Chest	Sail—Sale
Bale—Bail	Club	Rain—Rein
Band	Corn	Vale—Veil
Aisle—Isle	Drop	Tale—Tail
Bar	Gum	Note
Bill	Kite	Poll
Ball	Dram—Drachm	Roll
Buoy—Boy	Draft—Draught	Stole
Balm—Barm	Knight—Night	Box
Arms—Alms	Hair—Hare	Game, etc.

WHAT IS MY THOUGHT LIKE?

This game is somewhat like the last, only that the questioner does not leave the room, and the onus of the game lies on the questioned, not on the questioner.

The players being seated in a semicircle round the questioner, he thinks of something or a person—it matters not what—and demands of each player, "What is my thought like?" The answers, of course, being given without any clue to the word thought of, are of the most incongruous nature.

This, however, is only the commencement of the fun. Having taken and noted each player's simile, the questioner now reveals the word he had thought of, and demands of each a verification of his simile under penalty of a forfeit.

As the answer must be given promptly, without time to arrange an elaborate defense, much quickness of wit and readiness of resource is required to avoid the forfeit for failure.

If the whole party succeed in justifying their similes, the questioner pays a forfeit, and a new questioner is appointed.

The decision as to an answer being satisfactory or not lies in disputed cases with the whole party of players.

An illustration of the working of the game may be, perhaps, not out of place.

We will suppose that Z, the questioner, has thought of a *baby*, and has asked the question, "What is my thought like?" all round, and received the following answers:

A, "A lump of chalk;" B, "Alexander the Great;" C, "The Great Eastern;" D, "A gooseberry;" E, "A fishing rod;" F, "A carpet bag;" and so on.

Z now tells them he thought of a *baby*, and calls upon them each severally to justify his simile.

A, "It is like a lump of chalk because it is white." (Allowed.)

B, "It is like Alexander because it cries for what it can't get." (Allowed.)

C, "It is like the Great Eastern because it costs a great deal of money before it makes any returns." (Disputed as rather too fanciful, but finally allowed.)

D, "It is like a gooseberry because it is soft and red." (Not allowed. It had previously been likened to chalk as being white; red, therefore, cannot stand, and softness is not a sufficiently characteristic. Forfeit.)

E, "It is like a fishing-rod because it has many joints." (Allowed by general acclaim.)

F, "It is like a carpet bag because it has most elastic capacities of stowage." (Allowed after some discussion.)

Of course, it is easy enough in most cases to find some sort of justification of almost any simile if time be allowed, though even then one sometimes comes across one that would puzzle the most ingenious; but in the actual game the explanation must be found on the spur of the moment, and herein consists half the fun.

This game, like all others of its kind, is entertaining exactly in proportion to the wit and capacities of the players. Even the most witty and most learned may join in it without derogating from their dignity, and with a certainty of deriving from it a fund of endless and highly intellectual amusement.

Proverbs.

This is a very good mental exercise for all, and is capital fun even for adults; indeed, the better educated and the more clever the players are the more fun is there to be got out of the game, as it gives ample occasion for the exercise of wit of the highest quality.

One player goes out of the room, and the rest, being seated in a circle, fix upon a proverb, which should not be a very long one. The first player being now recalled, he begins at player number one in the circle and asks any question he likes: the answer must contain the first word of the proverb. He then tries the next, whose answer must contain the second word, and so on.

He is allowed to go completely round the circle if it be a large one, or twice if it be a small one, and then must either guess the proverb or go out again and try a new one. If he guess rightly, he has to declare the answer that gave him the clue, and the player who gave it has to go in his stead.

In answering the questions much ingenuity may be exercised, and much amusement created in concealing the key-words of a proverb. For instance, in "Birds of a feather flock together" there are three dangerous words—birds, feather, and flock—all difficult to get into an ordinary sentence, and it requires much dexterity to keep them from being too prominent. Let us take this proverb as an example. A goes out, and "Birds of a feather flock together" is agreed upon. A asks of B, "Have you been out to-day?" B, "No;" but I sat at the window for a long time after sunset listening to the *birds* and watching the rabbits on the lawn; you can't think what a lot there were." A is puzzled, he has so many words to pick from, and the word, which when expected seems so prominent, falls unnoticed upon his ear. He asks C, "And what have you been doing with yourself this evening?" C, "Oh, I have been sitting with B, looking out *of* window too." Next comes D, who can have but little trouble in bringing in his word *a*, only let his answer be not too short. Then E has to bring in the word *feather*. A asks him, "What did you have for dinner to-day?" F, "Oh, roast beef, turkey, and plum pudding; but the turkey was so badly plucked, it tasted of singed *feathers*, and we couldn't eat it." This, repeated rapidly, may deceive the questioner, who goes on to E: "I saw you with a fishing-rod to-day; what did you catch?" F—who is by no means required to adhere to absolute facts, and may draw upon his imagination to any extent—replies, "Well, to tell you the truth, I did not catch any; for there was a *flock* of sheep having their wool washed ready for shearing." F brings in the *wool* to lead A off to the proverb "Great cry and little wool," as almost his only chance of concealing the real word *flock*. A then demands of G, "Do you like walking?" G, "I do if I have a companion. When Charlie and I go out *together* we always have lots of fun; but Harry is such a duffer, it's awfully slow walking with him."

If A is at all quick, he ought to have heard quite sufficient to know the proverb; he may, however, be puzzled by the complicated sentences; but after the second round at least, when the catch-words have been repeated, he must be slow indeed if he does not discover it.

One of the party should be appointed umpire, to decide whether any answer is a fair one, and no one else should be allowed to interfere in any way; nothing is so likely to give a clue to the questioner as a dispute whether a word has been fairly introduced or not. In cases of doubt the umpire may call for a fresh question and answer. There is no reason why the umpire, who should be one of the oldest players for authority's sake, should not join in the game. He is appointed almost solely to prevent confusion, and his being a player or non-player can have no influence on his decisions.

The answers should be made with decision, and as rapidly as is consistent with distinctness—a quality upon which the umpire should insist; and the player should especially avoid giving short answers when he has a simple word, such as "of," "the," etc., and thus give the questioner the clue to the answer in which lie the catch-words, and thus aid him materially in his task. Of course, great pains must be taken not to lay any stress upon the word that has to be introduced, and not to make the answers unfairly long.

Simultaneous Proverbs.—A very good modification of the above. No questions are asked; but the players, one for each word of the proverb, stand or sit in a semicircle, and the

player who has to discover the proverb stands in front of them. One of them, who is chosen leader, now gives the time, "One, two, three;" at the word "three" they all call out simultaneously each his own word. This they may be required to repeat once or twice, according to previous arrangement, and then the guess must be made under the same conditions as above.

A long proverb should be chosen for this, if there be enough players; the greater the number of voices, of course, the more difficult it is to discover the proverb.



This is a capital game, and, if well managed, will defy all detection. To do it well, however, requires some practice.

Two persons assume respectively the *rôles* of Professor of Mesmerism and Clairvoyant. The professor must have a ready wit and a good store of language, a plentiful vocabulary at his finger ends: whilst the clairvoyant must be quick of observation and retentive of memory.

A semicircle is formed by the spectators, and the clairvoyant is seated blindfold with his back to them; and the professor, after going through the usual ceremony of mesmerizing him, leaves him and crosses to the spectators, asking them for any objects they may have about them for the clairvoyant to name and describe.

If they are both well up to their work, the clairvoyant will appear to those who are not initiated into the secret to be able to see without his eyes, to their intense astonishment and admiration.

The author once thus played clairvoyant to a friend's professor at a large charade party, and deluded the whole company into a belief in the reality of the exhibition.

Robert Houdin, the great French conjurer, and his little boy made this clairvoyance one of the leading features of his entertainment, and brought the art to a wonderful pitch of perfection.

It would be impossible in the contracted space of one of these short notices to give full instructions how to produce this clever illusion; a mere outline of the method of procedure is all that can be attempted. This, however, will be amply sufficient for a boy of any intelligence to grasp the idea of the leading principles: the mere details he will soon learn to work out for himself. If he should desire any further particulars, he will find much interesting information in the "Memoirs" of Robert Houdin, which may now be procured at almost any library.

The method of procedure is as follows: The clairvoyant makes it his business to observe narrowly—unostentatiously, of course—and to catalogue in his mind the persons present, any little peculiarities in their dress, ornaments, etc., the general arrangement of the room, and any little knickknackeries lying about. Practice only will enable him to do this to any considerable extent; but if he have any talent for such mental exercise, and without it he will never make a clever clairvoyant, practice will soon enable him to observe almost at a glance and retain in his memory almost all the leading features of all around him, animate and inanimate.

Robert Houdin trained his son and himself by walking rapidly past various shops in the streets of Paris, and then writing down on paper, after passing each shop, all the articles they could remember seeing in their transitory glimpse through the window: at first half a dozen or so was all they could manage, but they rapidly rose by practice to twenty or thirty, until the young Houdin, who quite outstripped his father, would tell almost the whole contents of a large window.

Of course, such a wonderful pitch of perfection is scarcely attainable by an ordinary boy, and would not be worth his while if it were; nor, indeed, is it, or anything like it, necessary; but the instance may serve as an indication of the right method of procedure, to be worked out by each boy according to his individual bent and opportunities.

It should be understood that all this preparation and practice is not absolutely necessary before beginning to exhibit the trick. A very few rehearsals will suffice for a very respectable performance; only if anything like perfection be aimed at, some extra trouble must be taken to attain it. Of course, every exhibition will do its work of improvement.

Meanwhile professor and patient must practice the code of signals by which the former conveys to the latter any necessary information about the objects to be described.

These signs may be words or other sounds; but great care must be taken with the latter, as they are more open to detection.

The initial letter of the first, second, or last word in each sentence the professor addresses to the clairvoyant is the same as that of the object; and as the number of objects likely to be offered for description is limited, a little practice will insure its instant recognition from the clue thus given. Some signal should be preconcerted by which the clairvoyant may be warned that the object presented is at all out of the common.

If there be any difficulty in making out the object, the professor may, by a little ingenuity and assurance, spell out in successive sentences the name of the object in his hand. To cover this manœuvre, he should pretend that the mesmeric influence is failing, and make "passes" at the patient, being careful, of course, not to go near him, and the clairvoyant must pretend to brighten up under their influence.

In the instance above referred to in the author's own experience, one of the company presented for description something very much out of the common way, a nutmeg-grater or something similar, and the professor, with the greatest readiness and the coolest assurance, deliberately spelt its name through almost to the last letter without detection.

The above, it is hoped, will be found sufficient to set the young aspirant to mesmeric fame on the right track; but an example of the actual working may, perhaps, prove more serviceable than much description.

Suppose, for instance, the object be a coin—a shilling, say

of George the Third, date 1800. The professor, who, by the way, should speak with as much rapidity as is compatible with distinctness, says sharply:

Can you tell me what I have in my hand?

A coin.

Modern or ancient?

Modern.

English or foreign?

English.

Give the reign.

George the Third.

But what value?

Shilling.

How dated?

1800.

Thank you, sir! Your shilling, I believe? Right, is it not?

The first question, it will be seen, begins with *c;* this, without further explanation, means *coin.* The next two explain themselves. The fourth begins with *G* for *George,* the only possible modern English reign; and the next word beginning with *t* gives the clue to *third. B* at the beginning of the next stands for "*bob,*" or shilling, when speaking of English coins. The guesser can't be far wrong in his date, knowing the reign. In enumeration the several digits are represented by the letters of the alphabet; *h* is the eighth letter, and therefore stands for 1800. Any odd numbers might have been spelt out in similar fashion.

Both professor and clairvoyant should speak rapidly and decisively to prevent detection, and should constantly change the key-word from first to last, and so on. A knowledge of French or some other language will be of great service in concealing the machinery.



When a player has to pay a forfeit, he gives in pledge some piece of portable property, which he will afterwards, at the end of the game, have to redeem in due order.

One player is declared judge, and, with eyes blindfold stands with his face to the wall, while another takes up the several pledges separately and asks, "Here is a pretty thing, and a very pretty thing; what is to be done to the owner of this very pretty thing?" Or, omitting the formula, asks merely, "What is to be done to the owner of this?" The blindfolded player, who, of course, does not know to whom each forfeit belongs, and therefore cannot be accused of unfairness, assigns for each forfeit a task which must be fulfilled before the pledge can be reclaimed.

This calling of the forfeits requires no little ingenuity, tact, and judgment, and the entire success depends upon the suitability of the penalties to the company and the circumstances.

The judge must take into consideration not only what penalties *can* be enforced, but what will afford the most fun, and at the same time must avoid the slightest shadow of offense.

Where the party is composed entirely of boys with no great inequality of ages, the task is tolerably easy; but where there is a mixed company of girls and boys, not only must the penalty attached to any forfeit be such as a girl *could* perform, but it must be such as no girl would object to perform.

In cases like this it is better to get an older person—a lady if possible—to cry the forfeits; and where such is not forthcoming, it is better not to cry them at all; or, if that be too hard a trial for the young players' philosophy, to cry the girls' and the boys' separately.

As the penalties, therefore, must depend so entirely upon the special circumstances of each occasion on which they are imposed, it would be impossible for us to find space enough to give a list sufficiently comprehensive to be of any real service as a guide to the judge in all cases.

The old stock forfeits are so well known and so stale that it would be mere waste of time and space to insert them here. We might certainly give a few new ones; but the exigencies of space would, as we said above, prevent our giving more than a very few, and we therefore prefer to leave them entirely to the ingenuity and invention of the judge for the time being, who, if he will be worth his salt, with one glance of his eye round the group of expectant pledge owners gather more hints for penalties suited to the occasion than he would from whole pages of printed instructions

GAMES OF CARDS.

Whist.

"Troy owes to Homer what Whist owes to Hoyle."

EDMOND HOYLE, the great authority on Whist, published his treatise in 1743.

Of all card games, this is perhaps the most interesting; and certainly, if such a term can be used in regard to anything in which mere chance is an element, the most scientific.

"'A clear fire, a clean hearth, and the rigor of the game.' This was the celebrated toast of a lady, who, next to her devotions, loved a good game of Whist.

"Man is a gaming animal, and his passion can scarcely be more safely expended than upon a game at cards with only a few cents for the stake."

Now then for our first lesson on Whist. This game—Long Whist—is played by four persons, with a *complete* pack of cards, fifty-two in number. The four players divide themselves into two parties, each player sitting opposite his partner. This division is usually accomplished by what is called *cutting the cards*, the two highest and the two lowest being partners; or the partnership may be settled by each player drawing a card from the pack spread out on the table, or in any other way that may be decided on. The holder of the lowest card is the dealer. But previous to their being dealt, the cards are "made"—that is, shuffled—by the elder hand, and "cut" by the younger hand. The undermost card in the pack, after it has been shuffled and cut, is the "trump."

The whole pack is now dealt out card by card, the dealer beginning with the player on his left, the elder hand. The last card—the trump—is then turned face upwards on the table, where it remains till the first trick is won, and turned. The deal completed, each player takes up his alloted thirteen, and arranges them in his hand according to the several suits—the Hearts, Clubs, Spades, and Diamonds by themselves in their regular order. The elder hand now leads or plays a card. His left-hand adversary follows, then his partner, and last of all his right-hand adversary. Each player must "follow suit," if he can, and the highest card of the suit led wins the "trick;" or if either player cannot follow suit, he either passes the suit—that is, plays some card of another suit, or trumps; that is, plays a card of the same suit or denomination as the turned-up card. Thus, we will suppose the first player leads a Nine of Spades, the second follows with a Ten, the third, who perhaps holds two high cards, plays a Queen, and the last a Two or a Three. The trick would then belong to the third player who won it with his Queen. The winner of the trick then leads off a card, and the others follow as before, and so on till the thirteen tricks are played. A second deal then takes place as before, and so the game proceeds till one or the other side has obtained ten tricks, which is *game*.

The order and value of the cards in Whist is as follows:—Ace is highest in play and lowest in cutting. Then follow King, Queen, Knave, Ten, Nine, Eight, Seven, Six, Five. Four, Three, Two, the lowest.

But there are other ways of scoring points besides tricks. The four court cards of the trump suit are called *honors*; and the holders of four score *four* towards the game; the holders of three score *two*; but if each player or each set of partners hold *two*, then honors are said to be *divided*, and no points are added to the game on either side. Thus, A and C

(partners) have between them the Ace, Knave, and Queen. At the end of the deal or round, they say and score *two by honors*; or, B and D hold Ace and King only, while A and B have Queen and Knave in their hands; then the *honors are divided.*

All tricks above six score to the game. All honors above two score in the way explained—*two* points for *three* honors, *four* points for *four* honors.

There being thirteen tricks which must be made in each round or deal, it follows that seven points may be gained, which, with the four honors, would finish the game in a single deal. This stroke of good fortune is, however, seldom attained. It is much more likely that four or five deals are made before the game is won. As we have explained, *ten points* are game in Long Whist

In Short Whist, which is the ordinary game cut in half, *five points* win. But if either side get up to *nine* points, then the holding of honors is of no advantage. In the language of the Whist-table, *at nine points honors do not count.* But at eight points, the player who holds two honors in his hand has what is called the privilege of *the call.* That is, he may ask his partner if he has an honor—"Can you one?" or "Have you an honor?" If the partner asked does hold the requisite Court card, the honors may be shown, the points scored, and the game ended. But the inquiry must not be made by the player holding the two honors *till it is his turn to play*, nor must the holder of a single honor inquire of his partner if he has two.

Nor does the holding of four honors entitle the partners to show them at any stage of the game except at eight points. To put the matter epigrammatically, *at six or seven points, tricks count before honors; at eight points, honors count before tricks.*

At nine points, honors do not count. It must be understood, however, that, in order to count honors *at eight points, they must be shown before the first trick is turned, or they cannot be claimed* till the round is completed. Thus it might happen that the partners at eight points, holding the honors between them, and neglecting to show them, would be beaten, even though the other side wanted three or four tricks for the game.

A Single Game is won by the side which first obtains the ten points by a majority of one, two, three or four points.

A Double Game is made when one side obtains *ten* points before the other has scored *five.*

A Lurch or *Triplet* is won by the obtainment of ten points to nothing on the other side.

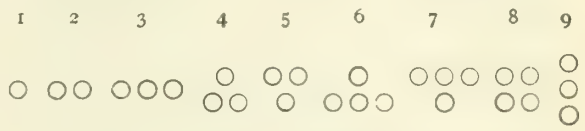
A Rubber is two games won out of three.

The Points of a Rubber are reckoned thuswise:—For the single game, *one* point; for the double, *two* points; and for the rub, *two* points. Thus it is possible to obtain *six* points in one rubber—namely, two doubles and the rub.

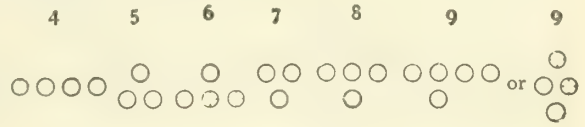
A Lurch or *Triplet* is in some companies reckoned for *three* points. Generally, however, a lurch is only counted as a double game where triplets are counted; it is possible, therefore, for the winners to obtain *eight* points.

A Slam is when the whole thirteen tricks are won in a single hand.

The game is usually marked on the table by coins or counters, or by the holes in a Cribbage-board. Many pretty little contrivances have been invented as Whist-markers; but if coins be used, the following is the simplest way of arranging them in order to denote the *score*:—



Or thus—a plan in which the unit *above* stands for *three*, or *below* for *five*:—



TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN WHIST.

Ace.—Highest in play, lowest in cutting

Blue Peter.—A signal for trumps, allowable in modern play. This term is used when a high card is *unnecessarily played* in place of one of lower denomination, as a ten for a seven, a five for a deuce, etc.

Bumper.—Two games won in succession before adversaries have won one; that is, a rubber of full points—Five at Long Whist, Eight at Short.

Cut.—Lifting the cards, when the uppermost portion (not fewer than three) is placed below the rest. The pack is then ready for the dealer.

Cutting-in.—Deciding the deal by each player taking up not fewer than three cards, and the two highest and two lowest become partners. In case of ties, the cards must be cut again.

Cutting-out.—In case of other person or persons wishing to play, the cut is adopted as before, when the highest (or lowest, as may be agreed on) stands out of the game, and does not play.

Call, the.—The privilege of the player at eight points asking his partner if he holds an honor—"Have you one?" The partners having eight points are said to *have the call.* When each side stands at eight, the first player has the privilege. As explained in a previous page, no player can call till it is his turn to play.

Deal.—The proper distribution of the cards, from left to right, face downwards.

Deal, mis.—A misdeal is made by giving a card too many or two few to either player; in which case the deal passes to the next hand. (*See* Laws.)

Deal, fresh.—A fresh or new deal, rendered necessary by any violation of the laws, or by any accident to the cards or players.

Double.—Ten points scored at Long Whist before adversaries have obtained five; or in Short Whist, five before three.

Elder-hand.—The player to the left of the dealer.

Faced Card.—A card improperly shown in process of dealing.

It is in the power of adversaries in such cases to demand a new deal.

Finessing.—A term used when a player endeavors to conceal his strength, as when, having the best and third best (as Ace and Queen), he plays the latter, and risks his adversary holding the second best (the King). If he succeed in winning with his Queen, he gains a clear trick, because, if his adversary throws away on the Queen, the Ace is certain of making a trick. The term finessing may be literally explained by saying a player chances an inferior card to win a trick with while he holds the King card in his hand.

Forcing.—This term is employed when the player obliges his adversary or partner to play his trump or pass the trick. As, for instance, when the player holds the last two cards in a suit, and plays one of them.

Hand.—The thirteen cards dealt to each player.

Honors.—Ace, King, Queen, and Knave of trumps, reckoned in the order here given.

Jack.—The Knave of any suit.

King Card.—The highest unplayed card in any suit; the leading or winning card.

Lead, the.—The first player's card, or the card next played by the winner of the last trick.

Long Trumps.—The last trump card in hand, one or more, when the rest are all played. It is important to retain a trump in an otherwise weak hand.

Loose Cards.—A card of no value, which may be thrown away on any trick won by your partner or adversary.

Longs.—Long Whist, as opposed to Short.

Lurch.—The players who make the double point are said to have lurched their adversaries.

Love.—No points to score. Nothing.

Marking the Game. Making the score apparent, with coins, etc., as before explained.

No Game.—A game at which the players make no score.

Opposition.—Side against side.

Points.—The score obtained by tricks and honors. The wagering or winning periods of the game.

Quarte.—Four cards in sequence.

Quarte Major.—A sequence of Ace, King, Queen, and Knave.

Quint.—Five successive cards in a suit; a sequence of five, as King, Queen, Knave, Ten, and Nine.

Renounce.—Possessing no card of the suit led, and playing another which is not a trump.

Revoke.—Playing a card different from the suit led, though the player can follow suit. The penalty for the error, whether made purposely or by accident, is the forfeiture of three tricks. (*See* Laws.)

Rubber.—The best two of three games.

Ruffing.—Another term for trumping a suit other than trumps.

Sequence.—Cards following in their natural order, as Ace, King, Queen, Two, Three, Four, etc. There may, therefore, be a sequence of Four, Five, Six, and so on.

Single.—Scoring, at Long Whist, ten tricks before your adversaries have scored five.

See-saw.—When each partner trumps a suit. For instance, A holds no Diamonds, and B no Hearts. When A plays Hearts, B trumps and returns a Diamond, which A trumps and returns a Heart, and so on.

Score.—The points gained in a game or rubber.

Slam.—Winning every trick in a round.

Shorts.—Short Whist as opposed to Long.

Tenace.—Holding the best and third best of any suit led when last player. Holding tenace, as King and Ten of Clubs. When your adversary leads that suit, you win two tricks perforce. [*Tenace minor* means the second and fourth best of any suit.]

Treble.—Scoring five (at Short Whist) before your adversaries have marked one.

Terce.—A sequence of three cards in any suit.

Terce Major.—Ace, King, and Queen of any suit held in one hand.

Tricks.—The four cards played, including the lead.

Trump.—The last card in the deal; the turn-up.

Trumps.—Cards of the same suit as the turn-up.

Ties.—Cards of like denomination, as two Kings, Queens, etc. Cards of the same number of pips.

Trumping Suit.—Playing a trump to any other suit led.

Underplay.—Playing to mislead your adversaries; as by leading a small card though you hold the King card of the suit.

Younger Hand.—The player to the right of the dealer.

SHORT RULES.

FOR FIRST HAND OR LEAD.

1. Lead from your strong suit, and be cautious how you change suits; and keep a commanding card to bring it in again.

2. Lead through the strong suit and up to the weak, but not in trumps, unless very strong in them.

3. Lead the highest of a sequence; but if you have a quart or quint to a King, lead the lowest.

4. Lead through an honor, particularly if the game be much against you.

5. Lead your best trump, if the adversaries be eight, and you have no honor; but not if you have four trumps, unless you have a sequence.

6. Lead a trump if you have four or five, or a strong hand; but not if weak.

7. Having Ace, King, and two or three small cards, lead Ace and King, if weak in trumps, but a small one if strong in them.

8. If you have the last trump, with some winning cards, and one losing card only, lead the losing card.

9. Return your partner's lead, not the adversaries'; and if you have only three originally, play the best; but you need not return it immediately, when you win with the King, Queen, or Knave, and have only small ones, or when you have a good sequence, have a strong suit, or have five trumps.

10. Do not lead from Ace Queen, or Ace Knave.

11. Do not lead an Ace, unless you have a King.

12. Do not lead a thirteenth card, unless trumps be out.

13. Do not trump a thirteenth card, unless you be last player, or want the lead.

14. Keep a small card to return your partner's lead.

15. Be cautious in trumping a card when strong in trumps, particularly if you have a strong suit.

16. Having only a few small trumps, make them when you can.

17. If your partner refuses to trump a suit, of which he knows you have not the best, lead your best trump.

18. When you hold all the remaining trumps play one, and then try to put the lead in your partner's hand.

19. Remember how many of each suit are out, and what is the best card left in each hand.

20. Never force your partner if you are weak in trumps, unless you have a renounce, or want the odd trick.

21. When playing for the odd trick, be cautious of trumping out, especially if your partner be likely to trump a suit; make all the tricks you can early, and avoid finessing.

22. If you take a trick, and have a sequence, win with the lowest.

FOR SECOND HAND.

23. With King, Queen, and small cards, play a small one, when not strong in trumps. But if weak, play the King. With Ace, King, Queen, or Knave, only, and a small card, play the small one.

FOR THIRD HAND.

24. With Ace and Queen, play her Majesty, and, if she wins, return the Ace. In all other cases the third hand should play his best card when his partner has led a low one. It is a safe rule for the third hand to play his highest.

FOR ALL THE PLAYERS.

25 Fail not, when in your power, to make the odd trick.

26. Attend to the game, and play accordingly.

27. Hold the turn-up card as long as possible, and so keep your adversaries from a knowledge of your strength.

28. Retain a high trump as long as you can.

29. When in doubt win the trick.

30. PLAY THE GAME FAIRLY AND KEEP YOUR TEMPER.

CUTTING IN.

1. The two highest are partners against the two lowest.

2. Less than three cards is not a cut.

[If fewer than three cards be cut off the pack, the player so cutting must replace the cards, and cut again.]

3. In cutting, the Ace is lowest.

4 Ties must cut again.

5. After the pack is cut, no fresh cards can be called for in that deal.

6. If a card be exposed, a new cut may be demanded.

7. All cutting-in and cutting-out must be by pairs.

8. The right-hand adversary cuts to the dealer.

SHUFFLING.

9. The cards must be shuffled above the table.

10. Each player has a right to shuffle the cards, the dealer last.

DEALING.

11. The cards must be dealt one at a time, commencing with the player to the left of the dealer.

12. In case of a *misdeal*, the deal passes to the next player.

[The following are *misdeals*:—A card too many or too few given to either player. An exposed card. Looking to the trump card before it is turned up in the regular order of play. Dealing the cards with the pack not having been cut. The trump card dropped out of turn. A faulty pack. In every case, except the last, the deal is lost if a fresh deal be claimed by opponents. A card faced by any other than the dealer is not subject to penalty.]

13. The dealer must not touch the cards after they have left his hand, but he is allowed to count those remaining undealt if he suspects he has made a misdeal.

14. The trump card must be left on the table, face upwards, till the first trick is turned.

[If it is not then taken up, however, it can be treated as an exposed card, and called at any part of the game, provided that no revoke be made by playing it.]

15. One partner may not deal for another without the consent of opponents.

THE GAME.

16. Any card played out of turn can be treated as an exposed card and called, provided no revoke be thereby caused.

[Thus, a player who wins a trick plays another card before his partner plays to the trick. The second card becomes an exposed card.]

17. If the third player throws down his card before the second, the fourth player has a right also to play before the second; or, if the fourth hand play before the second or third, the cards so played must stand, and the second be compelled to win the trick if he can.

18. No player but he who made the last trick has a right to look at it after it has been turned.

19. A trump card played in error may be recalled before the trick is turned.

[But if the playing of such trump cause the next player to expose a card, such last exposed card cannot be called.]

20. If two cards be played, or if the player play twice to the same trick, his opponents can elect which of the two shall remain and belong to the trick. Provided, however, that no revoke be caused.

[But if the trick should happen to be turned with five cards in it, adversaries may claim a fresh deal.]

21. A player, before he throws, may require his partner to "draw his card," or he may have each card in the trick claimed by the players before the trick is completed.

[The proper way is to say, "Draw your cards," as then the chance of partner claiming the wrong one is lessened.]

22. If two players answer the lead together, the one whose turn it was to play can call the other card in the next or following trick as an exposed card.

23. No player is allowed to transfer his hand to another without the consent of his adversaries.

24. A hand once abandoned and laid down on the table cannot be taken up again and played.

25. If a player announce that he can win every trick, adversaries may call his cards.

THE REVOKE.

26. The penalty for a revoke is the forfeiture of three tricks. If a revoke be made, the adverse party may add three

to their score by taking them from their opponents, or they may reduce your score by three.

[In order to more fully explain the intent of a revoke: "If a suit is led, and any one of the players, having a card of the same suit, shall play another suit to it—that constitutes a revoke. But if the error be discovered before the trick is quitted, or before the party having so played a wrong suit, or his partner, shall play again, the penalty only amounts to the cards being treated as exposed, and being liable to be called."]

27. If a player revokes, and before the trick is turned discovers his error, adversaries may call on him to play his highest or lowest card of the suit led, or they may call the card exposed at any time when such call will not lead to another revoke.

28. No revoke can be claimed till the trick is turned and quitted, or the revoker's partner has played again.

29. When a revoke is claimed, the cards must not be mixed, under forfeiture of the game.

30. The player or partners against whom a revoke is established cannot claim the game in that deal.

31. No revoke can be claimed after the cards are cut for the next game.

32. When a revoke has occurred on both sides, there must be a new deal.

33. The proof of a revoke is with the claimants, who may examine each trick on the completion of the round.

CALLING HONORS.

34. Honors cannot be counted unless they are claimed before the next deal. No omission to score them can be rectified after the cards are packed, but an overscore can be deducted.

35. Honors can only be called at eight points, and then only by the player whose turn it is to play.

[It is quite usual to omit calling honors when the game is pretty certain, but the shortest and fairest plan is for the player holding two honors to ask, "Can you one?" when, if your partner holds one, the game is at an end.]

36. At nine points honors do not count.

37. Four honors in one or both partners' hands count *four* to the game; three honors, *two*. Two honors on each side are not scored, but are said to be *divided*.

THE SCORE.

38. If both partners score, and a discrepancy occur between them, adversaries may elect which score to retain.

39. The score cannot be amended after the game is won and the cards packed.

INTIMATIONS BETWEEN PARTNERS.

40. A player may ask his partner, "What are trumps?" or, "Can you follow suit?" "Is there not a revoke?" Or he may tell him to draw his card. All other intimations are unfair.

41. Lookers-on must not interfere unless appealed to.

BY-LAWS.

These are all the *laws* of the game of Whist, but there are certain other rules or by-laws with which it is important the finished player should be acquainted. The penalties attached to a disregard of any of the following by-laws differ in different companies, and to some, which partake rather of the nature of maxims, there is no penalty at all.

When the trump is turned, and taken into the player's hand, it cannot be demanded by either of the players.

When a card is taken distinctly from the hand to which it belongs, it may be treated as an exposed card.

Taking a trick belonging to your adversaries subjects you to no penalty, but it may be reclaimed at any time during the round.

If a player throws up his hand, and the next player follows his example, the game must be considered at an end, and lost to the first player resigning.

Honors scored improperly are in some companies transferred to adversaries.

Approval or disapproval of a partner's play, or, in fact, any improprieties of speech or gesture, are not allowable.

As soon as the lead is played to, it is complete.

If a player announce that he can win all the remaining tricks, he may be required to face all his cards on the table. His partner's hand may also be so treated, and each card may be called separately.

HINTS AND CAUTIONS FOR AMATEURS.

Place each suit together, in the natural order of the cards, but do not always put the trumps to the left, as thereby your adversary is able to count them as you put them aside. Many good players do not sort their cards at all, but arrange them in the hand just as they fall on the table.

Never dispute the score, unless you are pretty certain you are right; nothing is so ungraceful as a disputatious player.

Never hesitate long in playing, but if you have a bad hand, do your best and trust to your partner.

Remember that no points can be marked if you neglect to score before the second trick of the succeeding round is played.

Do not show honors after a trick is turned, as they may be called by your adversaries.

At eight points, the elder hand asks the younger, and not the younger the elder. That is to say, the player with the two honors in hand asks, "Can you one?"

Remember the good old maxim, "Second hand throws away, and third hand plays high."

Always endeavor to retain a leading card or trump to nearly the end.

Never throw a high card on a lost trick when a low one will suffice.

Follow your partner's lead, and not your adversary's.

When you suspect your partner to be strong in trumps, ruff when he leads a small card and return a little trump.

When your partner leads from an apparently good hand, do your best to assist him.

Whist is a silent game; therefore do not distract the attention of the players by idle conversation.

Never interfere needlessly.

Watch the style of your adversaries' play, and act in accordance with your own judgment.

Make tricks when you can without injury to your partner's hand.

Accustom yourself to remember the cards that are played. A good memory is a wonderful assistant at Whist.

GENERAL RULES.

Be cautious how you change suits, and allow no artifice of your adversaries to induce you to do so, without your own hand warrants it.

Keep a commanding card, to bring in your own strong suit when trumps are out, if your hand will permit.

Never keep back your partner's suit in trumps, but return them at the first opportunity.

With a strong suit and but few trumps, rather force your adversaries than lead trumps—unless it happens that you are strong in at least one other suit.

Never neglect to make the odd trick when you have a chance.

Look well to your own and your opponents' score, and shape your play by reference to them.

In a backward game, it is sometimes wise to risk one trick in order to secure two; but in a forward game, be more cautious.

If you hold three cards of the suit led by your partner, return his lead with your best.

Remember what cards drop from each hand, how many of each suit are out, and the best remaining card in each.

Seldom lead from Ace and Queen, Ace and Knave, or King and Knave, if you hold another moderate suit.

If neither of your adversaries will lead from the above suits, you must do it yourself with a small card.

You are strong in trumps with five small ones, or three small ones and one honor.

Do not trump a card when you are strong in trumps, more especially if you hold any other strong suit.

If you hold only a few small trumps, make them when you can.

If your partner refuses to trump a suit of which he knows you have not the best, lead him your best trump as soon as you can.

If your partner has trumped a suit, and refuses to play trumps, lead him that suit again.

Never force your partner but when you are strong in trumps, unless you have a renounce yourself, or want only the odd trick.

If the adversaries trump out, and your partner has a renounce, give him that suit when you get the lead, if you think he has a small trump left.

Lead not from an Ace suit originally, if you hold four in number of another suit.

When trumps are either returned by your partner, or led by your adversaries, you may finesse deeply in them; keeping the command as long as you can in your own hand.

If you lead the King of any suit, and make it, you must not thence conclude that your partner holds the Ace.

It is sometimes proper to lead a thirteenth card, in order to force the adversary, and give your partner a chance of making a trick as last player.

If weak in trumps, make your tricks soon; but when strong in them, you may play a more backward game.

With five small trumps and a good hand, lead trumps, and so exhaust the suit.

With the lead, and three small trumps and the Ace, it is sometimes judicious to allow your adversaries to make two tricks in trumps with King and Queen, and on the third round play your Ace. You then secure the last trick with your little trump.

With one strong suit, a moderate one, and a single card, it is good play to lead out one round from your strong suit, and then play your single card.

Keep a small card of your partner's first lead, if possible, in order to return it when the trumps are out.

Never force your adversary with your best card of a suit unless you have the second best also.

In your partner's lead, endeavor to keep the command in his hand, rather than in your own.

If you have see-saw, it is generally better to pursue it than to trump out, although you should be strong in trumps with a good suit.

Keep the trump you turn up, as long as you properly can.

When you hold all the remaining trumps, play one of them, to inform your partner; and then put the lead into his hand.

It is better to lead from Ace and Nine than from Ace and Ten.

It is better to lead trumps through an Ace or King than through, a Queen or Knave.

If you hold the last trump, some winning cards, and one losing card only, lead the losing card.

When only your partner has trumps remaining, and leads a suit of which you hold none, if you have a good sequence of four, throw away the highest of it.

If you have an Ace, with one small card of any suit, and several winning cards in other suits, rather throw away some winning card than that small one.

If you hold only one honor with a small trump, and wish the trumps out, lead the honor first.

If trumps have been led thrice, and there be two remaining in your adversaries' hands, endeavor to force them out.

Never play the best card of your adversaries' lead at second hand, unless your partner has none of that suit.

If you have four trumps, and the command of a suit whereof your partner has none, lead a small card, in order that he may trump it.

With these general directions we may now proceed to consider each hand as analyzed by Hoyle and improved by modern players. The following are from the last and best edition of Hoyle; the maxims have been adopted by Payne, Trebor, Carleton, Cœlebs, Captain Crawley, and all the other writers on the game.

THE LEAD—FIRST HAND.

Begin with the suit of which you have the greatest number; for, when trumps are out, you will probably make tricks in it.

If you hold equal numbers in different suits, begin with the strongest; it is the least liable to injure your partner.

Sequences are always eligible leads; they support your partner's hand without injuring your own.

Lead from King or Queen rather than from a single Ace;

for, since your opponents will lead from contrary suits, your Ace will be powerful against them.

Lead from King rather than Queen, and from Queen rather than Knave; for the stronger the suit, the less is your partner endangered.

Do not lead from Ace Queen, or Ace Knave, till you are obliged; for, if that suit be led by your opponents, you have a good chance of making two tricks in it.

In sequences to a Queen, Knave, or Ten, begin with the highest, and so distress your left-hand adversary.

With Ace, King, and Knave, lead the King; if strong in trumps, you may wait the return of this suit, and finesse the Knave.

With Ace, Queen, and one small card, lead the small one; by this lead, your partner has a chance of making the Knave.

With Ace, King, and two or three small cards, play Ace and King if weak, but a small card if strong, in trumps; when strong in trumps, you may give your partner the chance of making the first trick.

With King, Queen, and one small card, play the small one; for your partner has an equal chance to win, and there is little fear of your making King or Queen.

With King, Queen, and two or three small cards, lead a small card if strong, and the King if weak, in trumps; strength in trumps entitles you to play a backward game, and to give your partner a chance of winning the first trick. But if weak in trumps, lead the King and Queen, to secure a trick in that suit.

With Ace, with four small cards, and no other good suit, play a small one if strong in trumps, and the Ace if weak; strength in trumps may enable you to make one or two of the small cards, although your partner cannot support your lead.

With King, Knave, and Ten, lead the Ten; if your partner has the Ace, you may probably make three tricks, whether he pass the Ten or not.

With King, Queen, and Ten, lead the King; for, if it fail, by putting on the Ten, upon the return of the suit from your partner, you may make two tricks.

With Queen, Knave, and Nine, lead the Queen; upon the return of that suit from your partner, by putting on the Nine, you make the Knave.

SECOND HAND.

With Ace, King, and small ones, play a small card if strong in trumps, but the King if weak. Otherwise your Ace or King might be trumped in the latter case. Except in critical cases no hazard should be run with few trumps.

With Ace, Queen, and small cards, play a small one; upon the return of that suit you may make two tricks.

With Ace, Knave, and small cards, play a small one; upon the return of that suit you may make two tricks.

With Ten or Nine, with small cards, play a small one. By this plan you may make two tricks in the suit

With King, Queen, Ten, and small cards, play the Queen. By playing the Ten on the return of the suit, you stand a good chance of making two tricks.

With King, Queen, and small cards, play a small card if strong in trumps, but the Queen if weak in them; for strength in trumps warrants a backward game. It is advantageous to keep back your adversaries' suit.

With a sequence to your highest card in the suit, play the lowest of it, for by this means your partner is informed of your strength.

With Queen, Knave, and small ones, play the Knave, because you will probably secure a trick.

With Queen, Ten, and small ones, play a small one, for your partner has an equal chance to win.

With either Ace, King, Queen, or Knave, with small cards, play a small one; your partner has an equal chance to win the trick.

With either Ace, King, Queen, or Knave, with one small card only, play the small one, for otherwise your adversary will finesse upon you.

If a Queen of trumps be led, and you hold the King, put that on; if your partner hold the Ace, you do no harm; and if the King be taken, the adversaries have played two honors to one.

If a Knave of trumps be led, and you hold the Queen, put it on; for, at the worst, you bring down two honors for one.

If a King be led, and you hold Ace, Knave, and small ones, play the Ace, which can only make one trick.

THIRD HAND.

The third hand plays high.

With Ace and King, play the Ace and immediately return the King. It is not necessary that you should keep the command of your partner's hand.

With Ace and Queen, play the Ace and return the Queen. By this means you make a certain trick, though it is sometimes policy to play the Queen. Your partner is, however, best supported by the old-fashioned method.

With Ace and Knave, play the Ace and return the Knave, in order to strengthen your partner's hand.

With King and Knave, play the King; and if it win, return the Knave.

Play the best when your partner leads a small card, as it best supports him.

If you hold Ace and one small card only, and your partner lead the King, put on the Ace, and return the small one; for, otherwise, your Ace may be an obstruction to his suit.

If you hold King and only one small card, and your partner lead the Ace, when the trumps are out, play the King; for, by putting on the King, there will be no obstruction to the suit.

FOURTH HAND.

If a King be led, and you hold Ace, Knave, and a small card, play the small one; for supposing the Queen to follow you will probably make both Ace and Knave.

When the third hand is weak in his partner's lead, you may often return that suit to great advantage; but this rule must not be applied to trumps, unless you are very strong indeed.

Never neglect to secure the trick if there is any doubt about the game.

If you hold the thirteenth trump, retain it to make a trick when your partner fails in his lead.

If you stand in the nine holes, make all the tricks you can; but at the same time be careful. Watch the game narrowly, and look well to your partner's lead.

LEADING TRUMPS.

Lead trumps from a strong hand, but never from a weak one; by which means you will secure your good cards from being trumped.

Never trump out with a bad hand, although you hold five small trumps; for, since your cards are bad, you only bring out your adversaries' good ones.

If you hold Ace, King, Knave, and three small trumps, play Ace and King; for the probability of the Queen falling is in your favor.

If you hold Ace, King, Knave, and one or two small trumps, play the King, and wait the return from your partner to put on the Knave. By this plan you may win the Queen. But if you have particular reasons to exhaust trumps, play two rounds, and then your strong suit.

If you hold Ace, King, and two or three small trumps, lead a small one, with a view to let your partner win the first trick; but if you have good reason for getting out trumps, play three rounds, or play Ace and King, and then your strong suit.

If your adversaries are eight, and you hold no honor, throw off your best trump; for, if your partner has not two honors, you lose the game. But if he should happen to hold two honors—as he probably would—you have a strong commanding game.

Holding Ace, Queen, Knave, and small trumps, play the Knave; by this means, the King only can make against you.

Holding Ace, Queen, Ten, and one or two small trumps, lead a small one; this will give your partner a chance to win the first trick, and keep the command in your own hand.

Holding King, Queen, Ten, and small trumps, lead the King; for, if the King be lost, upon the return of trumps you may finesse the Ten.

Holding King, Knave, Ten, and small ones, lead the Knave; it will prevent the adversaries from making a small trump.

Holding Queen, Knave, Nine, and small trumps, lead the Queen; if your partner hold the Ace, you have a chance of making the whole suit.

Holding Queen, Knave, and two or three small trumps, lead the Queen.

Holding Knave, Ten, Eight, and small trumps, lead the Knave; on the return of trumps you may finesse the Eight.

Holding Knave, Ten, and three small trumps, lead the Knave; this will most distress your adversaries, unless two honors are held on your right hand, the odds against which are about three to one.

Holding only small trumps, play the highest; by which means you support your partner.

Holding a sequence, begin with the highest; thus your partner is instructed how to play his hand, and cannot be injured.

If any honor be turned up on your left, and the game much against you, lead a trump as soon as you can. You may thus probably retrieve an almost lost game.

In all other cases it is dangerous to lead through an honor without you are strong in trumps, or have an otherwise good hand. All the advantage of leading through an honor lies in your partner finessing.

If the Queen be turned up on your right, and you hold Ace, King, and small ones, lead the King. Upon the return of trumps finesse, unless the Queen falls. Otherwise the Queen will make a trick.

With the Knave turned up on your right, and you hold King, Queen, and Ten, the best play is to lead the Queen. Upon the return of trumps play the Ten. By this style of play you make the Ten.

If the Knave turn up on your right, and you hold King, Queen, and small ones, it is best to lead the King. If that comes home, you can play a small one, for the chance of your partner possessing the Ace.

If Knave turn up on your right, and you have King, Queen, and Ten, with two small cards, lead a small one. Upon the return of trumps play the Ten. The chances are in favor of your partner holding an honor, and thus you make a trick.

If an honor be turned up on your left, and you hold only one honor with a small trump, play out the honor, and then the small one. This will greatly strengthen your partner's hand, and cannot injure your own.

If an honor be turned up on the left, and you hold a sequence, lead the highest; it will prevent the last hand from injuring your partner.

If a Queen be turned up on the left and you hold Ace, King, and a small one, lead the small trump; you have a chance for winning the Queen.

If a Queen be turned up on your left, and you hold Knave, with small ones, lead the Knave; for the Knave can be of no service, since the Queen is on your left.

If an honor be turned up by your partner, and you are strong in trumps, lead a small one; but if weak in them, lead the best you have. By this means the weakest hand supports the strongest.

If an Ace be turned up on the right, and you hold King, Queen, and Knave, lead the Knave; it is a secure lead.

If an Ace be turned up on the right, and you hold King, Queen, and Ten, lead the King; and upon the return of trumps play the Ten. By this means you show strength to your partner, and probably make two tricks.

If a King be turned up on the right, and you hold Queen, Knave, and Nine, lead the Knave, and upon the return of trumps, play the Nine: it may prevent the Ten from making.

If a King be turned up on your right, and you hold Knave, Ten and Nine, lead the Nine; upon the return of trumps play the Ten. This will disclose your strength in trumps to your partner.

If a Queen be turned up on the right, and you have Ace, King, and Knave, lead the King. Upon the return of trumps play the Knave, which makes a certain trick.

HOW TO PLAY WHEN YOU TURN UP AN HONOR.

If you turn up an Ace, and hold only one small trump with it, if either adversary lead the King, put on the Ace.

But if you turn up an Ace, and hold two or three small

trumps with it, and either adversary lead the King, put on a small one; for, if you play the Ace, you give up the command in trumps.

If you turn up a King and hold only one small trump with it, and your right-hand adversary lead a trump, play a small one.

If you turn up a King, and hold two or three small trumps with it, if your right-hand adversary lead a trump, play a small one.

If you turn up a Queen or Knave, and hold besides only small trumps, if your right-hand adversary lead a trump, put out a small one.

If you hold a sequence to the honor turned up, play it last.

HOW TO PLAY FOR THE ODD TRICK.

Never trump out if you can avoid it, for you can hardly be sure of the other three hands.

If your partner, by hoisting the Blue Peter, or by any other allowable intimation, shows that he has means of trumping any suit, be cautious how you trump out. Force your partner, if strong in trumps, and so make all the tricks you can.

Make tricks early in the game, and be cautious in finessing.

With a single card of any suit, and only two or three small trumps, lead the single card.

RETURNING PARTNER'S LEAD.

In the following cases it is best to return your partner's lead directly:—

When you win with the Ace, and can return an honor; for then it will greatly strengthen his hand.

When he leads a trump, in which case return the best remaining in your hand unless you hold four. An exception to this arises if the lead is through an honor.

When your partner has trumped out; for then it is evident he wants to make his strong suit.

When you have no good card in any other suit; for then you are entirely dependent on your partner.

In the following instances it is proper that you should NOT *return your partner's lead immediately.—*

When you win with the King, Queen, or Knave, and have only small cards remaining. The return of a small card will more distress than strengthen your partner's hand.

When you hold a good sequence; for then you may make tricks and not injure his hand.

When you have a strong suit. Leading from a strong suit is a direction to your partner and cannot injure him.

When you have a good hand; for in this case you have a right to consult your own hand, and not your partner's.

When you hold five trumps; for then you are warranted to play trumps if you think it right.

When, in fine, you can insure two or three tricks, play them, and then return the lead. With a leading hand, it is well to play your own game.

THE FINISH.

The most important part of a game at Whist is the Finish—the last two or three tricks. Be careful how you play, or you may make a bad ending to a good beginning.

Loose Card.—If you hold three winning cards and a loose one, play the latter, and trust to your partner.

Loose Trump and Tenace.—Holding these, play the loose trump.

King and the Lead.—If you hold a King, and a loose card, the best plan is to play the last, so that your partner may lead up to your King.

Long Trumps.—If you hold three it is best to lead the smallest; by this means you give your partner a chance of making tricks, and still hold a commanding card in your own hand. It is not well to play out the King card.

Third Hand with King, &c.—"Supposing," says Cœlebs, "ten tricks being made, you remain with King, Ten, and another. If second hand plays an honor, cover it; otherwise finesse the Ten for a certain trick. If you want two tricks play your King."

Running a Card.—The same authority says—"With such cards as Knave, Nine, Eight, against Ten guarded, by 'running' the Eight you make every trick."

STRENGTH IN TRUMPS.

The following hands are given by Hoyle to demonstrate what is known as being strong in trumps:—

Ace, King, and three small trumps.
King, Queen, and three small trumps.
Queen, Ten, and three small trumps.
Queen and four small trumps
Knave and four small trumps.
Five trumps without an honor must win two tricks if led.

FORCING YOUR PARTNER.

You are justified in forcing your partner if you hold—

Ace and three small trumps.
King and three small trumps.
Queen and three small trumps.
Knave and four small trumps.
Five trumps.

CALCULATIONS FOR BETTING.

At Long Whist.

It is about five to four that your partner holds one card out of any two.

Five to two that he holds one card out of any three.

Two to one that he does not hold a certain named card.

Three to one that he does not hold two out of three named cards in a suit.

Three to two that he does not hold two cards out of any four named.

Five to one that your partner holds one winning card.

Four to one that he holds two.

Three to one that he holds three.

Three to two that he holds four.

Four to six that he holds five.

BETTING THE ODDS.

The odds on the rubber are five to two in favor of the dealers generally.

With the first game secured the odds on the rubber, with the deal, are—

1	to love	about	7	to	2
2	—	—	4	—	1
3	—	—	9	—	2
4	—	—	5	—	1
5	—	—	6	—	1

At any part of the game, except at the points of eight or nine, the odds are in proportion to the number of points required to make the ten required. Thus, if A wants four and B six of the game, the odds are six to four in favor of A. If A wants three and B five, the odds are seven to five on A winning the game.

Against honors being divided, the odds are about three to two against either side, though the dealers have certainly the best chance.

The following, calculated strictly, are the

ODDS ON THE GAME WITH THE DEAL.

1	love	is	11	to	10	4	to	3	is	7	to 6
2	love	—	5	—	4	5	—	3	—	7	— 5
3	love	—	3	—	2	6	—	3	—	7	— 4
4	love	—	7	—	4	7	—	3	—	7	— 3
5	love	—	2	—	1	8	—	3	—	7	— 2
6	love	—	5	—	2	9	—	3	—	3	— 1
7	love	—	7	—	2						
8	love	—	5	—	1						
9	love	—	9	—	2	5	to	4	is	6	to 5
						6	—	4	—	6	— 4
1	to 1	is	9	to	8	7	—	4	—	2	— 1
2	— 1	—	9	—	7	8	—	4	—	3	— 1
3	— 1	—	9	—	6	9	—	4	—	5	— 2
4	— 1	—	9	—	5						
5	— 1	—	9	—	4	6	to	5	is	5	to 4
6	— 1	—	3	—	1	7	—	5	—	5	— 3
7	— 1	—	9	—	2	8	—	5	—	5	— 2
8	— 1	—	4	—	1	9	—	5	—	2	— 1
3	to 2	is	8	to	7	7	to	6	is	4	to 3
4	— 2	—	4	—	3	8	—	6	—	2	— 1
5	— 2	—	8	—	5	9	—	6	—	7	— 4
6	— 2	—	2	—	1						
7	— 2	—	8	—	3						
8	— 2	—	4	—	1	8	to	7	is	3	to 2
9	— 2	—	7	—	2	9	—	7	—	12	— 8

Honors counting at eight points and not at nine, the odds are slightly in favor of the players at eight. It is usual for the players at eight points, with the deal, to bet six to five on the game. It is about an even bet, if honors are not claimed at eight points, that the dealers win. As a disinterested piece of advice, however, let me add—*Don't bet at all.*

AT SHORT WHIST.

The following are the generally-accepted odds, but it must be remembered that in respect of betting the chances in Short Whist do not greatly differ from those of the old and, as I think, much superior game.

ON THE GAME WITH THE DEAL.

At starting, the odds are about 11 to 10, or perhaps 21 to 20, in favor of the dealers. With an honor turned up, the odds are nearly a point greater in favor of the dealers.

1 to love	is about		10	to	8
2	—		5	—	3
3	—		3	—	1
4	—		4	—	1
2 to 1	is about		5	to	4
3 — 2	—		2	—	1
3 — 3	—		11	—	10
4 — 3	—		9	—	7

ON THE RUBBER WITH THE DEAL.

1 to love	is about		7	to	4
2	—		2	—	1
3	—		9	—	2
4	—		5	—	1

The following are given as mere matters of curiosity:

It is 50 to 1 against the dealer holding 7 trumps, neither more nor less.

15 to 1 against his holding 6 trumps.

8 to 1 against his holding exactly 5.

3 to 2 against his holding exactly 4.

5 to 2 in favor of his holding 3 trumps or more trumps.

11 to 2 in favor of his holding 2 or more trumps.

30 to 1 against his holding only the 1 trump turned up.

Against any non-dealer holding any specified number of trumps.

100 to 1 against his holding exactly 7.

30 to 1 " " 6.

15 to 1 " " 5.

5 to 1 " " 4.

3 to 2 " " 3.

5 to 2 in favor of his holding 2 or more.

50 to 1 in favor of his holding 1 trump or more.

Against the dealer holding 13 trumps it is calculated to be 158,753,389,899 to 1.

Against his holding 12 trumps, 338,493,367 to 1.

Against his holding 11 trumps, 3,000,000 to 1.

Against his holding 10 trumps, 77,000 to 1.

Against his holding 9 trumps, 3,500 to 1.

Against his holding 8 trumps, 320 to 1.

Against his holding 7 trumps, 50 to 1.

These figures are, however, of but small practical utility in Whist, from the simple fact that nowadays such odds are seldom or never offered or taken. Whist is not a game to gamble at.

SHORT WHIST, DUMMY, DOUBLE DUMMY, etc.

THE LAWS OF SHORT WHIST.

1. The game consists of five points. One point scored saves the triple game; three points, a double. The rubber is reckoned as two points.

[Eight points may therefore be gained in a single rubber.]

2. Honors cannot be "called" at any part of the game, and do not count at the point of four.

[In all other respects, honors are reckoned as in Long Whist.]

The two highest and two lowest are partners, the lowest cut having the deal.

[The cards are to be shuffled and cut in precisely the same way as in the old-fashioned game.]

4 An exposed card necessitates a fresh deal.

5. In cases of misdeal, the deal passes to the next player.

[Misdeals occur from precisely the same causes as in Long Whist, and need not, therefore, be stated.]

6. No questions as to either hand can be asked after the trick is turned.

[Nor are any questions except those admissible in the other game to be asked.]

7. Any card played out of turn, or shown accidentally, can be called.

8. A revoke is subject to the penalty of three tricks.

[Taken as in Long Whist.]

9. The side making the revoke remains at four, in whatever way the penalty be enforced.

10. Lookers-on must not interfere unless appealed to by the majority of the players.

It is not necessary to dilate upon the best method of playing each separate hand at this game, because whatever is useful and true at Long Whist is equally useful and true at Short Whist. "The peculiarities of the short game," says a recent writer, "call for special appliances. This should act as stimulants to the player, and rouse his energy." But what these special appliances are it is difficult to discover, seeing that the two games are identical in everything but length. The only advantage of the short game lies in the more forcible use that can be made of trumps. "Trumps," says Carleton, "should be your rifle company; use them liberally in your manœuvers; have copious reference to them in finessing, to enable you to maintain a long suit. Should you be weak in trumps, ruff a doubtful card at all times; with a command in them, be very chary of that policy. Let your great principle always be to keep the control of your adversaries' suit, and leave that of your partner free. If you see the probable good effect of forcing, decide which of your adversaries you will assail, but do not attempt them both at once. Let it be the stronger if possible. When you force both hands opposed to you, one throws away his useless cards; while the chance is, the other makes trumps that, under other circumstances, would have been sacrificed." And so, *et cetera ad infinitum*. Deschapelles, who is the French Hoyle without his science, but with double his power of writing, says of Short Whist: "When we consider the social feelings it engenders, the pleasure and vivacity it promotes, and the advantages it offers to the less skillful player, we cannot help acknowledging that Short Whist is a decided improvement upon the old game." All this is, however, open to argument; and therefore *de gustibus non est*.

DUMBY, OR THREE-HANDED WHIST.

This game is precisely the same as Long Whist, only that one player takes two hands, one of which he holds in the usual manner, and the other he spreads open on the table. The rules are the same.

Another Game is played by three persons, in which two Nines and Fours, and one of the Five is cast out from the pack and each player plays on his own account.

A Third Way of playing three-handed Whist is to reject the fourth hand altogether, and allow it to remain unseen on the table. Each player then takes the miss, or unseen hand, in exchange for his own, if he thinks fit. Each player stands on his cards, and the best hand must win. There is, however, room for finesse, and the player who sees two hands—the miss, and that first dealt to him—has an undeniable advantage.

TWO-HANDED WHIST.

This game is either played as Double Dumby, by exposing two hands and playing as with four players, or by rejecting two hands and each player making the best he can of his own hand. In these games each honor counts as one point in the game. There is but small room for skill in any of the imperfect Whist games, and the player who is acquainted with the real old-fashioned game need not be told how to play his cards at Dumby or French Humbug. At best these games are inferior to Cribbage, Ecarté, All-Fours, or any of the regular two-handed games.



EUCHRE is played with a pack of thirty-two cards, all below the Seven being rejected. Two, three, or four persons may play, but the four-handed game is the best.

THE DEAL.

The players having cut for deal the pack is shuffled and the player to the right of the dealer cuts. The deal is executed by giving five cards to each player. The dealer gives two cards at a time to each in rotation, beginning with the player to his left; he then gives three cards at a time to each, or *vice versa*. In which ever manner the dealer commences to distribute the cards, he must continue; he must not deal two to the first, three to the next, and so on. After each player has received five cards, the dealer turns up the next card for trumps, and places it face upward on top of the stock.

The right to deal passes successively to the left.

At the outset of the game each player cuts for the deal, and the lowest cut deals. In a tie, the parties tied cut again. The players cutting the two highest cards play against those cutting the two lowest.

In cutting, the Ace is lowest, and the other cards rank as at Whist.

Should a player expose more than one card, he must cut again.

The cards may be shuffled by any player who demands that privilege, but the dealer has always the right to shuffle last.

The cards must be cut by the right-hand opponent before they are dealt.

A cut must not be less than four cards removed from the top, nor must it be made so as to leave less than four cards at the bottom; and the pack must be put on the table for the cut.

RANK.

The cards in suits, not trumps, rank as at Whist, the Ace being the highest, the Seven the lowest. When a suit is trump, the cards rank differently. The Knave of the suit turned up is called the *right Bower*, and is the highest trump. The other Knave of the same color (black or red, as the case may be) is called the *left Bower*, and is the next highest trump.

HOW TO ORDER UP, ASSIST, PASS, AND TAKE UP.

When the trump is turned, the player to the left of the dealer examines his hand to determine his plans. He may either order up the trump, or pass. If he thinks his cards are strong enough to win three tricks, he says, "I order it up." The dealer then discards one card from his hand, and puts it under the stock, face downward, and the trump card belongs to the dealer, instead of the card he discarded. If the eldest hand is not satisfied with his cards, he says, "I pass."

If the eldest hand pass, the partner of the dealer then has the option of declaring what he will do, and he may either assist his partner, or pass. If his hand is strong enough, with the help of the trump his partner has turned, to win three tricks, he says, "I assist," and his partner discards as before, and the trump card belongs to him. If the partner of the dealer has a weak hand, he says, "I pass," and the third player, that is, the player next to the right of the dealer, has the option of saying what he will do.

The third player proceeds exactly as the eldest hand, and, if he pass, the dealer has the next say.

If all the other players pass the dealer may either take up the trump, or pass. If his hand is strong enough to take three tricks he says, "I take it up." The dealer then discards the weakest card from his hand, and takes the trump card instead. If the dealer has a weak hand, he says, "I turn it down," and, at the same time, places the trump card face upward under the stock.

If the dealer turns down the trump, the eldest hand has the option of naming any suit (except the one turned down) for trumps, or of passing again. If he pass, he says, "I pass the making."

If the eldest hand pass the making, the partner of the dealer then has the option of making the trump, and so on in rotation up to and including the dealer.

If all the players, including the dealer, decline to make the trump, a fresh deal takes place, and the eldest hand deals.

If either side adopt (play with the suit turned up for trump), or make the trump, the play of the hand commences.

When the trump is made of the same color as the turn up (that is, black, if the turn up is black, or red, if it is red), it is called *making it next in suit.*

If the trump is made of a different color from the turn up, it is called *crossing the suit.*

WHEN TO PLAY IT ALONE.

If a player holds a hand so strong that he has a reliable hope of taking all five tricks without the assistance of his partner, he may *play alone.* If he plays without his partner, he says, "*I play alone.*" His partner then places his cards face downward on the table, and makes no sign.

If the eldest hand order up, or make the trump either he or his partner may play alone. If the dealer's partner assist, or make the trump, either he or the dealer may play alone. If the player to the right of the dealer order up or make the trump, he may play alone (but his partner cannot). If the dealer take up or make a trump, he may play alone (but his partner cannot).

A player cannot play alone after having passed a trump, or passed the making of a trump. A player cannot play alone when the opposing side adopt or make the trump; nor can he play alone unless he announce his intentions to do so before he or the opposing side make a lead.

THE PLAY.

The eldest hand leads a card and each player in rotation plays a card to the lead. The four cards thus played constitute a trick. A player must follow suit if he can, but if not able to follow suit he may play any card he chooses.

The highest card of the suit lead wins the trick; trumps win all other suits. The winner of the trick leads to the next, and so on until the five tricks are played.

THE SCORE.

The game is five points.

If the side who adopt, or make a trump, win all five tricks, they make a *march*, and score two.

If they win three tricks, they make the *point*, and score one. Four tricks count no more than three tricks.

If they fail to take three tricks they are *euchered*, and the opposing side scores two points.

When a player plays alone and takes all five tricks, he scores four points.

If he takes three tricks he scores one point. If he fails to take three tricks he is euchered, and the opposing side score two points. By some rules to euchre a lone hand counts the opposing side four points.

Cards are used in marking game. The face of the Three being up, and the face of the Four down on it, counts *one*, whether one, two, or three pips are exposed; the face of the

Four being up, and the Three over it, face down, counts *two*, whether one, two, three, or four of the pips are shown ; the face of the Three uppermost counts *three ;* and the face of the Four uppermost counts *four.*

GOLDEN MAXIMS.

Never lose sight of the state of the game. When you are four and four, adopt or make the trump upon a weak hand.

When the game stands three to three, reflect before you adopt or make a trump upon a weak hand, for a euchre will put your adversaries out.

When your are one and your opponents have scored four, you can afford to try and make it alone upon a weaker hand than if the score were more in your favor.

When you are eldest hand and the score stands four for you and one for your opponents, do not fail to order up the trump, to prevent them from playing alone. This is called a "Bridge." You need not do this if you hold the Right Bower, or the Left Bower guarded.

Never trump your partner's winning cards, but throw your losing and single cards upon them.

If your partner adopts or makes the trump, and you hold the Right or Left Bower alone, ruff with it as soon as you can get the opportunity.

When playing second, be careful how you ruff a card of a small denomination the first time round, for it is an even chance that your partner will be able to take the trick if you let it pass. Throw away any single card lower than an Ace, so that you may ruff the suit you throw away when it is led.

When your partner assists, and you hold a card next higher to the turn-up card, ruff with it when an opportunity occurs, for by so doing you give your partner information of value.

When you are in the position of third player, ruff with high or medium trumps.

When your partner leads a lay Ace, and you have none of that suit, do not trump it ; but if you have a single card, throw it away upon it.

When second hand, if compelled to follow suit, head the trick if possible, to strengthen your partner's game.

When you cannot follow suit or trump, dispose of your weakest card.

When opposed to a person playing it alone, be careful how you separate two cards of the same suit. Be cautious how you separate your trumps when you hold the Left Bower guarded.

When it comes your turn to say what you will do, decide promptly, saying, "I pass," "assist," etc., at once.

In discarding endeavor to keep as few suits as possible.

EUCHRE WITH THE JOKER.

A euchre pack is usually accompanied by a specimen blank card, which has given rise to this amusing variety of the game of Euchre. It is called "the Joker," or highest trump card, and ranks above the Right Bower. If this "Joker" should happen to be turned for trump, the dealer must turn up the next card to determine the trump suit. In all other particulars the game is played in the same manner as the regular game of Euchre.

TWO-HANDED EUCHRE.

The rules of the four-handed game apply equally to two-handed euchre.

The player, remembering that he has but a single hand to contend against, may play or even order up, if he has a reasonable hope of making three tricks.

MISDEALS.

A card too many or too few given to either player.

Dealing the cards when the pack has not been properly cut ; the claim for a misdeal in this case must be made before the trump card is turned, and before the adversaries look at their cards.

Whenever a misdeal is attributable to any interruption by the adversaries, the deal will not be forfeited.

If, during the deal, a card be exposed by the dealer or partner, should neither of the adversaries have touched their cards, the latter may claim a new deal, but the deal is not lost.

If, during the deal, the dealer's partner touch any of his cards, the adversaries may do the same without losing their privilege of claiming a new deal should chance give them that option.

If an opponent displays a card dealt, the dealer may make a new deal, unless he or his partner have examined their own cards.

If a deal is made out of turn, it is good, provided it be not discovered before the dealer has discarded, and the eldest hand has led.

If a card is faced in dealing, unless it be the trump card, a new deal may be demanded, but the right to deal is not lost.

If the pack is discovered to be defective, by reason of having more or less than thirty-two cards, the deal is void ; but all the points before made are good.

The dealer, unless he turn down the trump, must discard one card from his hand and take up the trump card.

The discard is not complete until the dealer has placed the card under the pack ; and if the eldest hand makes a lead before the discard is complete, he cannot take back the card thus led, but must let it remain. The dealer, however, may change the card he intended to discard and substitute another, or he may play alone, notwithstanding a card has been led. After the dealer has quitted the discarded card he cannot take it back under any circumstances.

After the discard has been made, the dealer may let the trump card remain upon the table until it is necessary to play it. After the trump card has been taken in hand, no player has a right to demand its denomination, but he may ask what card is trump, and the dealer must inform him.

Should a player play with more than five cards, or the dealer forget to discard or omit to declare the fact before three tricks have been turned, the offending party is debarred from counting any points made in that deal, under these circumstances. Should the adverse side win, they may score all the points they make.

PLAY OUT OF TURN, AND EXPOSURE OF CARDS.

All exposed cards may be called, and the offending party compelled to lead or play the exposed card or cards when he

can legally do so, but in no case can a card be called if a revoke is thereby caused.

EXPOSED CARDS.

Two or more cards played at once.

If a player indicates that he holds a certain card in his hand.

Any card that is dropped with its face upwards.

All cards exposed, by accident or otherwise, so that an opponent can distinguish and name them.

If any player lead out of turn, his adversaries may demand of him to withdraw his card, and the lead may be compelled from the right player, the card improperly led be treated as an exposed card, and called at any time during that deal, provided it causes no revoke.

If any player lead out of turn and the mislead is followed by the other three, the trick stands good; but if only the second, or the second and third, have played to the false lead, their cards, on discovery of their mistake, are taken back, and there is no penalty save against the original offender, whose card may be called.

If a player play out of turn, his opponents may compel him to withdraw his card, and the card so played may be treated as an exposed card, and called at any time during that deal, provided no revoke is thereby caused.

If any player trump a card in error, and thereby induce an opponent to play otherwise than he would have done, the latter may take up his card without penalty, and may call upon the offender to play the trump at any period of the hand.

If two cards be played, or if the player play twice to the same trick, his opponent can elect which of the two shall belong to the trick, provided, however, that no revoke be caused.

If a player, imagining that he can take every trick, or for any other reason, throw down his cards upon the table with their faces exposed, the adverse side may call each and all of the cards so exposed, as they may deem most advantageous to their game, and the delinquent party must play the exposed cards accordingly. This, however, in the case of a lone hand only.

REVOKE.

When a revoke takes place, the adverse party is entitled to add two points to their score.

If a suit is led, and any one of the players, having a card of the same suit, shall play the card of another suit to it—that constitutes a revoke. But if the error be discovered before the trick is quitted, or before the party having so played a wrong suit, or his partner, shall play again, the penalty only amounts to the cards being treated as exposed, and being liable to be called.

When the player, who has made a revoke, corrects his error, his partner, if he has played, cannot change his card played; but the adversary may withdraw his card and play another if he elects to do so.

When a revoke is claimed against adversaries, if they mix their cards, or throw them up, the revoke is taken for granted, and they lose the two points.

No party can claim a revoke after cutting for a new deal.

A revoke on both sides causes forfeit to neither; but a new deal must be made.

If a player makes a revoke, his side cannot count any point or points made in that hand.

A party, refusing to play an exposed card on call, forfeits two to his opponents.

MAKING THE TRUMP, PLAYING ALONE.

Any player making a trump cannot change the suit after having once named it; and if he should by error name the suit previously turned down, he forfeits his right to make the trump, the privilege passing to the next eldest player.

A player may only play alone when he orders up, takes up, or makes a trump; or when his partner assists, orders up, or makes a trump. He cannot play alone with a trump he has passed, or with a trump, the making of which he has passed; nor can he play alone after a lead has been made by himself, or by his opponents.

A player cannot play alone when he or his partner is ordered up by an opponent, or when the opposite side adopt or make the trump.

When a player, having the right to play alone, resolves to do so, his partner cannot supersede him, and play alone instead.

When a player announces that he will go it alone, his partner must place his cards upon the table face downwards, and should the latter expose the face of any of his cards, either by accident or design, his opponents may compel him to play or not to play with his partner, at their option.

A player who goes alone must announce his intention in a clear and audible tone, so that no doubt can be entertained of his design.

DELICATE HINTS BETWEEN PARTNERS.

If a partner indicates his hand by words or gestures to his partner, directs him how to play, even by telling him to follow the rules of the game, or in any way acts out of order, the adversary scores one point.

If a player, when his side is at a bridge, call the attention of his partner to the fact, so that the latter orders up, the latter forfeits the right to order up, and either of the opponents may play alone, if they choose so to do.

No player has a right to see any trick but the one last turned.

DRAW-POKER.

IT requires a pack of fifty-two cards to play this game, and any number of persons from two to six.

THE DEAL.

Before the dealer begins to deal the cards, the player next to his left, who is called the *Ante-man*, or *Age*, must deposit in the pool an *ante* not exceeding one-half the limit previously agreed upon; this is called a *blind*.

The deal is executed by giving five cards to each player, one at a time, beginning with the player to the left of the dealer.

THE ORIGINAL HAND.

After the cards have been dealt the players consult their hands, and each player, in rotation, beginning with the player to the left of the *Age*, determines whether he will *go in* or not. Any player who decides to go in—that is, to play for the pool, must put into the pool double the amount of the ante, except the player holding the Age, who contributes the same amount as his original ante.

Those who declare they will not play throw their cards, face downward, upon the table in front of the next dealer.

Any player, when it is his turn, and after making the ante good, may *raise*, *i. e.*, increase the ante any amount within the limit of the game; the next player, after making good the ante and raise, may then also raise it any amount within the limit; and so on. Each player as he makes good and pays a share that equalizes his with the other players who are in before him, may thus increase the ante if he chooses, compelling the others to pay up that increase, or abandon their share of the pool.

Each player who raises the ante, must do so in rotation, going round to the left, and any player who remains in to play, must put in the pool as much as will make his stake equal to such increase, or abandon everything which he has already contributed to the pool.

STRADDLE.

When betting upon the *original hand*, the *straddle* may be introduced The straddle is nothing more than a double blind.

The straddle does not give a player the *Age*, it only gives him the first opportunity to be the last in before the draw; that is, the player to the left of the last straddler, after looking at his hand, and before the draw, must be the first to declare whether he will make good the straddle, and so on, in rotation, up to the player who made the last straddle. After the draw, the player to the left of the *Age* must make the first bet, provided he remains in.

FILLING THE HANDS.

When all are in who intend to play, each player has the right to draw any number of cards he chooses, from one to five, or he can retain the cards originally dealt to him. If a player draws cards, he must discard a like number from his hand previous to drawing, and the rejected cards must be placed face downward upon the table near the next dealer.

The dealer asks each player in rotation, beginning with the holder of the *Age*, how many cards he wants, and, when the player has discarded, he gives the number requested from the top of the pack. When the other hands have been helped, the dealer, if he has "gone in," and wants cards, then helps himself last.

BET, RAISE, AND CALL.

When all the hands are filled, the player to the left of the *Age* has the first say, and he must either bet or retire from the game, forfeiting what he has already staked. The same with all the other players, in rotation, up to the *Age*. When a player makes a bet, the next player must either *see him*—that is, put in the pool an equal amount, or *go better*—that is, make the previous bet good, and raise it any amount not exceeding the limit; or he must retire. This continues either until some one player drives all the others out of the game, and takes the pool without showing his hand; or until all the other players who remain in see the last *raise* (no one going better) and *call* the player who made the last *raise*. In this event, that is, when a *call* is made, the players remaining in all show their hands, and the strongest hand takes the pool.

If all the players pass, up to the Age, the latter takes the pool, and the deal ends.

VALUE.

One Pair.—If two players each hold a pair, the highest pair wins; if the two are similar, the highest remaining card wins.

Two Pair.—If the players each hold two pairs, the highest pair wins. If the two pairs are similar, the player whose remaining card is the highest wins.

Triplets.—Three cards of the same denomination, not accompanied by a pair. The highest triplet wins. Triplets beat two pairs.

A Straight.—A sequence of five cards not all of the same suit. An Ace may either begin or end a straight. If more than one player holds a straight, the straight headed by the highest card wins. A straight will beat triplets.

A Flush.—Five cards of the same suit, not in sequence. If more than one player holds a flush, the flush containing the highest card wins; if the highest cards tie, the next highest cards in those two hands wins, and so on. A flush will beat a straight, and consequently, triplets.

A Full.—Three cards of the same denomination and a pair. If more than one player holds a full, the highest triplets win. A full will beat a flush.

Fours.—Four cards of the same denomination, accompanied by any other card. If more than one player holds fours, the highest fours win. When straights are not played, fours beat a straight flush

A Straight Flush.—A sequence of five cards, all of the same suit. If more than one player holds a straight flush, the winning hand is determined in the same manner as the straight, which see.

When none of the foregoing hands are shown, the highest card wins; if these tie, the next highest in those two hands, and so on.

If, upon a *call* for a show of hands, it occurs that two or more parties interested in the call hold hands identical in value, and those hands are the best out, the parties thus tied must divide the pool, share and share alike.

THE TECNICAL TERMS.

Age.—Same as eldest hand.

Ante.—The stake deposited in the pool by the Age at the beginning of the game.

Blaze.—This hand consists of five court cards, and, when it is played, beats two pairs.

Blind.—The ante deposited by the Age previous to the

deal. The blind may be doubled by the player to the left of the eldest hand, and the next player to the left may at his option *straddle* this bet; and so on, including the dealer, each player doubling. The player to the left of the Age alone has the privilege of the first straddle, and if he decline to straddle, it debars any other player coming after him from doing so. To make a blind good costs double the amount of the ante, and to make a straddle good costs four times the amount of the blind. Each succeeding straddle costs double the preceding one.

Call.—When the bet goes round to the last better, a player who remains in, if he does not wish to see and go better, simply sees and calls, and then all those playing show their hands, and the highest hand wins the pool.

Chips.—Ivory or bone tokens, representing a fixed value in money.

Discard.—To take from your hand the number of cards you intend to draw and place them on the table, near the next dealer, face downwards.

Draw.—After discarding one or more cards, to receive a corresponding number from the dealer.

Eldest Hand, or Age.—The player immediately at the left of the dealer.

Filling.—To match, or strengthen the cards to which you draw.

Foul Hand.—A hand composed of more or less than five cards.

Going Better.—When *any* player makes a bet, it is the privilege of the *next player to the left to raise him*—after making good the amount already bet by his adversary, to make a still higher bet.

Going In.—Making good the ante of the Age and the straddles (if any) for the privilege of drawing cards and playing for the pool.

Limit.—A condition made at the beginning of a game, limiting the amount of any single bet or raise.

Making Good.—Depositing in the pool an amount equal to any bet previously made. This is done previous to raising or calling a player, and is sometimes called *seeing* a bet.

Original Hand.—The first five cards dealt to any player.

Pat Hand.—An original hand not likely to be improved by drawing, such as a full, straight, flush or pairs.

Pass.—"*I Pass*," signifies that a player throws up his hand and retires from the game.

Jack Pots.—Comes from out West. See page 412.

Raising a Bet.—The same as *going better*.

Say.—When it is the turn of any player to declare what he will do, whether he will *bet*, or *pass* his hand, it is said to be his *say*.

Seeing a Bet.—Synonymous with *making good*.

Straddle.—Refer to *Blind*.

Table-Stakes.—A table-stake signifies that each player places his stake where it may be seen, and that a player cannot be raised more than he has upon the table; but, at any time between deals, he may increase his stake from his pocket, or he may put up any article for convenience' sake, say a key, and state that that makes his stake as large as any other player's, and he is then liable to be raised to any amount equal to the stake of any other player, and must make good with cash. When playing table-stakes if a player have no money on the table, he must put up or declare his stake previous to raising his hand, and failing to do this, he must stand out of the game for that hand.

THE LAWS.

CUT AND DEAL.

The deal is determined by casting one card to each player and the lowest card deals.

In casting for the deal, the Ace is lowest and the King highest. Ties are determined by cutting.

The cards must be shuffled above the table; each player has a right to shuffle the cards, the dealer last.

The player to the right of the dealer must cut the cards.

The dealer must give each player one card at a time, in rotation, beginning to his left, and in this order he must deliver five cards to each player.

If the dealer deals without having the pack properly cut, or if a card is faced in the pack, there must be a fresh deal. The cards are reshuffled and recut, and the dealer deals again.

If a card be accidentally exposed by the dealer while in the act of dealing, the player to whom such card is dealt *must* accept it as though it had not been exposed.

If the dealer give to himself, or either of the other players, *more* or *less* than five cards, and the player receiving such a number of cards discover and announce the fact *before* he raises his hand, it is a misdeal.

If the dealer give to himself, or either of the other players more or less than five cards, and the player receiving such improper number of cards *lift* his hand before he announces the fact, it is not a misdeal, and the player must retire from the game for that hand.

After the first hand the deal proceeds in rotation, beginning with the player to the left of the dealer.

DISCARD AND DRAW.

After the deal has been completed, each player who remains in the game may discard from his hand as many cards as he chooses, or his whole hand, and call upon the dealer to give him a like number from the top of those remaining in the pack. The eldest hand must discard first, and so in regular rotation round to the dealer, who discards last. All the players must discard before any party is helped.

Any player, after having asked for fresh cards, must take the exact number called for; and after cards have once been discarded, they must not again be taken in hand.

Any player, previous to raising his hand or making a bet, may demand of the dealer how many cards he drew, and the latter must reply correctly. By raising his hand, or making a bet, the player forfeits the right to inquire, removing the obligation to answer.

Should the dealer give any player *more* cards than the latter has demanded, and the player discover and announce the fact before raising his cards, the dealer must withdraw the superfluous cards and restore then to the pack. But if the player raise the cards before informing the dealer of the mistake, he must retire from the game during that hand.

Should the dealer give any player fewer cards than the latter has discarded, and the player discover and announce the fact previous to lifting the cards, the dealer must give the player from the pack sufficient cards to make the whole number correspond with the number originally demanded. If the player raise the cards before making the demand for more, he must retire from the game during that hand.

If a player discard and draw fresh cards to his hand, and while serving him the dealer expose one or more of the cards, the dealer must place the exposed cards upon the bottom of the pack, and give to the player a corresponding number from the top of the pack.

BET, CALL AND SHOW.

In opening the pool, the Age makes the first ante, which must not exceed one-half the limit. After the cards are dealt, every player in his proper turn, beginning with the player to the left of the Age, must make this ante good by depositing double the amount in the pool, or retire from the game for that hand.

After the cards have been dealt, any player, in his proper turn, beginning with the player to the left of the Age, after making good the Age's ante, may raise the same any amount not exceeding the limit of the game.

After the hands are filled, any player who remains in the game, may, in his proper turn, beginning with the player to the left of the Age, bet or raise the pool any amount not exceeding the limit of the game.

After the draw has been made, the eldest hand or Age has the privilege of deferring his say until after all the other players have made their bets, or passed. The Age is the last player to declare whether he will play or pass. If, however, the Age pass out of the game *before* the draw, then the next player to his left in the game after the draw, must make the first bet; or failing to bet, must pass out.

If a player, in his regular turn, bet, or raise a bet any amount not exceeding the limit of the game, his adversaries must either *call* him, *go better*, or retire from the game for that hand.

When a player makes a bet he must deposit the amount in the pool.

If a player makes good, or *sees* a bet, and calls for a show of hands, each player must show his entire hand to the board, the caller last, and the best poker hand wins the pool.

If a player bets, or raises a bet, and no other player *goes better* or *calls* him, he wins the pool and cannot be compelled to show his hand.

Upon a show of hands, if a player miscall his hand, he does not lose the pool for that reason, for every hand shows for itself.

If a player pass or throw up his hand, he passes out of the game, and cannot, *under any circumstances whatever*, participate further in that game.

Any player betting with more or less than five cards in his hand, loses the pool, unless his opponents all throw up their hands before discovering the foul hand. If only one player is betting against the foul hand, that player is entitled to the ante and all the money bet; but if there are more than one betting against him, then the best hand among his opponents is entitled to the pool.

If a player makes a bet, and an adversary raises him, and the player who made the previous bet has not money sufficient to see the raise, he can put up all the funds he may have and call for a show for that amount.

None but the eldest hand (the Age) has the privilege of *going a blind*. The party next and to the left of the eldest hand may double the blind, and the next player straddle it, the next double the straddle, and so on, but the amount of the straddle, when made good, must not exceed the limit of the game.

A player cannot straddle a blind and raise it at the same time, nor can any player raise a blind before the cards are dealt.

If the player to the left of the Age decline to straddle a blind, he prevents any other player from doing so.

JACK POT.

This is played as follows: When all the players pass up to the blind hand, the latter allows his blind to remain in the pot, and each of the other players deposits a similar amount. The blind now deals, and any player in *his regular turn* may *open* or *break* the pot, provided he holds a pair of Jacks or better, but a player is not compelled to do so, this being entirely optional.

Each player in turn, commencing with the one at the left of the dealer, declares whether he can and will open the pot.

If no player opens the pot, then each player deposits in the pool the same amount that was previously contributed, and the deal passes to the next player. The same performance or mode of action will continue until some player holds the necessary cards, and is willing to break the pot.

A player may break the pot for any amount within the limits of the game, and each player in turn must make the bet good, raise it, or retire.

After all the players who determine to go in have made good the bet of the player who opened the Jack Pot, and the hands have been filled, then the opener of the pot makes the first bet.

If all pass up to the player who broke the pot, the latter takes the pool, and can only be compelled to show the Jacks, or better, necessary to break the pot.

A player who breaks the pot on a pair, may split the pair in order to draw to a four flush or straight; but, if he does so, he must lay the discard to one side, separate from any other cards, so that after the result has been determined he may satisfy the other players that he broke the pot with a correct hand. If this precaution is not observed, and attention called to it, the delinquent is subject to deposit in the pool, as penalty, twice the amount of his original bet.

If no player come in except the one who broke the pot on an insufficient hand, a new hand must be dealt, and the penalty added to the pot.

STRAIGHT POKER.

Straight Poker, which is sometimes called Bluff, is played with a pack of fifty-two cards. The same rules as those of

Draw Poker govern it. It differs from the latter game in the following particulars only:

I. The winner of the pool has the deal.

II. Each player antes before the cards are cut for the deal.

III. Any player may pass with the privilege of coming in again, provided no player *preceding* him has made a bet.

IV. No player is permitted to discard, or draw any cards.

V. When all the players pass, the eldest hand deals, and each player deposits another ante in the pool, thus making what is termed a "double-header." When a misdeal occurs the rule is the same.

WHISKEY POKER.

Each player contributes one chip to make a pool, and the same rules govern as at Draw Poker, save that the strongest hand you can get is a straight flush. Five cards are dealt to each player, one at a time, and an extra hand is dealt on the table, which is called the "*widow*." The eldest hand then examines his cards, and if, in his judgment, his hand is sufficiently strong, he passes. The next player then has the privilege of the widow, and, supposing him to take it, he then lays his discarded hand (that which he relinquishes for the widow) face up in the centre of the table, and the next player to the left selects from it that card which suits him best in filling his hand, and so on all around the board, each player discarding one card and picking up another, until some one is satisfied, which he signifies by knocking upon the table. When this occurs, all the players around to the satisfied party have the privilege of one more draw, when the hands are shown, and the strongest wins. If any player knocks before the widow is taken, the widow is then turned face up, and each player from him who knocks has but one more draw. Should no one take the widow, but all pass to the dealer, he then turns the widow, and all parties have the right to draw until some one is satisfied.

STUD POKER

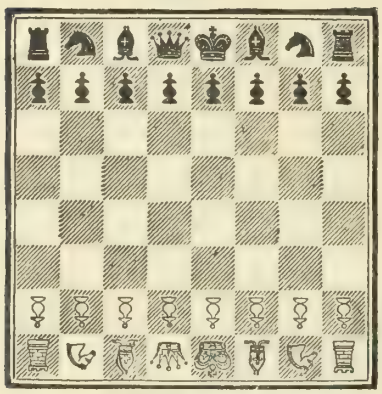
is in all essential particulars like the other Poker games, and is subject to the same laws and mode of betting, passing, etc.

MISTIGRIS

is a variety of a game of Draw Poker, sometimes called Fifty-Three Deck Poker. Mistigris is a name given to the blank card accompanying every pack; the player holding it can call it any card not already in his hand.

GAMES OF SKILL.

Chess.



ORDER OF THE MEN ON THE BOARD.

CHESS is one of the most ancient of known games of skill. Various theories are advanced as to its origin. One account states that the wife of Ravan, King of Ceylon, devised it in order to amuse her royal spouse with an image of war while his metropolis was closely besieged by Rama.

We will now proceed to give the necessary directions for playing the game.

The game is played on a board divided into sixty-four squares, colored alternately black and white. It is the same as that used at draughts. Eight pieces of different denominations and powers, and eight pawns, are allotted to each competitor. As a necessary distinction, each set is colored in a different way, one commonly being white, the other red or black. The pieces are named as follows :



Every player, therefore, is provided with one king, one queen, two bishops, two knights, and two rooks, besides the eight pawns. They are placed, at the beginning of each game, in the order shown at the head of this article.

In placing the board, care must be taken that a white corner square be at the right hand of each player. It should also be observed that the queen must be placed upon a square of her own color.

THE PIECES: THEIR POWERS AND MODE OF ACTION.

The king can move in any direction—forward, backward, sideways, or diagonally, provided always, of course, that he does not move into check. The king possesses one great prerogative—that of *never being taken ;* but, by way of counterbalancing the advantage of this exemption, he is restrained from exposing himself to *check*. He can move only one square at a time, except when he *castles*, which he may do once during each game. He may then move two squares. He cannot *castle* when in *check*, nor after he has once moved, nor with a rook that has been moved, nor if any of the squares over which he has to move be commanded by an adverse piece.

The queen can move either horizontally or diagonally. She

combines the powers of the bishop and the rock. She can, at one move, pass along the whole length of the board, or, if moving diagonally, from corner to corner. Although she can move and take in the same manner as a bishop or as a rook, she must make the whole of one move in one direction, and cannot combine *in one move* the powers of these two pieces: in other words, she cannot move round a corner at one step.

The rook (sometimes called the castle) may pass along the entire length of the board at one move. It may move backwards, or forwards, or sideways—but always horizontally, never diagonally.

The bishop can move only in a diagonal direction, but can go any number of squares, from one to eight, or as far as the space be open. The bishop can never change the color of his square. Thus, the white king's bishop being on a white square at the beginning, remains so throughout the game. This is a necessary consequence of his move being purely diagonal.

The knight has a power of moving which is quite peculiar, and rather difficult to explain. He moves two squares at once in a direction partly diagonal and partly straight. He changes the color of his squares at every move. The knight is the only piece that possesses what is styled the "vaulting motion." He is not precluded from going to a square between which and his own other pieces intervene. Thus, instead of moving your king's pawn two, as your first move, you might, if good play permitted it, move out either of your knights right over the row of pawns in front. This power is possessed by the knight alone, all the other pieces being obliged to wait until there is an opening in front of them before they can emerge.

The pawn moves in a straight line towards the adverse party. It cannot move out of its file except in capturing one of the opposing pawns or pieces, when it steps one square in a diagonal or slanting direction, and occupies the square of the captured piece. It can only be moved one square at a time, excepting in the first move, when the player has the option of advancing it two squares. The pawn is the only piece which cannot retreat, and which does not take in the direction in which it moves. For full explanations relative to "queening the pawn," and taking a pawn *en passant*, see instructions on those points.

ABBREVIATIONS.

The abbreviations which are invariably used in chess publications are the following: K. for king, Q. for queen, B. for bishop, Kt. for knight, R. for rook, P. for pawn, Sq. for square, and Ch. for check. The pieces on one side of the board are distinguished from those on the other in the following manner: Those on the same side as the king are named after him, as K.'s B. (king's bishop), K.'s Kt. (king's knight), K.'s R. (king's rook); while those on the same side as the queen are named Q.'s B. (queen's bishop), Q.'s Kt. (queen's knight), Q.'s R. (queen's rook). The pawns are distinguished in like manner. The pawn occupying the square in front of the K.'s B. is called K.'s B.'s P.; that in front of the K.'s Kt. is called K.'s Kt.'s P.; that in front of the Q.'s R. the Q.'s R.'s P., etc.

CHESS NOTATION.

It is very necessary that the beginner should thoroughly understand the system of notation which is invariably used throughout England, for without it he could never make any use of book games.

The following diagram fully explains it. It will be seen that the moves are reckoned both for black and white.

Black.

Q.R.8.	Q.Kt.8.	Q.B.8.	Q.8.	K.8.	K.B.8.	K.Kt.8.	K.R.8.
Q.R.7.	Q.Kt.7	Q.B.7.	Q.7.	K.7.	R.B 7.	K.Kt.7	K.R.7.
Q.R.6.	Q.Kt.6.	Q.B.6.	Q.6.	K.6.	K.B.6.	K.Kt.6.	K.R.6.
Q.R.5.	Q.Kt.5.	Q.B.5.	Q.5.	K.5.	K.B.5.	K.Kt.5.	K R.5.
Q.R.4.	Q.Kt.4	Q.B.4.	Q 4.	K.4.	K.B.4.	K.Kt.4.	K R.4.
Q.R.3.	Q.Kt.3.	Q.B.3.	Q 3.	K 3.	K.B.3.	K.Kt.3.	K.R.3.
Q.R.2.	Q.Kt.2.	Q.B.2.	Q.2.	K.2.	K.B 2.	K.Kt 2.	K.R.2.
Q.R.sq.	Q.Kt.sq	Q.B.sq	Q.sq.	K.sq.	K.B.sq	K.Kt sq	K.R.sq.

White.

CHESS NOTATION FROM EACH END OF THE BOARD.

Suppose the white queen's bishop moves one square, it is then said to stand on its second, which is the black queen's bishop's seventh. The white king's eighth is the black king's first, and *vice versâ* all through the pieces.

TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN THE GAME.

The Move.—Whichever player opens the game by making the first move is said to have "the move."

Check.—When your king is attacked by any piece, he is said to be "in check," and it is your opponent's duty to give you warning of such an event by crying "Check," when he makes the move. You must then put your king out of check by moving him, by taking the checking piece, or by interposing one of your own men between the checking piece and your king, thus "covering" check, as it is termed.

Checkmate is the term used when the king is in inextricable check, *i.e.*, when none of the above means avail to place him beyond the range of the attacking pieces. When a checkmate is obtained, the game is at an end, that being the sole object.

Discovered Check is when the player moves a pawn or piece from before another piece, thereby opening or "discovering" check: *e.g.*, the black rook may be on a line with the opposing king, the only intervening piece being a black pawn. The removal of this pawn "discovers check."

Double Check is when check is discovered as above, the king being also attacked by the piece moved.

Perpetual Check is when the king of one of the players can be checked almost at every move, and when he has little else

to do but move out of check. When the game has reached this stage, the weaker player may demand that checkmate shall be given in a certain number of moves, in default of which it may be declared a drawn game. (See Rule 8.)

Drawn Game.—A drawn game may arise from several causes:

1. As above.

2. Stalemate. (See "Stalemate.")

3. Equal play. "Between very good players," remarks Phillidor, "it sometimes happens that the equipoise in force and position is constantly sustained in the opening, in the intermediate stages, and in the last result; when either all the exchangeable pieces have been mutually taken, or the remaining forces are equal—as a queen against a queen, a rook against a rook, with no advantage in position, or the pawns are mutually blocked up."

4. Absence of mating power, *i. e.*, when neither player possesses the force requisite to obtain a checkmate. (See "Mating Power.")

5. Unskillful use of a sufficiently strong force. If one player is superior in force to his adversary, and possesses the requisite mating power, the game may still be drawn by the unskillful use of that superiority. If he cannot effect a checkmate in fifty moves it may be declared a drawn game.

Stalemate describes that state of the game when one of the players has nothing left but his king, which is so placed that, although not in check, he cannot move without going into check.

Castling is a double operation, accomplished by moving the king and one of the rooks at the same time. When the removal of the bishop and the knight on the one side, or of the bishop, knight, and queen on the other, has cleared the intervening squares, the king may *castle* with either of his rooks. If it should be done on the king's side of the board, the king is to be placed on the knight's square, and the rook on the bishop's; if in the queen's section, the king must be moved to the bishop's square, and the rook to the queen's. In other words, the king, in either case, must move two squares, and the rook be placed on the opposite side of him to that on which he stood before.

En Prise.—A piece is said to be *en prise* when under attack.

En Passant (*in passing*).—If your adversary has advanced one of his pawns to the fifth square, and you move one of your pawns in either of the adjoining files two squares, he is entitled to take your pawn, *en passant*, as though you had only moved it one square. This peculiar mode of capture can only be effected by pawns.

Ranks and Files.—The lines of squares running from left to right are known as *ranks*, and those perpendicular to them, running from one player to the other, are called *files*.

Passed and Isolated Pawns.—A pawn is said to be "passed" when it is so far advanced that no pawn of the adversary's can oppose it. An isolated pawn is one that stands alone and unsupported.

Double Pawn.—Two pawns on the same file.

"*J'adoube*" (signifying *I adjust* or *I arrange*) is the expression generally used when a player touches a piece to arrange it without the intention of making a move. Perhaps it is not absolutely necessary that he should say "*J'adoube*," but he must at any rate use an equivalent expression.

To Interpose.—This term explains itself. If your king or one of your pieces is attacked, and you move another of your pieces between the attacking piece and the piece attacked, either for the purpose of covering check, or as a means of protection, or with any other object, you are said to "interpose."

Winning the Exchange.—You are said "to win the exchange" when you gain a rook for a bishop, a bishop for a knight, or, in short, whenever you gain a superior piece by giving an inferior.

Queening a Pawn.—You are said to "queen a pawn" when you advance it to the eighth square on the file. You may then claim a queen or any other piece in exchange for it. Formerly the rule was, that you might substitute for it any piece you had previously lost, but according to the modern game three or more rooks, or bishops, or knights may be obtained in this way.

Gambit.—This term, which is derived from the Italian, describes an opening in which a pawn is purposely sacrificed at an early stage of the game, in order subsequently to gain an advantage. Several gambits are distinguished by the names of their inventors, such as the Cochrane gambit, the Muzio gambit, the Salvio gambit, etc.; there are also the bishop's gambit, the queen's gambit, etc., etc.

Mating Power.—The force requisite to bring about a checkmate: a king and queen against king and two bishops, king and two knights, king and bishop and knight, or against king and rook, can effect checkmate. King and two bishops can mate against king and bishop, or king and knight. King with two bishops and knight can mate against king and rook. King with rook and bishop can mate against rook and king. King can always draw against king and bishop, or king and knight. King and rook against either a king and bishop, or king and knight, makes a drawn game, etc.

LAWS OF THE GAME.

The following laws are in force in all the principal clubs in this country:

1. If a player touch one of his men, unless for the purpose of adjusting it, when he must say "*J'adoube*" (see Law 4), or it being his turn to move, he must move the piece he has so touched.

[Walker gives the following remarks on this law: "When you touch a piece with the *bona fide* intention of playing it, the saying *J'adoube* will not exonerate you from completing the move. A chess-player's meaning cannot be misunderstood on the point; and were it otherwise, you might hold a man in your hand for five minutes, and then saying '*J'adoube*,' replace it, and move elsewhere."]

2. If the men are not placed properly at the beginning of the game, and this is discovered before four moves have been made on each side, the game must be recommenced. If the mistake should not be found out till after four moves have been made, the game must be proceeded with.

3. Where the players are even, they must draw lots for the first move, after which they take the first move alternately. When a player gives odds, he has the option of making the first move, and the choice of men in every game.

[In giving odds, should it be agreed upon to give a pawn, it is customary to take the K. B. P. If a piece is to be given, it may be taken from either the king's or queen's side.]

4. If a player should accidentally or otherwise move or touch one of his men without saying "*J'adoube*," his adversary may compel him to move either the man he has touched or his king, provided the latter is not in check.

5. When a player gives check, and fails to give notice by crying "Check," his adversary need not, unless he think proper, place his king out of check, nor cover.

[If it is discovered that the king is in check, and has been so for several moves past, the players must move the men back to the point at which they stood when check was given. If they cannot agree as to when check was first given, the player who is in check must retract his last move, and defend his king.]

6. The player who effects checkmate wins the game.

7. Stalemate constitutes a draw game.

8. So long as you retain your hold of a piece you may move it where you will.

9. Should you move one of your adversary's men instead of your own, he may compel you to take the piece you have touched, should it be *en prise*, or to replace it and move your king; provided, of course, that you can do so without placing him in check.

10. Should you capture a man with one that cannot legally take it, your adversary may compel you either to take such piece (should it be *en prise*) with one that *can* legally take it, or to move the piece touched; provided that by so doing you do not discover check, in which case you may be directed to move your king.

11. Should you move out of your turn, your adversary may compel you either to retract the move, or leave the piece where you placed it, as he may think most advantageous.

12. If you touch the king and rook, intending to castle, and have quitted hold of the one piece, you must complete the act of castling. If you retain your hold of both, your adversary may compel you to move either of them.

13. The game must be declared to be drawn should you fail to give checkmate in fifty moves, when you have

King and queen against king.	King and pawn against king.
King and rook "	King and two pawns "
King and two bishops "	King and minor piece "
King, bishop, and kt. "	

14. Drawn games of every description count for nothing.

15. Neither player may leave a game unfinished, nor leave the room without the permission of his adversary.

16. Lookers-on are not permitted to speak, nor in any way express their approbation or disapprobation while a game is pending.

17. In case a dispute should arise on any point not provided for by the laws, a third party must be appealed to, and his decision shall be final.

HINTS FOR COMMENCING THE GAME.

To open the game well, some of the pawns should be played out first. The royal pawns, particularly, should be advanced to their fourth square; it is not often safe to advance them farther. The bishop's pawn should also be played out early in the game; but it is not always well to advance the rook's and knight's pawns too hastily, as these afford an excellent protection to your king in case you should castle. Phillidor describes pawn-playing as the "the soul of chess." When they are not too far advanced, and are so placed as to be mutually supporting, they present a strong barrier to the advance of your adversary, and prevent him from taking up a commanding position. If you play your pieces out too early, and advance too far, your adversary may oblige you to bring them back again by advancing his pawns upon them, and you thus lose time.

Do not commence your attack until you are well prepared. A weak attack often results in disaster. If your attack is likely to prove successful, do not be diverted from it by any bait which your adversary may purposely put in your way. Pause, lest you fall into a snare.

Beware of giving check uselessly—*i. e.*, unless you have in view the obtaining of some advantage. A useless check is a move lost, which may, particularly between good players, decide the game.

It is generally injudicious to make an exchange when your position is good, or when, by so doing, you bring one of your adversary's pieces into good play. Never make an exchange without considering the consequences. When your game is crowded and ill arranged and your position inferior, it is advantageous to exchange. Sometimes also, when you are much superior in force, it is worth your while to make an equal exchange.

The operation of castling often relieves a crowded game. A lost opportunity of castling, or castling at the wrong time, is a disadvantage which may be turned to account by your adversary.

Never put your queen before your king in such a way that your adversary may bring forward a bishop or rook and attack her, and the king through her. In such a case, unless you can interpose another piece, you will inevitably lose your queen.

It is good play to "double" your rooks—*i. e.*, to make them mutually supporting. Don't bring your rooks into active play too soon. They can generally operate most effectively at a distance, and they are therefore of most value toward the end of a game, when the board is comparatively clear.

From time to time take a review of the game. Although an incurably tedious player is a general nuisance, it is mere folly to play without "knowing the reason why." To take an occasional review of the game gets you into a systematic habit. When near the close, take notice of the position of your adversary's pawns, and if you find that you can queen before him, make all haste to do so; if not, attack his pawn so as to prevent him from queening. If your adversary possesses a decided advantage, look out for a means of drawing the game.

Do not stick to one opening, but learn as many as you can

Always be willing to accept odds of a better player, so that the game may be interesting to him. If you should lose, it is natural that you should feel inwardly chagrined, but do not let your disappointment be perceived. "Keep your temper" is a golden rule. Do not give up the game before you are quite sure it is lost. On the other hand, you should not too hastily jump to the conclusion that you have won it.

It is necessary that you should occasionally study some of the best book games, but without actual practice proficiency can seldom be attained.

Endeavor to understand the reasons which lead to your adversary's moves, and take measures accordingly.

"OPENINGS" OF GAMES.—The principal openings are the king's gambit, the queen's gambit, the king's knight's opening, the king's bishop's opening, etc. From these spring the various gambits, known as the Evans, the Muzio, the Cunningham, the Allgaier, the Cochrane, the Giuoco piano, etc., most of them deriving their names from the inventors. All these gambits have a variety of subdivisions, and openings not founded on them are termed irregular openings. We shall, after defining each of the most celebrated of these openings, give illustrations of them.

The King's Gambit.—In this gambit, the first player advances his K. B. P. two squares at his second move.

The Queen's Gambit is when the first player, at his second move, advances his Q. B. P. two squares.

King's Bishop's Gambit is so styled because the first player brings out the K. B. at his second move.

King's Knight's Gambit.—In this much-used opening the first player brings out his K. Kt. at his second move.

The Evans Gambit, so styled from its inventor, Captain W. D. Evans, R. N., is when the player advances Q. Kt. P. two at his fourth move, and sacrifices it, with the object of recovering at least its equivalent, at the same time obtaining a decided lead.

Besides the above, there are the queen's pawn-two-opening, the queen's bishop's pawn's opening, the Lopez gambit, the king's pawn-one-opening, the queen's counter-gambit, the king's rook's pawn's gambit, the Allgaier gambit, the Muzio gambit, the Cochrane gambit, the Cunningham gambit, the bishop's gambit, the Damian's gambit, the Greco counter-gambi , etc., etc.

In an article of such limited scope as the present, it would be impossible to treat at any length upon every one of these openings. We shall therefore content ourselves with making a selection which will be at once interesting and suitable for beginners. In every case we have preferred to give those variations which are considered the *best* and *most legitimate*, believing that the study and practice of such positions will be more advantageous to the learner than giving, as some writers do, inferior play and positions, and then afterward giving the correct ones.

The King's Gambit.—

White.	Black.
1. K. P. 2.	1. K. P. 2.
2. K. B. P. 2.	2. P. takes P.
3. K. Kt. to B. 3.	3. K. Kt. P. 2.
4. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	

There has been much difference of opinion as to the move which black should now make. Some writers prefer advancing K. Kt. P., whilst Walker and a whole host of authorities think it better to place the K. B at Kt. second: "Although," says Walker, "playing the pawn is productive of more brilliant situations." He advises both moves for practice.

King's Bishop's Opening.—This opening is considered by the great chess master, Phillidor, as the very finest opening for the first player, as it brings out the bishop at the second move, and immediately attacks black's K. B. P., his weakest point. From this opening spring some of the finest and most difficult combinations known. It commences thus:

White.	Black.
1. K. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	2. K. B. to Q. B. 4 (best).
3. P. to Q. B. 3.	3. Q. to K. 2 (good).
4. K. Kt. to B. 3.	

Some prefer to play the Kt. to K. 2, but in our opinion this is not so good as to B. 3, because in the former case black could take K. B. P. with his bishop (check); and if white K. takes bishop, black queen gives check at her B. 4, and white loses bishop.

White.	Black.
	4. K. Kt. to B. 3.
5. Q. to K. 2.	5. P. to Q. 3.
6. P. to Q. 3.	6. P. to Q. B. 3

If black plays his Q. B., pinning Kt., white will advance R. P., which will cause black either to retire bishop (which will be losing time) or force an exchange, which will open the game to white's queen. Therefore it will be better for black to play P. to Q. B. 3, as we have given it, which will leave the game pretty equal up to this point. If black, at his third move, replies as follows—which is an inferior move—then the game proceeds thus:

White.	Black.
	3. K. Kt. to B. 3.
4. P. to Q. 4.	4. P. takes P.
5. P. to K. 5.	5. Kt. to K. 5
6. Q. to K. 2.	6. Kt. to Kt. 4.
7. P. to K. B. 4.	7. Kt. to K. 3.
8. P. to K. B. 5.	
If black now play	8. Kt. to K. B.,

white has the best of the game, and ought to win; but if black play Kt. to Kt. 4, white will play Q. to K. R. 5, and then P. to K. R. 4. If white at his third move should play Q. to K. 2, attacking K. B. P. and threatening ch. with Q. and capture of bishop, and if black advance Q. P. one, it may then become the Ruy Lopez gambit by white playing as his fourth move P. to K. B. 4. If the gambit referred to be not properly met, it leads to strong positions of attack. It is better for the second player to refuse the pawn offered.

King's Knight's Opening.—This is a sound opening, and has been largely treated upon by many writers. Some fine situations spring from it. At the second move, white directly attacks K. P. with K. Kt. We will give the opening, and a few brief remarks thereon, together with a game arising from it:

White.	Black.
1. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. K. Kt. to B. 3.	

For black, in reply to this, to move P. to K. B. 3, would

only show weak play, and would enable white to win in a few moves, or at any rate to obtain a rook and a pawn in exchange for a knight. Black's best answer is the following:

2. Q Kt. to B. 3.

Black thus defends his pawn, and has the advantage of a counter-attack.

King's Knight's Gambit.—This is a variation of the king's gambit, brought about by white at his fourth move advancing the K. R. P. before bringing out his K. B. This variation brings out some fine play, but is not so strong for the first player as the king's gambit proper. The Allgaier gambit springs from this opening.

White.	Black.
1. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. P. to K. B. 4.	2. P. takes P.
3. K. Kt. to B. 3.	3. P. to K. Kt. 4.
4. P. to K. R. 4.	4. P. to K. Kt. 5 (best).
5. K. Kt. to K. 5.	

By white's last move the game emerges into the Allgaier. Black's best move now is

	5. P. to K. R. 4.
6. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	6. R. to K. 2.

This move of black's is considered better than K. Kt. to R. 3.

7. P. to Q. 4.	7. P. to Q. 3.
8. Kt. to Q. 3.	8. K. B. P. advances.

If white now plays K. Kt. P., black has the best of the game by keeping the gambit pawn. If white attacks queen with bishop, black will give check with pawn, and have the stronger game. Most authorities consider this opening weak for the first player.

The Allgaier Gambit.—This opening, the invention of a noted German from whom it takes its name, arises out of the king's knight's gambit, as detailed in the preceding paragraph. It is not a safe opening, although, if successful, it will prove a strong one. When properly met, the siege is soon raised, and the second player will stand in the better position. It is, however, a fine opening, and requires cautious play on both sides. It is as follows:

White.	Black.
1. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. P. to K. B. 4.	2. P. takes P.
3. K. Kt. to B. 3.	3. P. to K. Kt. 4.
4. P. to K. R. 4.	4. P to K. Kt. 5.
5. K. Kt. to Kt. 5.	

White's fifth move constitutes the Allgaier gambit, white intending to sacrifice the knight if attacked by the pawns. Black may reply in several ways, but in our opinion his best move is the following:

	5. P. to K. R. 3.

Black by this move wins the knight.

6. Kt. takes K. B. P.	6. K. takes Kt.
7. Q. takes P.	7. K. Kt. to B. 3.
8. Q. takes B. P.	

The last move is much better than giving check with the bishop, which would only have the effect of involving white's game. Walker says, "No better move can be played at this crisis." It will be good practice for the student to continue the above opening, and exercise his ingenuity by finishing the game.

The Muzio Gambit.—This is another variation of the king's gambit, and is produced by white offering to sacrifice knight in order to gain a strong attacking position. It is the invention of Signor Muzio, an Italian player of some eminence. Walker says this may be classed as the most brilliant and critical opening known, and recommends the student to play it at every opportunity; he also throws out the warning that an incorrect move may irrecoverably lose the game. The defense is most difficult to discover in actual play.

White.	Black.
1. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. P. to K. B. 4.	2. P. takes P.
3. K. Kt. to B. 3.	3. P. to K. Kt. 4.
4. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	4. K. Kt. P. advances.
5. Castles.	

This move constitutes the gambit; for, instead of white withdrawing his Kt., or moving it to Q. 4, he allows it to remain and be taken. It now rests with black whether he will accept the gambit. Walker says he cannot do better.

	5. P. takes Kt.
6. Q. takes P.	6. Q. to K. B. 3 (best).

This last move is Sarratt's defense, which is clearly shown to be the best.

7. K. P. advances.	7. Q. takes K. P.

This is black's best move, for, if he did not take P., white at once obtains the advantage by playing P. to Q. 2, defending K. P. If black play Q. to Kt. 3 (ch.), white moves K. to R. sq., and ought to win.

The Scotch Gambit, or *Queen's Pawn Two Opening.*—This gambit has a fine, dashing attack, and one of its advantages is, that in case it should miscarry, the disaster is comparatively slight. "It is," as Walker says, "one of the most attacking yet safe methods of commencing the game which can possibly be adopted." Again, "It is alike fertile in resource and safe in results."

White.	Black.
1. P. to K. 4.	1. P. to K. 4.
2. K. Kt. to B. 3.	2. Q. Kt. to B. 3.
3. P. to Q. 4.	

The third move of white gives it the name of the Queen's Pawn Two Opening. White plays the pawn for the purpose of opening the game, especially for his bishops. Black may now take the pawn either with his P. or Kt. We will suppose him to do the former, which we consider best:

	3. P. takes P.
4. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	

Some players now give black's fourth move as B. to Q. Kt. 5 (ch.); but this is a decidedly bad move, and with an indifferent player would lose the game. Black's best move is that introduced by Macdonnell, and described by Walker as a sound defense. We give it below:

	4. Q. to K. B. 3.

White may now castle, or play P. to Q. B. 3; either of which is better than Kt. or B. to K. Kt. 5.

HOW TO FINISH THE GAME.

Having now considered the "Hints for Commencing the Game," and studied most of the principal openings, we must say a few words with regard to finishing the game. It is often very difficult to checkmate when you have a king, bishop, and knight against a king. Although possessing the requisite mating power, good players have often failed to accomplish the

the mate within the stipulated fifty moves. The only way in which it can be done is by driving the adverse king to a corner commanded by your bishop. The better to convey our meaning, we give an illustration. Suppose the men to be placed thus:

White K. at K. B. 6.
" K. B. at K. B. 5.
" Kt. at K. Kt. 5.
Black K. at K. R. sq.

Then, in eighteen moves, white may effect checkmate:

White.	Black.
1. Kt. to K. B. 7 (ch.).	1. K. to Kt. sq.
2. B. to K. 4.	2. K. to K. B. sq.
3. B. to K. R. 7.	3. K. to K. sq.
4. Kt. to K. 5.	4. K. to K. B. sq.
5. Kt. to Q. 2.	5. K. to K. sq.
6. K. to K. sq.	6. K. to Q. sq.
7. K. to Q. 6.	7. K. to K. sq.
8. B. to K. Kt. 6 (ch.).	8. K. to Q. sq.
9. Kt. to Q. B. 5.	9. K. to Q. B. sq.
10. B. to B. 7.	10. K. to Q. sq.
11. Kt. to Q. Kt. 7 (ch.).	11. K. to Q. B. sq.
12. K. to Q. B. 6.	12. K. to Q. Kt. sq.
13. K. to Q. Kt. 6.	13. K. to Q. B. sq.
14. B. to K. 6 (ch.).	14. K. to Q. Kt. sq.
15. Kt. to Q. B. 5.	15. K. to Q. R. sq.
16. B. to Q. 7.	16. K. to Q. Kt. sq.
17. Kt. to Q. R. 6 (ch.).	17. K. to Q. R. sq.
18. B. to Q. B. 6, checkm.	

As will be observed from the above example, one of the important objects is never to let the king escape into the middle of the board.

In our chapter on checkmate we should not omit to give the "Fool's Mate" and the "Scholar's Mate."

The former shows that it is possible to effect mate in as few as two moves. It is easy to understand why it should be named the "fool's mate;" but why a checkmate which may be effected in four moves should be termed "scholar's mate" is probably less capable of explanation.

Fool's Mate.—

White.	Black.
1. K. Kt. P. 2 sq.	1. K. P. 2.
2. K. B. P. 1 sq.	2 Queen mates

Scholar's Mate.—

White.	Black.
1. K. P. 2	1. K. P. 2.
2. K. B. to Q. B. 4.	2. K. B. to Q. B. 4.
3. Q. to K. R. 5.	2. Q. P. 1.
4. Q. takes K. B. P., giving "scholar's mate."	

King and Queen against King.—Several examples of this checkmate might be given, but the one below will probably be sufficient. The principal point upon which the learner need be warned is against allowing his adversary to effect stalemate. Suppose the pieces to be placed thus:

White king at K. sq.
" queen at Q. B. sq.
Black king at Q. 3.

The game may then proceed as follows:

White.	Black.
1. Q. to K. Kt. 5.	1. K. to K. 4.
2. K. to K. 2.	2. K. to Q. 3.
3. K. to K. 3.	3. K. to K. 3.
4. K. to K. 4.	4 K. to Q. 3
5. Q. to K. Kt. 6.	5.
6. K. advances.	6.
7. Q. mates.	

King and Queen against King and Rook.—Suppose the men to be placed thus:

White king at K. B. 3.
" queen at K. sq.
Black king at K. R. 7.
" rook, at K. Kt. 7,

supposing white to have the first move, the game may be completed in three moves:

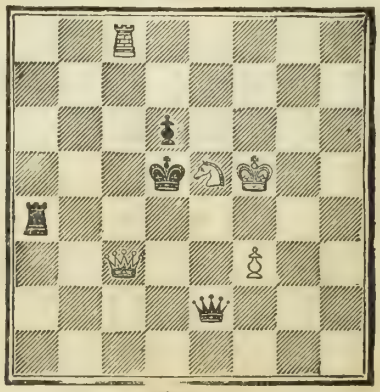
White.	Black.
1. Q. to K. 5 (ch.).	1. K. to R. 8.
2. Q. to Q. R. (ch.).	2. K. moves.
3. Q. to K. sq., and wins.	

PROBLEMS.

The following problems are selected from various sources, and are given because they are just sufficiently difficult to exercise the ingenuity of the learner. At the same time, we would caution him against too close a study of problems until he is well up in the game, for, if followed up, it will only tend to weary and tire him, and the result may be that he will throw up the game with dislike.

PROBLEM No. 1.

Black.

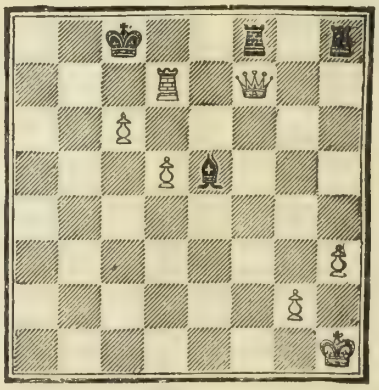


White.

White to move, and mate in two moves.

PROBLEM No. 2.

Black.

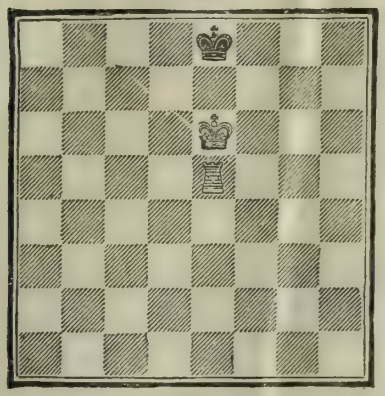


White.

White to move, and mate in two moves.

PROBLEM No. 3.

Black.

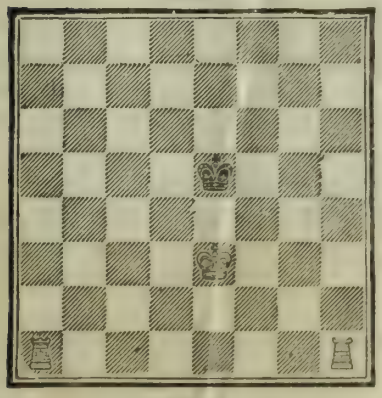


White.

White to move, and mate in three moves.

PROBLEM No. 4.

Black.

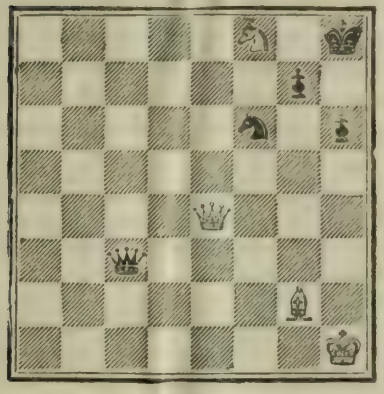


White.

White to move, and mate in three moves.

PROBLEM No. 5.

Black.

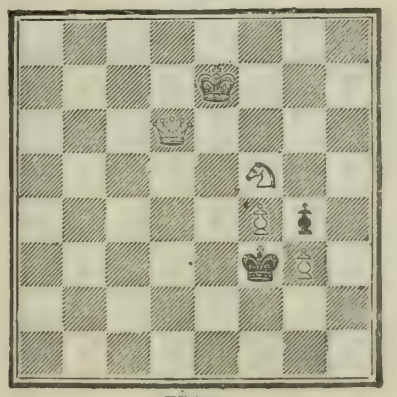


White.

White to move, and mate in three moves.

PROBLEM No. 6.

Black.

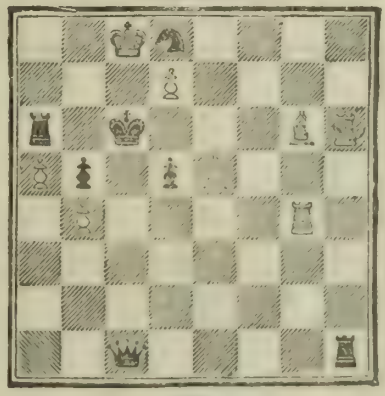


White.

White to move, and mate in three moves.

PROBLEM No. 7.

Black.

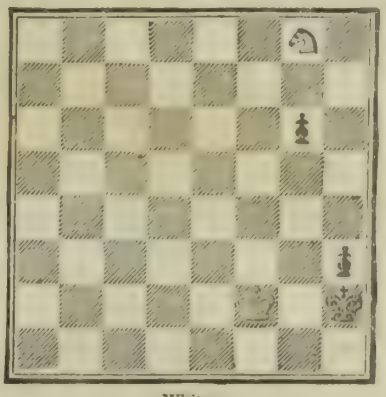


White.

White to move, and mate in three moves.

PROBLEM No. 8.

Black.

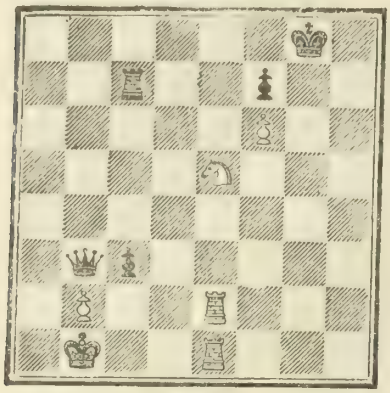


White.

White to move, and mate in four moves.

PROBLEM No. 9.

Black.



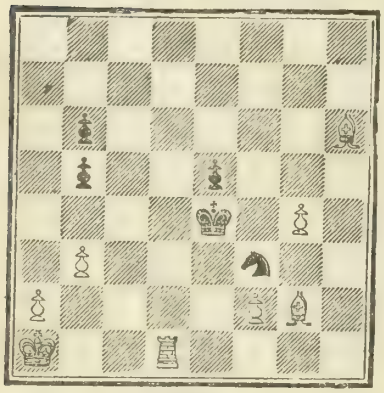
White.

White to move, and mate in four moves.

PROBLEM No. 10.

(The Indian Problem.)

Black.



White.

White to move, and mate in four moves

SOLUTIONS OF THE PROBLEMS.

PROBLEM 1.

White.	Black.
1. Q. to B. 4 (ch.).	1. P. takes Q.
2. R. to Q. 8, mate	

PROBLEM 2.

White.	Black.
1. R. to Q. 8 (ch.).	1. K. takes R.
2. Q. to Q. 7, mate.	

PROBLEM 3.

White.	Black.
1. R. to K. sq.	1. K. to B. sq.
2. R. to K. Kt. sq.	2. K. to K. sq.
3. R. to Kt. 8. mate.	

PROBLEM 4.

Whit .	Black.
1. K. R. to R. 6.	1. K. to K.B 4.
2. Q. R. to K. Kt. sq.	2. K. to K. 4.
3. R. to Kt. 5, mate.	

There are two other solutions to this problem.

PROBLEM 5.

White.	Black.
1. Q. to K. R. 7.	1. Q. Kt. takes Q.
2. Kt. to Kt. 6 (ch.).	2. K. to Kt. sq.
3. B. to Q. 5, mate.	

PROBLEM 6.

White.	Black.
1. Q. to Q. 2.	1. K. moves.
2. Q. to Q. sq.	2. K. takes Kt.
3. Q. mates.	

PROBLEM 7.

White.	Black.
1. R. to Q. B. 2 (dis. ch.).	1. R. takes R.
2 R. to Q. B. 4. (ch.).	2. P. takes R.
3. B. mates.	

PROBLEM 8.

White.	Black.
1. Kt. to K. B. 6.	1. P. advances.
2. Kt. to K. 4 (ch.).	2. K. to R. 8.
3. K. to B. sq.	3. R. P. 1.
4. Kt. to B. 2, mate.	

PROBLEM 9.

White.	Black.
1. R. to K. Kt. 2 (ch.).	1. K. to B. sq.
2. Kt. to Q. 7 (ch.).	2. R. takes Kt.
3. R. to K. 8 (ch.).	3. K. takes R.
4. R. to Kt. 8, mate.	

PROBLEM 10.

(The Indian Problem.)

White.	Black.
1. B. to Q. B. sq.	1. P. moves.
2. R. to Q. 2.	2. P. moves.
3. K. moves.	3. K. moves
4. R. to Q. 4 (dis. checkm.).	

DRAUGHTS.

DRAUGHTS is a game that is very often underrated, because it is supposed that there is little or no play in it, and thus, when a person is asked if he plays draughts, his reply is not unusually, "No, it is such a stupid game; there's no play in it."

Whenever this remark is made to us, we challenge the person to a series of games, when, having beaten him some half-dozen in succession, we prove that there must be some play in the game, or such a result would be improbable.

When playing chess, there are so many pieces, each having a different moving power and a relative value, that one oversight, caused probably by a momentary relaxation of memory, loses a game, whereas in draughts such a result is less probable, and the attention can be more completely devoted to some plot, through which the opponent does not see. As a rule, a good draught-player is a more acute person on every-day subjects than is a good chess-player, and thus we strongly recommend draughts as a game likely to call into action very useful qualities.

Draughts is played on the same board as is chess, the men, however, being placed entirely on squares of one color.

There are twelve men on each side, arranged on the squares from 1 to 12 and from 21 and 32.

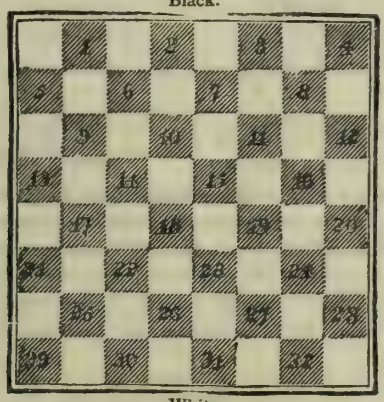
The two squares marked 1 and 5, and 32 and 28, are called the *double corners*, and these must always be on the right-hand of the player, whilst the left-hand lowest squares, 4 and 29, must always be on the left-hand side.

Having arranged the men, the first move is arranged between the players by lot.

The men move one square at a time; thus, the man on 22 can move either to 18 or 17; the man on 23 can move either to 19 or 18. The men can only move forwards, not backwards, until they have succeeded in reaching the bottom row of the adversary's squares, when they are *crowned* by having a second man placed above them. They are then termed *kings*, and can move either forwards or backwards as desirable.

A man may *take* an opponent's man by leaping over him and taking up the vacant square beyond him, the piece taken being removed from the board.

A man may take two or three men at one move, provided he can leap over each in succession. To understand this, place a white man at 18, 11, and 25, and a black man at 29, all other pieces being removed from the board. The black man can move and take the three white men, as he can leap to 22, 15, and 8, thus taking the men on squares 18, 11, and



25. A king can take both backwards and forwards any number of men, as long as a square is open. Thus, place a white man on 25, 26, 27, 19, 10, 9, and 17. A black king at 29 could take all these men at once, for he could leap from 29 to 22, taking 25 man; to 31, taking 26; to 24, taking 27; to 15, taking 19; to 6, taking 10; to 13, taking 9; and to 22, taking 17, and taking all these in one move.

If a man take other men, and in the taking reach the bottom row, he cannot go on taking, as a king, until the adversary has moved.

Example.—Place a white man at 24, 7, 16, and 8, a black man at 28. The black man takes 24 by leaping to 19, takes 16 by leaping to 12, takes 8 by leaping to 3, and is there crowned; but cannot leap to 10, thus taking the man at 7, until the adversary has moved.

The game is won when all the adversary's men are either taken or blockaded so that they cannot move, and it is drawn when two kings or less remain able to move, in spite of the adversary.

LAWS.—The following are the established laws of the game, which should be learned by every person who is desirous of becoming a draught-player.

RULES OF THE GAME OF DRAUGHTS.

The chief laws for regulating the game of draughts are as follows:—

1. Each player takes the first move alternately, whether the last game be won or drawn.
2. Any action which prevents the adversary from having a full view of the men is not allowed.
3. The player who touches a man must play him.
4. In case of standing the huff, which means omitting to take a man when an opportunity for so doing occurred, the other party may either take the man, or insist upon his man, which has been so omitted by his adversary, being taken.
5. If either party, when it is his turn to move, hesitates above three minutes, the other may call upon him to play; and if, after that, he delay above five minutes longer, then he loses the game.
6. In the losing game, the player can insist upon his adversary taking all the men in case opportunities should present themselves for their being so taken.
7. To prevent unnecessary delay, if one color have no pieces but two kings on the board, and the other no piece but one king, the latter can call upon the former to win the game in twenty moves. If he does not finish it within that number of moves, the game to be relinquished as drawn.
8. If there are three kings to two on the board, the subsequent moves are not to exceed forty.

ADVICE.—The men should be kept as much as possible in a wedge form towards the center of the board. Avoid moving a man on the side square, for, when there, he is deprived of half his power, being able to take in one direction only.

Consider well *before* you touch a man, for a man once touched must be moved.

Avoid the cowardly practice of moving a man, and then, when you discover by your adversary's move that you have committed an error, taking your move back. Stand the consequences though the game be lost, and next time you will be more careful. A game, even if won after replacing a man, is unsatisfactory, and not to be counted a victory, and often leads to disputes. The rules are made to avoid *all* argument and dispute, and the more closely, therefore, you obey these, the more harmonious will be your games.

Do not talk during a game, or whistle, or fidget by drumming with the fingers, or in any way act so as to annoy or worry an adversary. A game of draughts, though only a game, may be made a training process for much more important matters. A careless, thoughtless, or worrying draught-player will, undoubtedly, be the same character in worldly matters.

Never allow the loss of a game to cause you to lose your temper, for such a proceeding shows you to be more self-sufficient than intellectual. If beaten, it proves your adversary to be more experienced or quicker-sighted than yourself, and you should, therefore, use all your faculties to discover how he beats you.

As a rule, seek to play with a better player than yourself rather than with a worse, which is merely saying, "Endeavor to improve your own game rather than to instruct a worse player."

When you lose a game, avoid all disparaging remarks, such

as, "Oh, I should have won that if so-and-so had not occurred," etc. Your adversary who defeats you will think more highly of you if you say nothing, or merely acknowledge his greater skill.

If you find a person who defeats you easily, remember how much thought and time he must have devoted to the subject in order to obtain this advantage, and bear in mind that it is only by a similar process that you can gain like results.

GAMES.

Draughts is a game in which one is particularly called upon to estimate the skill and style of play of one's adversary. One person may very easily be drawn into a trap, where another more cautious could not be thus defeated. Again, a too cautious player may be defeated by a dashing move, whereas another opponent would win the game in consequence. We will now give one or two examples of games, calling attention to the points in each. The men are supposed to be arranged as before mentioned—white's men from 21 to 32, black's from 1 to 12. Black moves first.

Black.	White.
11 to 15.	22 to 18.
15 to 22 (takes).	25 to 18 (takes).
8 to 11.	29 to 25.

Now, at this point of the game, if white were a very young or incautious player, he might be easily tempted into a false move by black moving 11 to 16, for white, seeing a supposed advantage in position, might move 24 to 20. Let us suppose these moves to have been made, and black wins at once, for, moving 3 to 8, he compels white to take 20 to 11, and then, with a man at 8, takes 11, 18, and 25, and procures a king at 29, thus gaining a majority of two men, an advantage equivalent to the game, for, by exchanging man for man on every occasion, he would soon reduce the odds to 4 to 2, or 2 to 0.

If, however, black play a more cautious game, he should move 4 to 8.

White again might lose the game if he moved either 24 or 23 to 19, for black would respond by 10 to 15, when white must move from 19 to 10, black from 6 to 29, taking these men as before.

Black's best move is, perhaps, 25 to 22.

At this period of the game exchanges of men usually take place, the object being an advantage of position, as follows:

Black.	White.
9 to 14.	18 to 9.
5 to 14.	24 to 20.
6 to 9.	22 to 18.
1 to 5.	28 to 24.

Up to the present time no great advantage is gained on either side, the game being, perhaps, slightly in favor of black, who may cause a separation in white's men by the following:

Black.	White.
9 to 13.	18 to 9.
5 to 14.	

White may reply by—

	23 to 18.

Then,

14 to 23.	27 to 18.

Now, unless black moves 2 to 6, or 10 to 15, white could procure a king as follows: Suppose black had moved 12 to 16, then white 18 to 14,

Black.	White.
10 to 17.	21 to 14.

and whatever black now does, white must procure a king. It is under such conditions as these that the acute player often wins a game; for we shall find that the eagerness for gaining this king may cause white to be in a difficult position. Carrying on the game under this supposition, we have

Black.	White.
16 to 19.	24 to 15.
11 to 18.	13 to 9.
8 to 11.	9 to 5.
18 to 22.	26 to 17.
13 to 22.	5 to 1 (king).
2 to 6.	1 to 10.
7 to 14.	32 to 28.
14 to 17.	28 to 24.
3 to 8.*	31 to 27.
8 to 12.	27 to 23.

Black must now lose a man, and therefore the game, as follows —

Black.	White.
22 to 26, or 17 to 21.	23 to 18.
26 to 31, or 22 to 25.	19 to 15, and white wins.

The Double Corners.—When there is one king against two, the rule is that the game is drawn unless it be won in at least twenty moves. If the player does not know how to block up in the double corners, this may easily be a drawn game. We will now show the moves for blocking in the double corners, giving the case that will require the greatest number of moves.

Black's kings at 1 and 5; white's at 10.

Black.	White.
5 to 9.	10 to 15.
9 to 14.	15 to 19.
14 to 18.	19 to 24.
18 to 23.	24 to 28 (reaches double
1 to 6.	28 to 32. corner.)
6 to 10.	32 to 28.
10 to 15.	28 to 32.
15 to 19.	32 to 28.
23 to 27.	28 to 32.
19 to 23.	32 to 28.
27 to 32.	28 to 24.
23 to 18.	24 to 19.
32 to 28.	19 to 16.
18 to 15.	16 to 20.
15 to 11, and wins in 15 moves.	

Had black moved from 15 to 19 at last, white could have gone to 24, and the game would have been prolonged. There is no position on the board where two kings cannot defeat one in fifteen moves.

It is usual with two experienced players to pronounce the game drawn when there are two kings only on each side, one of which is enabled to reach the double corners. There are however, two or three chances of catching an incautious player.

The following example will serve to illustrate cases. White's

* This move of black's will very likely lose him a man, or, at least, allow his adversary to make a king rapidly.

positions are king at 28 and at 30; black's at 24 and 19. Black moves.

Black.	White.
24 to 27.	28 to 32.
19 to 23.	30 to 26.
23 to 30.	32 to 23.
30 to 25.	23 to 26.
25 to 30.	26 to 22, and wins.

Another case may be tried with caution, and which is as follows, two kings each: black at 15 and 23; white at 16 and 25. White moves.

White.	Black.
25 to 22.	23 to 18.
16 to 11.	18 to 25.
11 to 18, and wins next move by blocking.	

These are not positions likely to entrap very good players, but succeed very often with average hands.

The game in these instances resulted in the winner having what is called "the move." To ascertain whether you have the move of any one of your adversary's men, examine the situation of each. If your opponent has a black square at a right angle under his man, you have the move, and *vice versa*.

Draughts is in reality a deeply interesting game, and one that is very rarely appreciated.

THE LOSING GAME OF DRAUGHTS.

The losing game of draughts is rarely understood, and therefore rarely appreciated. We believe that there is even more foresight required in the losing than in the winning game of draughts, for it is equally as necessary to see several moves on ahead, and the game may be almost instantly lost by a thoughtless move.

To win at the losing game we must compel our adversary to take all our men, and the novice usually commences by losing as many men as possible. This proceeding is an error; the player has the advantage who has the most men on the table, as will be instanced by one or two examples.

Suppose white to have a king on each of the four squares, 1, 2, 3, 4; black, one on 31. First, we will suppose that white commences thus:—

White.	Black.
4 to 8.	31 to 27.
3 to 7.	27 to 23.
2 to 6.	23 to 18.
1 to 5.	

Black must now retreat, for, if he moves to 14 or 15, the game is lost, as he may be compelled to take each of his opponent's men in succession. Thus, suppose he move to 14:—

White.	Black.
5 to 9.	14 to 5.
6 to 9.	5 to 14.
7 to 10.	14 to 7.
8 to 11 and wins.	

Thus black's move must be a retreat in answer to white's 1 to 5. Then.

Black.	White.
18 to 22.	5 to 9.
22 to 26.	6 to 14.
26 to 31.	14 to 18.
31 to 27.	

At this point, if white advanced from 18 to 23 to be taken, he would lose the game unless very careful, as the lost man would have the move against him. His best move, therefore, would be 18 to 25. If black moves to 24, he loses. Black had better move to 32, and white 6 to 10.

Black.	White.
32 to 28.	8 to 11.
28 to 32.	15 to 19.
32 to 28.	19 to 24.
28 to 19.	10 to 15.
19 to 3.	11 to 7, and wins.

We will now point out the best "traps" for the losing game.

Suppose white's men to be placed from 21 to 32. If then we can secure one of the adversary's men at 21, we are almost certain to lose all our men first, and thus to win the game, for, by keeping this man blocked until required, he can be made use of at the right time. Let us take an example, white moving first.

White.	Black.
22 to 18.	9 to 14.
18 to 9.	5 to 14 (very bad play; this ought to have been 6 to 13.)
21 to 17.	14 to 21.
24 to 20.	11 to 16.
20 to 11.	7 to 16.
23 to 18 (not a good move, but will serve to illustrate the advantage of man at 21.)	10 to 15.
	8 to 15.
	15 to 00.
24 to 15.	6 to 10.
15 to 6.	1 to 10.
26 to 22.	4 to 8.
27 to 23.	16 to 19.
23 to 16.	12 to 19.
22 to 18.	10 to 15.
18 to 4.	3 to 8.
4 to 11.	2 to 7.
11 to 2.	

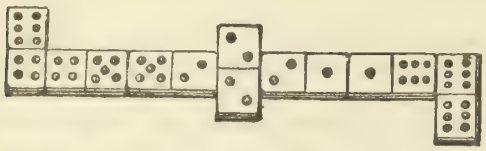
White now has six men on the board, whilst black has only two; but white can reduce this number at any time by moving 30 to 26. Black can only move 19 to 24 or to 23. Suppose he move it to 23, then it will be better for white to reduce black to one as follows:—

White.	Black.
31 to 27.	23 to 26.
30 to 23.	21 to 30.
29 to 25.	30 to 21.
32 to 28.	21 to 17.
28 to 24.	17 to 14.

If black move to 18, 10, or 9, he loses at once, so 14 to 17 is the best move. If white move 27 to 23 he loses the game, for black would move 17 to 22, from which white could not escape. Hence the game would be best played by

White.	Black.
2 to 6.	17 to 21.
6 to 10.	21 to 25,
10 to 14.	25 to 30.
14 to 17	

The game might now be prolonged, but still to win the losing game with the four against one is almost a certainty, as it can only be lost by an oversight.



DOMINOES.

THE game of dominoes is frequently looked upon as a trivial amusement, but those who are well acquainted with it agree that it affords room for much curious calculation. It is by no means a mere game of chance. Let any ordinary player enter the lists against an old and experienced hand, and he will soon discover that it requires something besides good weapons to come off victorious in this as in most other contests. In fact, it is as much a game of skill as any of the card games. A moderately good player can generally tell what his adversary has in his hand, by his style of play; and by calculating two or three moves in advance, he may either block the game or leave it open, just as he finds it will suit his purpose.

The ordinary game—technically termed "double sixes"—is played with twenty-eight dominoes. In some parts of England—chiefly in the North—they use "double nines" and "double twelves." But it signifies little how many dominoes are used, the rules and principles of the game, as here laid down, will, in most cases, equally apply.

HOW TO COMMENCE THE GAME.

In the English game it is usual to play a rubber of three games; but this, of course, is subject to arrangement.

After the dominoes have been well shuffled, each player draws one, and he who draws the domino containing the smallest number of pips wins "the down;" in plainer English, he wins the privilege of playing first. Sometimes a different method of deciding who shall have "the down" is adopted. One of the players draws a domino, and without showing it, asks if it is odd or even. If the adversary guesses right he wins "the down;" if, on the contrary, he guesses wrong, he loses it. The latter method is the more common of the two. A third method is in use on the Continent. The person holding the highest double has the "*pose*," or "down," and he commences by playing that domino. If there should be no doubles, then the person holding the highest domino has the *pose*. However, it is quite immaterial which of these plans is adopted. The dominoes having been shuffled, each player takes six or seven, as may be agreed upon.

If it is found that one of the players has drawn more than the number agreed upon, his adversary withdraws the extra number, and puts them back on the heap, keeping the face downwards, of course. Each player then takes up his dominoes, and the first player commences by putting down one of his dominoes, after which his adversary joins one to it, containing on one of its sections the same number of pips as are marked upon adjoining of the domino first played. They thus play alternately till the game may become so "blocked" that one of the players cannot "go." His adversary will then continue to play as long as there is an end open. If he should succeed in getting rid of all his men he wins the game; but if the game should be blocked at both ends before either player has played out, they compare the aggregate number of pips on all the dominoes in each hand, and whoever has the smallest number wins the game.

GENERAL MAXIMS.

1. Endeavor to play so as to keep both ends open, so that you may be sure of being able to "go" next time.

2. Play out your heavy dominoes first, because, if the game becomes blocked, you will then have fewer pips to count.

3. Contrive to play so that the numbers at both ends shall be those of which you hold the most. By this means you may often block your adversary till you are played out.

4. If you have made both ends alike, and your adversary plays, follow him at that end, as the chances are that he cannot go at the other, which you may keep open for yourself until you are able to play at his end.

5. It is sometimes an advantage to hold heavy dominoes as they not unfrequently enable you to obtain what is called a good "follow;" and if your adversary should hold none but low dominoes, he would not be able to go, thus enabling you to play five or six times consecutively, or even to play out.

6. When you have sole command over both ends you are generally in a position to "block" the game or not, as you think most expedient for your own game. In such a case, you must be guided by the number of dominoes you hold compared with those in your adversary's hands; and another element for your consideration would be whether yours are light or heavy. If they are light, and fewer in number than your adversary's, of course your best policy is to close the game at once and count. But in this you must learn to calculate from your adversary's style of play whether his hand is light or heavy.

7. At the commencement of the game it is better to have a variety in hand.

8. If you hold a "double," with two of the same number, it is better to play the double before either of the others. Sometimes you will be obliged to play one, in which case you must endeavor to force the double.

9. If you hold a double, and one other of the same number, play both consecutively; but if you are unable to do that, endeavor at any rate to let the double go first.

10. In playing against "the down," endeavor to deceive your opponent by playing a domino or two at each end indifferently. This is better than playing to his last domino, as it leads him to believe you cannot go at that end, while at the same time you may be simply keeping both ends open.

11. If your adversary has possession of one end, make the other of a number of which you hold several, with a view of forcing him to play at his end, and shutting it against the dominoes he was keeping it for.

12. If you hold several doubles, wait till your adversary makes the number for them in preference to making them for yourself; otherwise, a good player will see what you are aiming at, and will block the double. But if you hold a double with several duplicates, and can bring that number at both ends, do so.

13. If your adversary cannct go at one end, and you hold the double of that end, it is better that you should play at the other as long as you can. When you are blocked at that end, you may then play your double, and your adversary will then in most cases be obliged to open the other end for you.

14. It is generally considered that a light hand, yet with no number missing, is the best for ordinary play. The following, for example, would be a very fine hand: $\frac{6}{3}$, $\frac{5}{4}$, $\frac{2}{1}$, $\frac{1}{0}$, $\frac{3}{3}$, $\frac{0}{0}$. An example of a bad hand would be: $\frac{6}{6}$, $\frac{5}{5}$, $\frac{6}{2}$, $\frac{2}{2}$, $\frac{2}{1}$, $\frac{1}{1}$; but the worst possible hand would be the following: $\frac{6}{6}$, $\frac{5}{5}$, $\frac{4}{4}$, $\frac{3}{3}$, $\frac{2}{2}$, $\frac{1}{1}$. The latter, however, would seldom occur in actual play.

15. It does not necessarily follow that because a hand is heavy it must therefore lose. Provided it is equally varied, it has an equal chance of success with a light hand. The disadvantage of a heavy hand is shown when the game becomes blocked, and has to be decided by counting.

16. In leading "the down" from a hand consisting of a high double and several light dominoes, lead the double, and afterwards endeavor to obtain command of both ends. Suppose, for example, you hold the following hand: $\frac{5}{5}$, $\frac{2}{2}$, $\frac{3}{3}$, $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{1}{0}$, $\frac{5}{6}$; it would be better to play the $\frac{5}{6}$, as your other double can be forced by the aid of the $\frac{2}{4}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$.

17. It will at all times be found a difficult thing, in an equal game and between equal players, for the second player to win.

18. Endeavor to bring both ends as often as you can to a number of which you have several duplicates, for by that means you may block your adversary.

19. In blocking the game, you must be cautious that you do not block it to yourself, and leave it open to your adversary.

20. During the game look over the dominoes which have been played, so that you may calculate what numbers are likely to be soon run out, and what numbers your opponent is likely to be short of.

21. Do not push the game to a block if you hold a heavy hand, but play out your heaviest first, and keep both ends open.

22. Use your judgment freely. It is not always the best policy to adhere too strictly to the rules laid down in books. In fact, a wily player will oftentimes find it expedient to play a speculative, eccentric game, apparently quite at variance with the ordinary "laws."

23. Keep perfectly quiet, attentively watch your opponent's moves, and prevent him, if you can, from obtaining an insight into your play.

24. Last (though not least), don't lose your temper.

ALL FIVES.

This game stands next in popularity to the preceding one The same number of dominoes are taken, or as many as may be agreed upon, and in many points it is similar. The object of the game is to contrive so to play that the aggregate number of pips on the dominoes at both ends shall number 5, 10, 15, or 20. If they number 5, the player who makes the point counts one; if 10, two; if 15, three; if 20, four.

In order to make our meaning clearer, we give an illustration. Suppose that at one end there is $\frac{0}{0}$, and at the other a five. The next player then plays $\frac{5}{5}$ to the single five, and scores two, because the aggregate number of pips on the dominoes at both ends is ten. If the opponent should follow up by playing the $\frac{0}{5}$ to the $\frac{0}{0}$, he, of course, scores three.

To give another illustration. Suppose at one end is $\frac{6}{5}$, and the next player places at the other end $\frac{1}{4}$, he scores four for making twenty.

If the game becomes blocked, he who holds the least number of pips counts one.

The custom as to what number shall be "up," is different in different parts of the country. In some places it is ten; in others fifteen; in others again, twenty. The number ought to be agreed upon at the commencement of the game. In our opinion it adds to the interest of the game to select the lower numbers.

Sometimes the game is so played that he who makes five counts five; ten is made to count ten, and so on; but in that case not fewer than 50, and not more than 100, points should constitute the game.

As we have shown, the material point in which this game differs from the previous one is that you count the fives, from which circumstance it derives its name.

The next best thing to making fives yourself is to prevent your adversary from doing so; and when you do give him the opportunity of making a point it should only be in order that you may make two or three points yourself.

When your adversary fails to avail himself of a good chance, you may presume that he does not hold such and such dominoes, and from that and like indications, which you must carefully store up in your memory, you will be able to form a tolerably accurate estimate of his hand. You should never omit to turn these indications to good account.

There is only one domino in the whole pack which can be led without the next player being able to make a point from it—namely $\frac{3}{3}$. Always lead that if possible.

If you must play one of two dominoes, either of which you fear your adversary will turn to his account, of course you must play that by which you think you will be likely to lose the least.

It is good practice occasionally to take a survey of the game as far as it has gone, not only in order to refresh your memory as to what has been played, but also that you may form an opinion, if possible, of what your opponent's "little game" is. If there are good grounds for coming to the conclusion

that he holds heavy numbers while you hold light ones, block up the game as speedily as you can, and proceed to count. To understand your opponent's hand is a most important matter, and we do not think we have insisted on it too much. Good players will tell you that they have won many games by watching closely the opponent's moves, and drawing therefrom inferences respecting the dominoes he holds in hand. We need not add, the greatest caution must be used in forming these inferences.

THE DRAWING GAME.

The same number of dominoes are used, and the lead is drawn for in the same manner in this as in the previously described games.

The difference is that when a player cannot go, he must draw a domino from the pack. If he cannot then go, he must draw another, and so on until he is able to continue the game.

He who plays out first, or, in case the game becomes blocked, he who holds the smallest number of pips, wins.

The French have a different way of playing this game. The player who holds the highest double, or, in the event of there being no double, the highest domino, has the *pose* or lead. The second player, should he be unable to go, may draw all the remaining dominoes except two, which must remain untaken. If he leave more than two, the first player, should he require them in order to continue the game, may appropriate the surplus, still leaving two on the table.

If a player cannot go, it is compulsory that he draw till he gets hold of a domino that will enable him to continue the game.

Each player may take the *pose* alternately, or the winner in the first instance may retain it, as agreed upon.

The French method of counting is also different. When a player has played out, he counts the pips in his opponent's hand, and scores them to his own account. In case the game should become blocked, the player holding the fewest pips scores the number of pips in his adversary's hand to his own account, each pip counting one. A game consists of from 20 to 100 points, according to agreement.

With respect to the English method of playing this game, the general instructions and maxims given on the other games apply equally to this. But a few words must be added with regard to the French play. He who has the highest double is compelled to play first, and cannot draw any more dominoes until it is his turn to play again, but his opponent may draw all but two, which two must remain untaken during that game. But the second player should not draw more than half the dominoes, unless really compelled by the badness of his hand, as by this means it will leave a chance of his opponent having as many to draw. A good player at times might be justified in taking all but two, for by the calculation and judgment obtained by having them, he might be enabled to play them all before his opponent could play his five or six dominoes, as the case may be. Should the second player hold a good hand, comprising dominoes of every denomination, he should not draw until compelled. If he should happen to draw high doubles, he ought to continue to draw until he holds several of that number

It is not always the player holding the greatest number who gets out first, because as he has some of almost every denomination, his adversary will keep playing to him, and the odds are that he (the adversary) will be able to play out first. Still, in many games, the one holding the largest number of dominoes possesses this advantage, that he has the power to keep both ends open to himself but closed to his opponent, and he may thus run out.

In order to be able to play out first with the largest number (supposing that only two dominoes remain untaken), you should by all means, and in the first place, endeavor to ascertain what those two are. You may arrive at this in two ways. Suppose you hold so many of a particular number that with those already played they make six out of the seven of that denomination, you must by all means keep playing them.

As an illustration, we will suppose you hold in your hand four threes, and that two other threes have already been played. Now, if you play your threes, and your adversary, not being able to play to them, becomes blocked, it is quite clear that one of the dominoes on the table is a three. Then, if those you hold in your hand are—$\frac{3}{2}$, $\frac{4}{3}$, $\frac{3}{6}$, and $\frac{3}{3}$, and you find among the dominoes played $\frac{3}{0}$ and $\frac{3}{1}$, it is, of course, quite safe to conclude that the domino which is left is the $\frac{3}{5}$.

The second plan is this. If during the course of the game you have given your opponent opportunities of playing a certain double which you do not yourself hold, you may be certain that it is one of the left dominoes.

A little experiment, in order to test the nature of your adversary's hand, so as, however, not materially to injure your own, would often be found more expedient than groping all the while, as it were, in the dark.

By carefully looking over your own hand, you may judge pretty correctly as to whether your adversary's is light or heavy.

It is only by taking into account all these and other nice points that a player can possibly be successful.

Having formed an idea of your opponent's hand, you should make it an object to "run out," or play so that he may be blocked, or that he may be obliged to leave both ends open for you to play out.

Having given some instructions to the player who holds the larger number of dominoes, we must now proceed to give a few hints to the lesser hand.

If, holding the lesser hand, you can contrive to play a few moves at first without being blocked, you ought to be pretty sure of winning; because, by that time, your hand will have become so disproportionately small, that your opponent will have some difficulty in preventing you from playing out without blocking himself. This, therefore, must be one of your main objects.

If the game goes pretty equal, bring out your strong suits. Wherever you are short of a particular suit, if you find that many of that number have already been played, you need not fear that your adversary will be able to block you in regard to it, for you will, of course, infer that they are as scarce in his hand as in your own. Endeavor to bring these rules to bear, reserving to your discretion as to whether you should in any wise depart from them, or use such modifications as the contingencies of the moment require.

THE MATADORE GAME.

This is a foreign game, and each player takes only three dominoes. You can only play when your domino, added to the one previously played, would make seven. Those dominoes which themselves make that number are termed "matadores," and may be played at any time, regardless of the numbers played to. The double blank is also a matadore. The matadores, therefore, are four in number, viz.: $\frac{6}{1}$, $\frac{5}{2}$, $\frac{4}{3}$, $\frac{0}{0}$.

The highest domino leads, and if the next player cannot go, he must draw from the heap until he can. He must cease, however, to draw when there are only two dominoes left. He who plays out first wins, and if the game is blocked, he who holds the least number of pips counts those held by his opponent, and scores them to his own game. The number of points constituting the game is subject to agreement; it varies from 26 to 100.

MAXIMS FOR PLAYING THE MATADORE GAME.

This game differs widely from any of the other varieties of dominoes. The element of chance is more largely introduced. The player who happens to obtain more matadores than the other is almost certain of winning, provided the parties be pretty evenly balanced in skill and experience.

The blanks are very valuable at this game—the double blank being the most valuable of all the matadores. It is impossible to make a seven against a blank, so that if you hold blanks you may easily block the game and count.

When you have the worst of the game, and indeed at other times as well, guard against your adversary's blanks, and prevent him from making them; which you may do by playing only those dominoes which fit with the blanks already down.

Never play a blank at the *pose* unless you have a matadore or a corresponding blank.

Keep back your double blank till your opponent makes it blanks all; you can then force him to play a matadore, or compel him to draw till he obtains one. It is better to have a mixed hand.

DOMINO POOL.

This game is played either by partners or by separate players. If played singly by three or four players, each must draw a domino, and he who draws the highest number of pips but one sits on the left of him who draws the highest, the next highest to the left of the second, and so on. If the game is played by partners, the two lowest are partners and the two highest. The partners must sit opposite to each other. The players must draw afresh at each game, and the stake to be played for, called the "pool," must be placed on the table.

Each player takes five dominoes, and he who holds the highest leads. When one player cannot go, the next in turn plays, and so on. The maxims given in reference to the English game apply equally to this.

The game is scored in the following manner: When one player has played out, the one keeping the score counts the number of pips on each player's remaining dominoes, and puts down the number under each of their names or initials respectively. The same is done if a player cannot go. When the number of any one player reaches 40, 50, or 100, or any limit previously agreed upon, he is out of the game; but he comes in again by what is called "starring." In other words, he must pay over again the amount he originally put into the pool. The method of "starring" is the same as at billiards, from which the game is taken. He who "stars" recommences at the number which the player holds who is in the worst position. Suppose, for example, there were three players—one at 20, one at 40, and the other at 60, 100 being up, the player who "stars" must recommence at 60. He can only "star" once," and that must be at the time he is out. Each player has the option of "starring," except the last two, who must divide the pool, or they may agree to play it out. Still, unless an agreement to play out is made beforehand, the last two must divide.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR PLAYING DOMINO POOL.

When this game is played by separate players, and one becomes greatly ahead, the other three can combine, so as to render his chance of winning uncertain. The necessity of this combination is clear. If he is allowed to win, the competition for that game is over; but if, by combining, the other players can keep him back a little, they obtain for themselves a better chance of success. The player who is ahead will also do his best to throw obstacles in the way of the player in the next best position, as he becomes a dangerous competitor. The two in the worst position will in like manner combine against the two ahead. The necessity for this combination does not arise till the game is somewhat advanced, as at the beginning all the players are on a level; and the relative position of the others is of no moment till the game becomes advanced. It is of very little use for *one* player to attempt to stop the progress of another who is too far ahead, unless the others combine with him. If, through ignorance or anything else, they continue to play for their own hands, you must do likewise. Although, if you attempted by yourself to stop the player who was ahead of you, you might succeed, that success might be purchased at the risk of your own chance in the game. As in this game you have only five dominoes out of twenty, your power of influencing the game is very much diminished, and there is not quite so much scope for the exercise of your judgment as in other single games where you hold six dominoes out of twelve. Your opponents are sure to hold some of the remaining numbers in which you are strong; so that the injury you can in other games inflict by having a preponderance of a particular number will be greatly diminished here. Therefore it is scarcely worth your while endeavoring to retard your opponent's game when you have three of a number, unless some of that number have already been played; because, if you keep those numbers until you are called upon to play them, you will do infinitely more towards crippling their game than if you were to lead from them. On the other hand, should you hold *more* than three of a particular number, do not wait for this chance, but lead it on the first opportunity. If you find that you and one of the other players hold nearly all of a particular number, combine with him, in order to exhaust the hands of the other two. In doing this you are of course only studying your own interest. It is better to adopt this plan when you have reasons to believe you are already on the safe side. If you hold one or two doubles, with duplicates of

either, retain the latter until you first get rid of the doubles; but if you hold three or four duplicates along with a double, play the duplicates at once, as you will be able by your own hand to force the double at any time. If you are short in any particular number, get rid of your heavy dominoes as quickly as possible. In playing off you may lead with a light domino, if you hold one or more of the number; but if not, you must lead a higher domino, in order to diminish the number of pips in your hand. If you hold a heavy hand with high doubles, or a hand which admits of little or no variety, or without any particular preponderance, you must play a safe game, and sustain as little loss as you possibly can under the circumstances. Endeavor to balance the inferiority of your hand by drawing the other players along with you.

When there are only three players left, and one is greatly ahead, while another has starred, it should be the object of the third player to prolong the game as much as possible, as he still has a chance to star.

When two players are in advance, the two behind must avoid embarrassing each other in their combinations against the other two. It is better for them to use their joint efforts against one at a time, as the attack, if concentrated in that way, would be stronger and more effectual. Should one of the advanced players get embarrassed, endeavor to embarrass him still more, for you may be sure his competitor will not assist him.

It will be perfectly understood, however, that, in playing with partners, the object of each partner will be to play as much as possible into his partner's hands and to cripple his opponents. If it is your lead and you have a good hand, you must try and win with it, regardless of your partner's position. So, on the other hand, if it is your partner's down, and you have a bad hand, you must be content to sacrifice your own chance in order to increase his. In the partner's game it is generally good play to lead from a strong suit, for, as this is a generally understood rule, your partner will accept the hint, and will not fail to "return your lead," or, in other words, to play into your hands as much as possible. If you hold some doubles, with others of the same number, you may—contrary to the single game—play the latter first if it suits your hand, as your partner will be sure to assist in getting out your doubles.

We might continue these directions and hints *ad infinitum*, but experience, after all, is the best teacher; and—recommending the learner to practice assiduously and play carefully—we dismiss this portion of our subject.

THE WHIST GAME.

This game resembles in some points the game of cards from which it takes its name. It is played by four persons—two partners on each side. The partners, as usual, sit opposite to each other. **The whole of the dominoes are taken—seven by each player.**

It is best to lead from your strongest suit. By this and such other indications you will enable your partner to form an opinion as to your hand, by which he will be guided very much in his play, and as the game proceeds each must tax his recollection as to who played such and such a domino, and how the game stood at that particular time, so as to form a judgment as to the motive of such play, etc. The general instructions given in previous chapters will apply in great measure to this game, particularly those given in reference to the Pool Game.

THE FOUR GAME.

In this game, which is played by four persons, each player takes seven dominoes; and he who plays out first, or, if the game becomes blocked, holds the least number of pips, wins the hand, and draws a certain stake from the other three.

Very little in the way of instruction is required in this game. If you have the *pose*, you should play out as far as possible, and then endeavor to block the game.

Endeavor to keep your hand even, so as to be ready at any number, or (and in this you must be guided by the nature of your hand) play to keep your strongest suit in hand until those of the same suit held by other players are out. By this means you may oftentimes be able to play out or shut the game, as you find most expedient.

SEBASTOPOL GAME.

This game is played by four players, each taking seven dominoes. The player holding the double six plays it, and takes the lead. Each player must play a six to it. He who cannot loses the turn. The dominoes are played in the form of a cross the first round, after which the players alternately play at either of the four ends. He who has the last domino, or, in the event of more than one player being left with dominoes when the game is shut, he who holds the greatest number of pips, pays a certain amount to the winners.

Endeavor to get rid of your heavy dominoes, and put obstacles in the way of your adversaries running out.

TIDDLE-A-WINK GAME.

This is a very amusing game, and suitable for a round party.

If six or more play, each takes three dominoes. The $\frac{6}{6}$ is then called for, as in the French game, and the person holding it leads with it. If it is not out, the next highest double is called forth, and so on downwards until a start is made.

In this game, he who plays a double, either at the lead or at any other part of the game, is entitled to play again if he can—thus obtaining two turns instead of one. The game then proceeds in the ordinary way, and he who plays out first cries "Tiddle-a-wink!" having won. In the event of the game being blocked, he who holds the lowest number of pips wins.



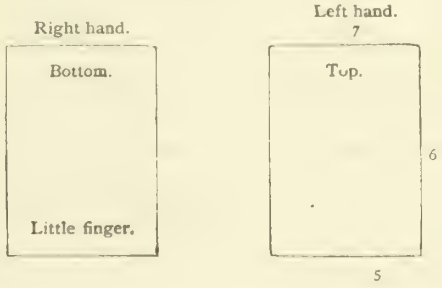
A FEW preliminary hints are necessary in order to enable an amateur to perform the tricks he attempts with effect and success.

A conjuror should always be able to "palm" well. That is done by holding a coin in the fingers, and by a quick movement passing it into the middle or palm of the hand, and, by contracting the muscles on each side of the hand, to retain it there, making the hand appear open and as though nothing were in it. After a little practice this will become comparatively easy, but it will require the exercise of great perseverance in order to become perfect. The pains, however, will be well bestowed, as this is one of the principal means by which prestidigitators deceive their audiences.

MAKING THE PASS.

In many of the tricks with cards it is necessary to "make the pass," as it is termed, which is a very neat and simple movement. The operator shows a card, which he wishes his audience to believe he can change by simply using the mysterious words "Presto, begone!" While, however, he is saying these words, he gives a sharp blow on the pack he holds in his hand, and at the same time slips the card under the pack and takes off the top one, or *vice versa*. Practice, in this as in other matters, will impart great dexterity to the operator; and, as the hand can be trained to move more quickly than the eye can see, he will be able to go through the movement without it being perceived by his audience.

The following mode of "making the pass" should be well studied: Hold the pack of cards in your right hand so that the palm of your hand may be under the cards; place the thumb of that hand on one side of the pack, and the first, second, and third fingers on the other side, and your little finger between those cards that are to be brought to the top and the rest of the pack. Then place your left hand over the card in such a manner that the thumb may be at 5, the forefinger at 6, and the other fingers at 7, as in the accompanying figure:



The hands and the two portions of the pack being thus disposed, you draw off the lower cards confined by the little finger and the other parts of the right hand, and place them with an imperceptibly quick motion on top of the pack.

But before you attempt any of the tricks that depend upon "making the pass" you must have great practice, and be able to perform it so dexterously and expeditiously that the eye cannot detect the movement of the hand, or you may, instead of deceiving others, expose yourself.

FORCING A CARD.

In card tricks it is frequently necessary to "force a card," by which you compel a person to take such

a card as you think fit, while he imagines he is taking one at haphazard. The following is, perhaps, the best method of performing this trick :

Ascertain quietly, or whilst you are amusing yourself with the cards, what the card is which you are to force ; but either keep it in sight, or place the little finger of your left hand, in which you have the cards, upon it. Next, desire a person to select a card from the pack, for which purpose you must open them quickly from left to right, spreading the cards backwards and forwards so as to perplex him in making his choice, and when you see him about to take one, open the pack until you come to the one you intend him to take, and just at the moment his fingers are touching the pack let its corner project invitingly a little forward in front of the others. This will seem so fair that in nine cases out of ten he will take the one so offered, unless he is himself aware of the secret of forcing. Having by this method forced your card, you request him to examine it, and then give him the pack to shuffle, which he may do as often as he likes, for you are of course always aware what card he has taken. A perfect acquaintance with the art of forcing is indispensably necessary before you attempt any of the more difficult card tricks.

THE "LONG CARD."

Another stratagem connected with the performance of many of the following tricks is what is termed the "long card," that is, a card a trifle longer or wider than the rest of the pack, so as not to be perceptible to the eye of the spectator, but easily distinguished by the touch of the operator. Good operators sometimes have both cards in the pack. Any bookbinder will shave the edges of your pack so as to leave you a long and a wide card.

Having laid down what we may be allowed to term the "leading principles" which rule the art of card conjuring, we now propose to explain the various tricks which may be performed with a pack of ordinary playing-cards. They depend to some extent for success on manual dexterity, a knowledge of the science of numbers, and some simple apparatus, easily procured or made by an ingenious youth. For instance, all the court cards may be made to come together by relying upon the doctrine of chances. Thus : take the pack, separate all the kings, queens, and knaves, and place them all together in any part of the pack you choose. There are five hundred chances to one that a stranger cannot in twelve cuts disturb the order in which they are placed. This trick is easy, and when successfully carried out is amusing. It may be made more so by placing one-half of the above number of cards at the bottom of the pack and the other half at the top. Of a very similar character is the famous trick of

GUESSING A CARD THOUGHT OF.

To do this well you must attend to the following directions : Spread out the cards in your right hand in such a manner that, in showing them to the audience, not a single card is wholly exposed to view, with the exception of the king of spades, the upper part of which should be clearly seen without any obstruction either from the fingers or from the other cards. When you have thus spread them out, designedly in fact, but apparently at random, show them to one of the spectators, requesting him to think of a card, and at the same time take care to move the hand a little, so as to describe a segment of a circle, in order that the audience may catch sight of the king of spades without noticing that the other cards are all partially concealed. Then shuffle the cards, but in doing so you must not lose sight of the king of spades, which you will then lay on the table face downwards. You may then tell the person who has thought of a card that the one in his mind is on the table, and request him to name it. Should he name the king of spades, which he would be most likely to do, you will of course turn it up and show it to the company, who, if they are not acquainted with the trick, will be very much astonished. If, however, he should name some other card—say the queen of clubs—you must tell him that his memory is defective, and that that card could not have been the card he at first thought of. Whilst telling him this, which you must do at as great length as you can in order to gain time, shuffle the cards rapidly and apparently without any particular purpose until your eye catches the card he has just named (the queen of clubs). Put it on the top of the pack, and, still appearing to be engrossed with other thoughts, go through the first false shuffle to make believe that you have no particular card in view. When you have done shuffling, take care to leave the queen of clubs on the top of the pack ; then take the pack in your left hand and the king of spades in your right, and while dexterously exchanging the queen of clubs for the king of spades, say, "What must I do, gentlemen, that my trick should not be a failure ? what card should I have in my right hand ?" They will not fail to call out the queen of clubs, upon which you will turn it up, and they will see that you have been successful.

This trick, when well executed, always has a good effect, whether the spectator thinks of the card you intended him to think of, or, from a desire to complicate matters, of some other. It requires considerable presence of mind, however, and the power of concealing from your audience what your real object is.

Another method of making the spectator think of any par-

icular card is the following: Pass several cards under the eye of the person selected, turning them over so rapidly that he sees the colors confusedly, without being able to distinguish their number or value. For this purpose take the pack in your left hand, and pass the upper part into your right, displaying the front of the cards to the audience, and consequently seeing only the backs yourself. Pass one over the other so rapidly that he will not be able to distinguish any one of them, until you come to the card which you desire to force —presuming, of course, that you have made yourself acquainted with its position. The card you select ought to be a bright-looking and easily distinguishable one, such as the king of hearts or the queen of clubs. Contrive to have this card a little longer before your audience than the rest, but avoid all appearance of effort, and let everything be done naturally. During the interval watch the countenance of the spectator, in order that you may be sure he notices the card you display before him. Having thus assured yourself that he has fixed upon the card you selected, and that he is not acquainted with the trick, you then proceed as before. Should you come to the conclusion that he has fixed upon some other card, you will then have recourse to the "exchanged card" trick, as explained in the previous trick.

TO TELL A CARD BY SMELLING IT.

A very clever trick, and one which never fails to excite astonishment at an evening party, is to select all the court cards when blindfolded; but before commencing it, you must take one of the party into your confidence, and get him to assist you. When all is arranged, you may talk of the strong sense of smell and touch which blind people are said to possess, and state that you could, when blindfolded, distinguish the court cards from the rest, and profess your willingness to attempt it. The process is this: After you have satisfied the company that your eyes are tightly bound, take the pack in your hands, and holding up one of the cards in view of the whole company, feel the face of it with your fingers. If it is a court card, your confederate, who should be seated near to you, must tread on your toe. You then proclaim that it is a court card, and proceed to the next. Should you then turn up a common card your confederate takes no notice of it, and you inform the company accordingly; and so on until you have convinced the company that you really possess the extraordinary power to which you laid claim.

TO TELL ALL THE CARDS WITHOUT SEEING THEM.

Another good parlor trick is to tell the names of all the cards when their backs are turned towards you. Perhaps this is one of the best illusions that can be performed with cards, as it not only brings the whole pack into use, but can never fail in the hands of an ordinarily intelligent operator. This trick, which is founded on the science of numbers, enables you to tell every card after they have been cut as often as your audience please, although you only see the backs of them. It is thus performed: A pack of cards are distributed face uppermost on a table, and you pick them up in the following order—6, 4, 1, 7, 5, king, 8, 10, 3, knave, 9, 2, queen. Go through this series until you have picked up the whole of the pack. It is not necessary that you should take up the whole of one suit before commencing another. In order that the above order may not be forgotten, the following words should be committed to memory:

6 4 1 7 5
The sixty-fourth regiment beats the seventy-fifth; up starts
king 8 10 3 *knave* 9 2
the king, with eight thousand and three men and ninety-two
queen
women.

The cards being thus arranged, the cards must be handed to the company to cut. They may cut the cards as often as they like, but it must be understood that they do it whist fashion, that is, taking off a portion of the cards, and placing the lower division on what was formerly the upper one. You then take the pack in your hands, and, without letting your audience perceive, cast a glance at the bottom card. Having done this—which you may do without any apparent effort—you have the key of the whole trick. You then deal out the cards, in the ordinary way, in thirteen different sets, putting four cards to each set; in other words, you deal out the first cards singly and separately, and then place the fourteenth card above the first set, the next upon the second set, and so on throughout, until you have exhausted the whole pack. You may be certain now that each one of these thirteen sets will contain four cards of the same denomination—thus, the four eights will be together, and so with the four queens, and every other denomination. The thirteenth, or last set, will be of the same denomination as the card at the bottom which you contrived to see, and as they will be placed exactly in the reverse order of that in which you first of all picked them up, you may without difficulty calculate of what denomination each of the sets consists. For example, suppose an 8 was the bottom card, you would find, after a little calculation, that after being dealt out in the manner above described, they would be placed in the following order: king, 5, 7, 1, 4, 6, queen, 2, 9, knave, 3, 10, 8; and repeating in your own mind the words which you have committed to memory, and reckoning the cards backwards, you would say—

8 10 3 *knave* 9 2 *queen*
"Eight thousand and three men, and ninety-two women;
6 4 1 7 5
sixty-fourth regiment beats the seventy-fifth; up starts the
king
king with," etc., etc.

You observe the same rule whatever the bottom card may be.

TO TELL A CARD THOUGHT OF.

By a certain prearranged combination of cards, the conjuror is enabled—apparently to guess, but really to calculate —not only the card that is thought of by any member of the company, but to tell its position in the pack. You take the pack and present it to one of those present, desiring him to shuffle the cards well, and after he is done, if he chooses, to hand them over to some one else to shuffle them a second time. You then cause the pack to be cut by several persons, after which you select one out of the company whom you re-

quest to take the pack, think of a card, and fix in his memory not only the card he has thought of, but also its position in the pack, by counting 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on, from the bottom of the pack, as far as, and including, the card thought of. You may offer to go into another room while this is being done, or remain with your eyes bandaged, assuring the company that, if they desire it, you will announce beforehand the number at which the card thought of will be found. Now, supposing the person selecting the card stops at No. 13 from the bottom, and that this thirteenth card is the queen of hearts, and supposing also that the number you have put down beforehand is 24, you will return to the room or remove your handkerchief, as the case may be, and without putting any question to the person who has thought of a card, you ask for the pack, and rest your nose upon it, as if you would find out the secret by smelling. Then, putting your hands behind your back or under the table, so that they cannot be seen, you take away from the bottom of the pack twenty-three cards—that is, one fewer than the number you marked down beforehand—and place them on the top, taking great care not to put one more or less, as inaccuracy in this respect would certainly cause the trick to fail. You then return the pack to the person who thought of the card, requesting him to count the cards from the top, beginning from the number of the card he thought of. For example, having selected the thirteenth card, he will commence counting 14, 15, 16, and so on. When he has called 23, stop him, telling him that the number you marked down was 24, and that the twenty-fourth card which he is about to take up is the queen of hearts, which he will find to be correct. In performing this trick it is necessary to observe that the number you name must be greater than the number which your opponent gives you, describing its position in the pack.

TO CHANGE A CARD BY WORD OF COMMAND.

It at first sight seems singular that any one should be able even to appear to change a card by word of command; yet it can easily be done, and under different titles, and with slight variations, the trick is constantly performed in public. To do it, you must have two cards alike in the pack—say, for example, a duplicate of the king of spades. Place one next to the bottom card, which we will suppose to be the seven of hearts, and the other at the top; shuffle the cards without displacing these three, and then show one of the company that the bottom card is the seven of hearts. This card you dexterously slip aside with your finger, so that it may not be perceived, and taking the king of spades from the bottom, which the person supposes to be the seven of hearts, lay it on the table, telling him to cover it with his hand. Shuffle the cards again without displacing the first and last cards, and shifting the other king of spades from the top to the bottom, show it to another person. You then contrive to remove the king of spades in the same manner as before, and taking the bottom card, which will then be the seven of hearts, but which the company will still suppose to be the king of spades, you lay that also on the table, and tell the second person to cover it with his hand. You then command the cards to change places, and when the two parties take off their hands, they will see, to their great astonishment, that your commands are obeyed.

"TWIN CARD" TRICK.

Another trick performed by means of "twin," or duplicate, cards, as in the previous case, is to show the same card apparently on the top and at the bottom of the pack. One of these duplicate cards may be easily obtained; in fact, the pattern card, which accompanies every pack, may be made available for that purpose. Let us suppose, then, for a moment, that you have a duplicate of the queen of clubs. You place both of them at the bottom of the pack, and make believe to shuffle them, taking care, however, that these two keep their places. Then lay the pack upon the table, draw out the bottom card, show it, and place it on the top. You then command the top card to pass to the bottom, and, on the pack being turned up, the company will see with surprise that the card which they had just seen placed upon the top is now at the bottom.

MAGIC TEA-CADDIES.

This, like some of the tricks we have previously explained, requires suitable apparatus for its successful performance. Two cards, drawn by different persons, are put into separate tea-caddies, and locked up, and the object of the operator is to appear to change the cards without touching them. This may be done without the aid of a confederate. The caddies are made with a copper flap which has a hinge at the bottom and opens against the front, where it catches under the bolt of the lock, so that when the lid is shut and locked the flap will fall down upon the bottom. The operator places the two cards he intends to be chosen between the flap and the front, which may be handled without any suspicion; he then requests one of the persons to put the card he has selected into one of the caddies, taking care that he puts it into the caddy into which you placed the other card; the second person, of course, puts his card into the other caddy. The operator then desires them to lock the caddies, and in doing this the flap becomes unlocked, falls to the bottom, and covers the cards, and when opened, the caddies show apparently that the cards have been transposed.

THE VANISHING CARD.

Another good trick is thus performed: Divide the pack, placing one-half in the palm of the left hand, face downwards; and, taking the remainder of the pack in the right hand, hold them between the thumb and first three fingers, taking care to place the cards upright, so that the edges of those in your right hand may rest upon the back of those in the left, thus forming a right angle with them. In this way the four fingers of the left hand touch the last of the upright cards in your right hand. It is necessary that the cards should be placed in this position, and that once being attained, the rest of the trick is easy. These preliminaries having been gone through, one of the company, at your request, examines the top card of the half-pack that rests in the palm of your left hand, and then replaces it. Having done this, you request him to look at it again, and, to his astonishment, it will have vanished

and another card will appear in its place. In order to accomplish this, having assumed the position already described, you must damp the tips of the four fingers that rest against the last card of the upright set in your right hand. When the person who has chosen a card replaces it, you must raise the upright cards in your right hand very quickly, and the card will then adhere to the damped fingers of your left hand. As you raise the upright cards, you must close your left hand skillfully, and you will thereby place the last of the upright cards—which, as we have explained, adheres to the fingers of your left hand—upon the top of the cards in the palm of your left hand, and when you request the person who first examined it to look at it again, he will observe that it has been changed. Rapidity and manual dexterity are required for the performance of this capital sleight-of-hand trick.

TO TELL THE NUMBER OF CARDS BY WEIGHT.

The apparently marvelous gift of telling the number of cards by weight depends on the use of the long card. Take a portion of a pack of cards—say forty—and insert among them two long cards. Place the first—say fifteen from the top, and the other twenty-six. Make a feint of shuffling the cards, and cut at the first long card; poise those you hold in your hand, and say, "There must be fifteen here;" then cut at the second long card, and say, "There are but eleven here;" and poising the remainder, say, "And here are fourteen." The spectators, on counting them, will find that you have correctly estimated the numbers.

TO PRODUCE A MOUSE FROM A PACK OF CARDS.

Cards are sometimes fastened together like snuff-boxes. If you possess such a pack, or can procure one, you may, without difficulty, perform this feat. The cards are fastened together at the edges, but the middles must be cut out, leaving a cavity in the pack resembling a box. A *whole* card is glued on to the top, and a number of loose ones are placed above it. They must be skillfully and carefully shuffled, so that your audience may be led to believe that it is an ordinary and perfect pack. The card at the bottom of what we may term the "box" must likewise be a whole card, but must be glued to the box on one side only, so that it will yield immediately to internal pressure. This bottom card serves as the door through which you convey the mouse into the middle of the pack. Being thus prepared, and holding the bottom tight with your hand, request one of the company to place his open hands together, telling him you intend to produce something very marvelous from the pack. Place the pack in his hands, and whilst you engage his attention in conversation, affect to want something out of your bag, and at the same moment take the pack by the middle, and throw it into the bag, and the mouse, which you had previously placed in the box, will remain in the hands of the person who holds the cards.

TO SEND A CARD THROUGH A TABLE.

Request one of the company to draw a card from the pack, examine it, and then return it. Then make the pass—or, if you cannot make the pass, make use of the long card—and bring the card chosen to the top of the pack, and shuffle by means of any of the false shuffles before described, without losing sight of the card. After shuffling the pack several times, bring the card to the top again. Then place the pack on the table, about two inches from the edge near which you are sitting, and having previously slightly dampened the back of your right hand, you strike the pack a sharp blow, and the card will adhere to it. You then put your right hand very rapidly underneath the table, and taking off with your left hand the card which has stuck to your right hand, you show it to your audience, who will at once recognize in it the card that was drawn at the commencement of the trick. You must be careful while performing this trick not to allow any of the spectators to get behind or at the side of the table, but keep them directly in front, otherwise the illusion would be discovered.

TO KNOCK ALL THE CARDS FROM A PERSON'S HAND EXCEPT THE CHOSEN ONE.

With a little care a novice may easily learn this trick. It is not new, and is called by some the "Nerve Trick." Force a card, and request the person who has taken it to return it to the pack and shuffle the cards. Then look at the card yourself, and place the card chosen at the bottom of the pack. Cut them in two, and give him the half containing his card at the bottom, and request him to hold it just at the corner between his finger and thumb. After telling him to hold them tight, strike them sharply, and they will all fall to the ground except the bottom one, which is the card he has chosen. An improvement in this trick is to put the chosen card at the bottom of the pack and turn the face upwards, so that when you strike, the card remaining will stare the spectators in the face.

ANOTHER CLEVER CARD TRICK.

This trick, commonly called the "Turnover Feat," is easily performed, and yet is difficult of detection. Having forced a card, you contrive, after sundry shufflings, to convey it to the top of the pack. Make the rest of the cards perfectly even at the edges, but let the chosen card project a little over the others. Then, holding them between your finger and thumb, about two feet above the table, let them suddenly and quickly drop, and the projecting card in the course of its descent will be turned face uppermost by the force of the air, and exposed to the view of the whole company.

TO TELL THE NAME OF A CARD THOUGHT OF.

One of the company must, at your request, draw seven or eight cards promiscuously from the pack, and select one from among them as the card he desires to think of. He then returns them to the pack, and you, either by shuffling or in any other way which will not be noticed, contrive to pass the whole of them to the bottom of the pack. You then take five or six cards off the top of the pack, and throw them on the table face upwards, asking if the card thought of is among them. Whilst the person is examining them you secretly take one card from the bottom of the pack and place it on the top; and when he tells you that the card he thought of is not in the first parcel, throw him five or six more, including the card

you have just taken from the bottom—the denomination and suit of which it is presumed you have taken the opportunity to ascertain—so that should be say that his card is in the second parcel, you will at once know which card is indicated, and in order to "bring it to light," you may make use either of the two foregoing tricks, or any other you think proper.

TO TELL THE NAMES OF ALL THE CARDS BY THEIR WEIGHTS.

The pack having been cut and shuffled to the entire satisfaction of the audience, the operator commences by stating that he undertakes, by poising each card for a moment on his fingers, to tell not only the color, but the suit and number of spots, and, if a court card, whether it be king, queen, or knave. For the accomplishment of this most amusing trick we recommend the following directions: You must have two packs of cards exactly alike. One of them we will suppose to have been in use during the evening for the performance of your tricks; but in addition to this you must have a second pack in your pocket, which you must take care to arrange in the order hereinafter described. Previous to commencing the trick you must take the opportunity of exchanging these two packs, and bringing into use the prepared pack. This must be done in such a manner that your audience will believe that the pack you introduce is the same as the one you have been using all the evening, which they know has been well shuffled. The order in which the pack must be arranged will be best ascertained by committing the following lines—the words in italics forming the key:—

Eight kings threa-ten'd to save,
Eight, king, three, ten, two, seven,
Nine fair ladies for one sick knave,
Nine, five, queen, four, ace, six, knave.

These lines thoroughly committed to memory will be of material assistance. The alliterative resemblance will in every instance be a sufficient guide to the card indicated. The order in which the suits should otherwise be committed to memory,—viz., *hearts, spades, diamonds, clubs*. Having sorted your cards in accordance with the above directions, your pack is "prepared" and ready for use; and when you have successfully completed the exchange, you bring forward your prepared pack, and hand it round to be cut. The pack may be cut as often as the audience pleases, but always whist fashion,—*i.e.*, the lower half of the pack must be placed upon the upper at each cut. You now only want to know the top card, and you will then have a clue to the rest. You therefore take off the top card, and holding it between yourself and the light, you see what it is, saying at the same time, by way of apology, that this is the old way of performing the trick, but that it is now superseded. Having once ascertained what the first is, which, for example, we will suppose to be the king of diamonds, you then take the next card on your finger, and poise it for a moment, as if you were going through a process of mental calculation. This pause will give you time to repeat to yourself the two lines given by which means you will know what card comes next. Thus:—"Eight kings threa-*ten'd to*," etc.; it will be seen that the three comes next

THE QUEEN'S DIG FOR DIAMONDS.

Taking the pack in your hands, you separate from it the four kings, queens, knaves, and aces, and also four common cards of each suit. Then laying the four queens, face upwards, in a row on the table, you commence telling your story somewhat after this fashion:—

"These four queens set out to seek for diamonds. [*Here you place any four cards of the diamond suit half over the queens.*] As they intend to dig for diamonds, they each take a spade. [*Here lay four common spades half over the diamonds.*] The kings, their husbands, aware of the risk they run, send a guard of honor to protect them. [*Place the four aces half over the spades.*] But fearing the guard of honor might neglect their duty, the kings resolve to set out themselves. [*Here lay the four kings half over the four aces.*] Now, there were four robbers, who, being apprised of the queens' intentions, determined to waylay and rob them as they returned with the diamonds in their possession. [*Lay the four knaves half over the four kings.*] Each of these four robbers armed himself with a club [*lay out four clubs half over the knaves*]; and as they do not know how the queens may be protected, it is necessary that each should carry a stout heart." [*Lay out four hearts half over the knaves.*]

You have now exhausted the whole of the cards with which you commenced the game, and have placed them in four columns. You take the cards in the first of these columns, and pack them together, beginning at your left hand, and keeping them in the order in which you laid them out. Having done this, you place them on the table, face downwards. You pack up the second column in like manner, lay them on the first, and so on with the other two.

The pack is then handed to the company, who cut them as often as they choose, provided always that they cut whist fashion. That done, you may give them what is termed a shuffle-cut; that is, you appear to shuffle them, but in reality only give them a quick succession of cuts, taking care that when you are done a card of the heart suit remains at the bottom.

You then begin to lay them out again as you did in the first instance, and it will be found that all the cards will come in their proper order.

MYSTERIOUS DISAPPEARANCE OF THE KNAVE OF SPADES

Fixing your eye upon the stoutest-looking man in the room, you ask him if he can hold a card tightly. Of course he will answer in the affirmative; but if he should not, you will have no difficulty in finding one who does. You then desire him to stand in the middle of the room, and holding up the pack of cards, you show him the bottom one, and request him to state what card it is. He will tell you that it is the knave of spades. You then tell him to hold the card tightly and look up at the ceiling. While he is looking up you ask him if he recollects his card; and if he answer, as he will be sure to do, the knave of spades, you will reply that he must have made a mistake, for if he look at the card he will find it to be the knave of hearts, which will be the case. Then handing him the

pack, you tell him that if he will look over it, he will find his knave of spades somewhere in the middle of the pack.

This trick is extremely simple and easy of accomplishment. You procure an extra knave of spades, and cut it in half, keeping the upper part, and throwing away the lower. Before showing the bottom of the pack to the company, get the knave of hearts to the bottom, and lay over it, unperceived by the company, your half knave of spades; and under pretense of holding the pack very tight, put your thumb across the middle, so that the joining may not be seen, the legs of the two knaves being so similar that detection is impossible. You then give him the lower part of the knave of hearts to hold, and when he has drawn the card away hold your hands so that the faces of the cards will be turned toward the floor. As early as possible you take an opportunity of removing the half knave.

SLEIGHT-OF-HAND TRICKS, ETC.

Having completed our catalogue of card feats, we now proceed to give a short selection of other conjuring tricks.

A CHEAP WAY OF BEING GENEROUS.

You take a little common white or bees' wax, and stick it on your thumb. Then, speaking to a bystander, you show him sixpence, and tell him you will put the same into his hand; press it down upon the palm of his hand with your waxed thumb, talking to him the while, and looking him in the face. Suddenly take away your thumb, and the coin will adhere to it; then close his hand, and he will be under the impression that he holds the sixpence, as the sensation caused by the pressing still remains. You may tell him he is at liberty to keep the sixpence; but on opening his hand to look at it he will find, to his astonishment, that it is gone.

THE FAMOUS MOUNTEBANK TRICK.

In the days when merry-andrews and mountebanks met with a hearty welcome on every English village green, no conjuring trick was more popular than this; yet there are few that can be performed with less difficulty. You first of all procure a long strip of paper, or several smaller strips pasted together, two or three inches wide. Color the edges red and blue, and roll up the paper like a roll of ribbon. Before doing so, however, securely paste a small piece of cotton at the end you begin to roll. Then, when the proper time has arrived, you take hold of this cotton, and begin to pull out a long roll which very much resembles "a barber's pole." In order to perform this trick with good effect, have before you some paper shavings, which may easily be procured at any bookbinder's, and commence to appear to eat them. The chewed paper can be removed each time a fresh handful is put into the mouth; and when the proper time and opportunity have arrived, put the roll into the mouth, and pull the bit of cotton, when a long roll comes out, as before described, to the astonishment of the audience.

A more elegant but similar feat is the following, which we will style

BRINGING COLORED RIBBONS FROM THE MOUTH.

Heap a quantity of finely-carded cotton wool upon a plate, which place before you. At the bottom of this lint, and concealed from the company, you should have several narrow strips of colored ribbons, wound tightly into one roll, so as to occupy but little space. Now begin to appear to eat the lint by putting a handful in your mouth. The first handful can easily be removed and returned to the plate unobserved while the second is being "crammed in." In doing this, care should be taken not to use all the lint, but to leave sufficient to conceal the roll. At the last handful, take up the roll and push it into your mouth without any lint; then appear to have had enough, and look in a very distressed state, as if you were full to suffocation; then put your hands up to your mouth, get hold of the end of the ribbon, and draw, hand over hand, yards of ribbon as if from your stomach. The slower this is done, the better the effect. When one ribbon is off the roll your tongue will assist you in pushing another end ready for the hand. You will find you need not wet or damage the ribbons in the least. This is a trick which is frequently performed by one of the cleverest conjurers of the day.

CATCHING MONEY FROM THE AIR.

The following trick, which tells wonderfully well when skillfully performed, is a great favorite with one of our best-known conjurers. So far as we are aware, it has not before been published. Have in readiness any number of silver coins, say thirty-four; place all of them in the left hand, with the exception of four, which you must palm into the right hand. then, obtaining a hat from the audience, you quietly put the left hand with the silver inside; and whilst playfully asking if it is a new hat, or with some such remark for the purpose of diverting attention, loose the silver, and at the same time take hold of the brim with the left hand, and hold it still so as not to shake the silver. Now address the audience, and inform them that you are going to "catch money from the air." Ask some person to name any number of coins up to ten, say eight. In the same way you go on asking various persons, and adding the numbers aloud till the total number named is nearly thirty; then looking round as though some one had spoken another number, and knowing that you have only thirty-four coins, you must appear to have heard the number called which, with what has already been given, will make thirty-four; say the last number you added made twenty-eight, then, as though you had heard some one say six, "and twenty-eight and six make thirty-four—Thank you, I think we have sufficient." Then, with the four coins palmed in your right hand, make a catch at the air, when they will chink. Look at them, and pretend to throw them into the hat, but instead of doing so palm them again; but, in order to satisfy your audience that you really threw them into the hat, you must, when in the act of palming, hit the brim of the hat with the wrist of the right hand, which will make the coins in the hat chink as if they had just fallen from the right hand. Having repeated this process several times, say, "I suppose we have sufficient," empty them out on to a plate, and let one of the audience count them. It will be found that there are only thirty, but the number which you were to catch was thirty-four. You will therefore say, "Well, we are four short; I must catch just four, neither more nor less." Then, still hav-

ing four coins palmed in your right hand, you catch again, and open your hands, saying to the audience, "Here they are."

HOW TO FIRE A LOADED PISTOL AT THE HAND WITHOUT HURTING IT

This extraordinary illusion is performed with real powder, real bullets, and a real pistol; the instrument which effects the deception being the ramrod. This ramrod is made of polished iron, and on one end of it is very nicely fitted a tube, like a small telescope tube. When the tube is off the rod, there will, of course, appear a little projection. The other end of the rod must be made to resemble this exactly. The ramrod with the tube on being in your hand, you pass the pistol round to the audience to be examined, and request one of them to put in a little powder. Then take the pistol yourself, and put in a very small piece of wadding, and ram it down; and in doing so you will leave the tube of the ramrod inside the barrel of the pistol. To allay any suspicion that might arise in the minds of your audience, you hand the ramrod to them for their inspection. The ramrod being returned to you, you hand the pistol to some person in the audience, requesting him to insert a bullet, and to mark it in such a way that he would recognize it again. You then take the pistol back, and put in a little more wadding. In ramming it down, the rod slips into the tube, which now forms, as it were, an inner lining to the barrel, and into which the bullet has fallen; the tube fitting tight on to the rod is now withdrawn along with it from the pistol, and the bullet is easily got into the hand by pulling off the tube from the rod while seeking a plate to "catch the bullets"; and the marksman receiving order to fire, you let the bullet fall from your closed hand into the plate just as the pistol goes off.

CURIOUS WATCH TRICK.

By means of this trick, if a person will tell you the hour at which he means to dine, you can tell him the hour at which he means to get up next morning. First ask a person to think of the hour he intends rising on the following morning. When he has done so, bid him place his finger on the hour, on the dial of your watch, at which he intends dining. Then—having requested him to remember the hour of which he first thought—you mentally add twelve to the hour upon which he has placed his finger, and request him to retrograde, counting the hours you mention, whatever that may be, but that he is to commence counting with the hour he thought of from the hour he points at. For example, suppose he thought of rising at eight, and places his finger on twelve as the hour at which he means to dine, you desire him to count back twenty four hours; beginning at twelve he counts eight, that being the hour he thought of rising, eleven he calls nine, ten he calls ten (mentally, but not aloud), and so on until he has counted twenty-four, at which point he will stop, which will be eight, and he will probably be surprised to find it is the hour he thought of rising at.

THE FLYING QUARTER.

This is a purely sleight of hand trick, but it does not require much practice to be able to do it well and cleverly. Take a quarter between the forefinger and thumb of the right hand; then, by a rapid twist of the fingers, twirl the coin by the same motion that you would use to spin a teetotum. At the same time rapidly close your hand, and the coin will disappear up your coat sleeve. You may now open your hand, and, much to the astonishment of your audience, the coin will not be there. This capital trick may be varied in a hundred ways. One plan is to take three quarters, and concealing one in the palm of your left hand, place one of the others between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, and the third between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand. Then give the coin in the right hand the twist already described, and closing both hands quickly it will disappear up your sleeve, and the left hand on being unclosed will be found to contain two quarters. Thus you will make the surprised spectators believe that you conjured the coin from your right hand to the left.

PLUMES FOR THE LADIES.

The following very clever trick was a favorite with M. Houdin, and was performed by him at St. James Theater, where it drew forth a good deal of admiration. When known, however, it appears like a great many other tricks, extremely simple and easy.

Procure two or three large plumes of feathers, or a lot tied together. Take off your coat, and hold one lot in each hand, so that the plumes will lie in a parallel line with the arms. Put your coat on again, and press the feathers into small compass. Ask some one to lend you a large silk handkerchief, throw it over one hand and part of the arm, and with the other quickly draw the feathers from that arm. The plumes, being released from their imprisonment, will spread out and resume their bulky appearance, and the onlookers will be completely baffled as to where they could have come from. Then repeat the process with the other arm.

THE BORROWED QUARTER IN THE WORSTED BALL.

This easily-performed trick should be in the *repertoire* of every amateur magician. A large ball of worsted is obtained, and a marked quarter having been borrowed from the audience, the worsted is unwound, and out falls the quarter, which but a moment before was supposed to be in the hands of the operator. It is done in this way: Procure a few skeins of thick worsted; next, a piece of tin in the shape of a flat tube, large enough for the coin to pass through, and about four inches long. Then wind the worsted on one end of the tube to a good-sized ball, having a quarter of your own in your right hand. You may now show the trick. Place the worsted anywhere out of sight, borrow a marked quarter, and taking it in your left hand, you put the one in your right hand on the end of the table farthest from the company. While so doing, drop the marked quarter into the tube, pull the tube out, and wind a little more worsted on in order to conceal the hole. Then put the ball into a tumbler, and taking the quarter you left on the table, show it to the company (who will imagine it to be the borrowed quarter), and say "Presto! fly! pass!" Give the end of the ball to one of the audience and request him to unwind it, and on that being done the money will fall out.

THE INK AND FISH TRICK.

This trick, originally introduced by M. Houdin, has been performed by every wizard since. A large goblet is placed on the table, containing apparently several pints of ink. A small quantity of ink is taken out with a ladle, and being poured out into a plate, is handed round to the company to satisfy them that it really is ink. A handkerchief is then covered over the goblet, and upon being instantly withdrawn, reveals the glass now full of water, in which swim gold and silver fish. The trick is thus performed: a black silk lining is placed inside the goblet, and kept in its place by a wire ring. It thus forms a bag without a bottom, as it were, and when wet adheres close to the glass in which are the water and the fish. The next part of the deception is the ladle, which must be capable of containing as much ink as will induce the audience to believe that it was got from the goblet before them. The ink must be concealed in the handle of the ladle, so that when it is lying on the table it will not be perceived; but on being elevated, it must run into the ladle through a small aperture made for the purpose. The black silk is easily withdrawn by the thumb and finger at the time the handkerchief is removed. It must be concealed within the folds of the handkerchief.

SILVER CHANGED TO GOLD—FLYING MONEY.

Before commencing this trick you must provide yourself with two quarters and a half eagle, and one of the quarters must be concealed in the right hand. Lay the other quarter and the half eagle on the table, in full view of the audience. Now ask for two handkerchiefs, then take the half eagle up and pretend to roll it in one of the handkerchiefs; but instead of that roll up the quarter, which you had concealed in the right hand, and retain the half eagle. Then give the handkerchief to one of the company to hold. Now take the quarter off the table, and pretend to roll that up in the second handkerchief, but put up the half eagle instead. Give this handkerchief to a second person and bid him "hold it tight," while you command the half eagle and the quarter to change places. On the handkerchief being opened, the coins will appear to have obeyed your command.

THE "TWENTY CENTS" TRICK.

This trick may be performed with any number of either quarters, half eagles, or half dollars; but, following the traditional rule, we will suppose that you borrow at random twenty cents from the company and display them on a plate, having previously concealed five *other* cents in your left hand. You take the cents from the plate into the right hand, mix them with the concealed five, and then give them to one of the company to hold. You then ask the possessor to return five to you, which he will do, under the supposition that he only retains fifteen, while in reality he retains twenty. You must now have another cent palmed in your right hand, so that when you give the five cents to another person to hold, you add one to the number, and in reality put six in his hands. You then ask him, as in the previous case to return one to you, reminding him, as you receive it, that he has only four left. Then pretending to put the cent you have just received into your left hand, you strike the left hand with your magic wand, and bid the coin you are supposed to be holding to fly into the closed hand of the person holding five, or, as he supposes, four cents. On unclosing his hand he will find it to contain five cents, and he will believe that you transferred one of them thither. Now, taking the five cents, you must dexterously pass them into the left hand, and bid them fly into the closed hand of the person holding the supposed fifteen; and he, in like manner, will be astonished to find, on unclosing his hand, that it contains twenty cents instead of, as he supposed, fifteen.

THE MYSTERIOUS BAG.

Mr. Philippe, when appearing before his wonder-struck audiences, used to excite the most profound amazement by means of a mysterious bag, from which he produced nearly every conceivable thing, from a mouse-trap to a four-post bedstead; and its capacity was so prodigious, that it swallowed even more than it produced. Similar but less pretending is the one which we give under the title of "The Mysterious Bag." Make two bags, each about a foot long and six inches wide, of some dark material, and sew them together at the edge, so that one may be inside the other. Next make a number of pockets, each with a cover to it, which may be fastened down by a slight elastic band. Place these about two inches apart, between the two bags, sewing one side of the pocket to one bag and the other side to the other. Make slits through both bags about an inch long, just above the pockets, so that you can put your hand in the bags; and by inserting your thumb and finger through these slits you may obtain entrance to the pockets, and bring out of them whatever they contain. It is, of course, necessary that a variety of articles should be put in the pockets. Before commencing the trick you may turn the bag inside out any number of times, so that your audience may conclude that it is quite empty. You can then cause to appear or disappear any number of articles of a light nature, much to the amusement of your audience.

TO MAKE A DIME DISAPPEAR AT COMMAND.

This simple and well-known but often amusing trick, enables the operator to cause a small coin to disappear after it has been wrapped up in a handkerchief. Borrow a dime or a small coin, or use one of your own, and secretly place a small piece of soft wax on one side of it; then spread a pocket-handkerchief on a table, and taking up a coin, show it to your audience, being very careful not to expose the side that has the wax on it. Having done this, place the coin in the center of the handkerchief, so that the wax side will adhere. Then bring the corner of the handkerchief over, and completely hide the coin from the view of the spectators. All this must be carefully done, or the company will perceive the wax on the back of the coin. You must now press very hard on the coin with your thumb, in order to make it adhere. When you have done this, fold over successively the other corners, repeating the operation a second time, and leaving the fourth corner open. Then take hold of the handkerchief with both hands at the open part, and sliding your finger along the

edge of the same, it will become unfolded, and the coin adhering to the corner of the handkerchief will, of course, come into your right hand; then detach the coin, shake out the handkerchief, and to the great astonishment of the company the coin will have disappeared.

In order to convince your audience that the coin is still in the handkerchief after you have wrapped it up, you can drop it on the table, when it will sound.

TO PRODUCE A CANNON-BALL FROM A HAT.

This is a very old trick, though it still finds favor with most of the conjurors of the present day. You borrow a hat, and on taking it into your hands you ask a number of questions about it, or say it would be a pity for you to spoil so nice a hat, or make use of some such remark. This, however, is only a ruse for the purpose of diverting attention. Then passing round to the back of your table—(where, by the way, you have arranged on pegs a large wooden "cannon-ball," or a cabbage, or a bundle of dolls, trinkets, etc., loosely tied together, so that they may be easily disengaged)—you wipe, in passing, one or other of these articles off the pegs, where they must be very slightly suspended, into the hat so rapidly as not to be observed.

Returning to the gentleman from whom you received the hat, you say to him—"You are aware, sir, that your hat was not empty when you gave it to me"—at the same time emptying the contents in front of the audience. Supposing you have, in the first instance, introduced the dolls and trinkets, you may repeat the trick by wiping the "cannon-ball" or one of the other articles into the hat, and again advancing towards the gentleman from whom you received it, say, "Here is your hat; thank you, sir." Then, just as you are about to give it to him, say, "Bless me, what have we here?" and turning the hat upside down, the large cannon-ball will fall out.

EVANESCENT MONEY.

"'T is here, and 't is gone!" This simple but effective trick is done in the following manner: Stick a small piece of white wax on the nail of your middle finger; lay a dime on the palm of your hand, and state to the company that you will make it vanish at the word of command, at the same time observing that many perform the feat by letting the dime fall into their sleeve, but to convince them that you have not recourse to any such deception, turn up the cuffs of your sleeves. Then close your hand, and by bringing the waxed nail in contact with the dime, it will firmly adhere to it. Then blow upon your hand, and cry "Begone!" and suddenly opening it and extending your palm, you show the dime has vanished. Care must be taken to remove the wax from the dime before you restore it to the owner.

THE WINGED DIME.

Take a dime with a hole in the edge, and attach it to a piece of white sewing-silk, at the end of which is a piece of elastic cord about twelve inches in length. Sew the cord to the lining of your left-hand coat sleeve, but be careful that the end of the cord to which the coin is attached should not extend lower than within two inches of the end of the sleeve when the coat is on. Having done this, bring down the sixpence with the right hand, and place it between the thumb and under finger of the left hand, and showing it to the company, tell them you will give it to any one present who will not let it slip away. You must then select one of your audience, to whom you proffer the dime, and just as he is about to receive it you must let it slip from between your fingers, and the contraction of the elastic cord will draw the coin up your sleeve, and its sudden disappearance will be likely to astonish the would-be recipient. This feat can be varied by pretending to wrap the coin in a piece of paper or a handkerchief. Great care should be taken not to let any part of the cord be seen, as that would be the means of discovering the trick.

THE AERIAL COIN.

The following will furnish the key to many of the stock tricks of professional conjurors. Having turned up the cuffs of your coat, begin by placing a cent on your elbow (your arm being bent by raising the hand toward the shoulder) and catching it in your hand—a feat of dexterity easily performed. Then say that you can catch even a smaller coin in a more difficult position. You must illustrate this by placing the dime half-way between the elbow and the wrist, and by suddenly bringing the hand down the dime will fall securely into the cuff, unseen by any one, and it will seem to have disappeared altogether. Take a drinking glass or tumbler, and bidding the spectators to look upwards, inform them that the lost coin shall drop through the ceiling. By placing the glass at the side of your arm, and elevating your hand, the coin will fall from the cuff into the tumbler.

THE TRAVERSING RING.

Provide yourself with a silk handkerchief and a small ring. With a needleful of silk, doubled, sew the ring to the middle of the handkerchief, but let it be suspended by the silk within an inch or two of the bottom of the handkerchief. When the handkerchief is held up by the two corners, the ring must always hang on the side facing the conjuror. The handkerchief may now be crumpled up to "show all fair." Obtain a ring from one of the company, and retain it in the hand with which you receive it, but pretend to pass it to the other. Then pretend to wrap it up in the handkerchief, and taking hold of the other ring through the folds, request some one to hold it. Ask them if they can feel it, and as soon as they are satisfied that this is the identical ring which you borrowed, you put a plate on the table, and request the person holding the handkerchief to place both it and the ring on the plate. You then inform the company that you will cause the ring to pass through the plate and table into a little box, which you show round, and which you will place under the table. You can easily slip the ring in as you are doing so. Then partly unwrap the handkerchief, so that the ring will chink upon the plate, and with the words, "Quick! change! begone!" or some expressions of similar import, take the handkerchief by two corners, and put it in your pocket, saying, "It is now in

the box." You then request some one to pick it up and take out the ring.

THE COOKING HAT.

Have cakes or pudding previously made, and procure a jar or doctor's gallipot, and a tin pot, made straight all the way up, with the bottom half way down, so that both ends contain exactly the same quantity. The ready-made pancakes are previously put into the one end of this pot, which must be dextrously slipped into the hat. Then take some milk, flour, eggs, &c., and mix them up in the jar. Having done so, deliberately pour the mixture into the hat, taking care that the pot previously deposited there receives it. Put the jar down into the hat, press it on the tin pot, which exactly fits inside the jar, and brings away the pot containing the mixture, leaving the pancakes, which you pretend to fry over the candle, using the hat as a frying-pan. Then turn out the pudding or pancakes, show that the hat remains unsoiled, and restore it to its owner.

AN AVIARY IN A HAT.

This excellent, but well-known trick requires the assistance of a confederate. A hat is borrowed as before from one of the audience, and turned round and round to show there is nothing in it. It is then laid on the operator's table, behind a vase or some other bulky article ; after which, as if a new idea had occurred to you, perform some other trick, during which the confederate removes the borrowed hat, substituting one previously prepared. This substituted hat is filled with small pigeons, placed in a bag with a whalebone or an elastic mouth, which fits the inside of the hat. The bag containing the birds is covered with a piece of cloth, with a slit in the top. The operator, taking up the hat, puts his hands through the slit, and takes out the birds one by one, till all are free. The hat is then placed on the table, for the ostensible purpose of cleaning it before handing it back, and the confederate again changes the hats, having in the interim fitted the borrowed hat with a bag similar to the other, and also filled with pigeons. This having been done, you call out to your confederate, and request him, so that all your audience may hear, to "Take the gentleman's hat away, and clean it." He takes it up, and peeps into it, saying, "You have not let all the birds away," upon which, to the surprise and amusement of the spectators, you produce another lot of birds as before. In brushing the hat previous to restoring it to the owner, the bag may be adroitly removed.

A BANK-NOTE CONCEALED IN A CANDLE.

Ask some one to lend you a bank-note, and to notice the number, etc. You then walk up to the screen behind which your confederate is concealed, pass the note to him, and take a wax or composite candle. Then turning to the audience, you ask one of them—a boy would be preferred—to step up on the platform. At your request he must cut the candle into four equal parts. You then take three of them, and say you will perform the trick by means of them, passing the fourth piece to the other end of the table, where your confederate has already rolled up the note in a very small compass, and thrust it into a hollow bit of candle, previously made ready. You take up this piece, and, concealing it in your hand, you walk up to the boy, and appear accidentally to knock one of the bits of candle out of his hand, and while you are stooping to pick it up off the floor, you change it for the bit which contains the note. You then place it on the table, and say to the audience, "Which piece shall I take—right or left?" If they select the one which contains the note, ask the boy to cut it carefully through the middle, and to mind that he does not cut the note. When he has made a slight incision, tell him to break it, when the note will be found in the middle. If the audience select the piece which does not contain the note, you throw it aside, and say that the note will be found in the remaining piece. When this is done with tact, the audience will naturally believe that they have really had the privilege of choosing.

THE DOLL TRICK.

The Doll Trick, although common in the streets of London and at every fair throughout the country, is without exception one of the best sleight-of-hand tricks that was ever performed, and must not be omitted here.

The conjuror produces a wooden painted doll, about six inches long ; he then places it in a bag of very dark material, and tells his story. "The little traveler, ladies and gentlemen, you see before you, is a wonderful little man who has been all over the world ; but as he has grown older he has become very nervous. One evening lately, at a small *cabaret* in the south of France, he was stating how nervous he was and how much he dreaded being robbed, when a Jew who sat in a corner of the room undertook to impart to him the means of making himself invisible at any moment, for a sum to be agreed upon. The bargain was struck, the money paid, and the Jew placed at his disposal a small skull-cap, which, as soon as it was placed upon his head, rendered him at once invisible ; and I will now show you, ladies and gentlemen, the power possessed by this cap." The doll is then introduced into the bag, which has a small opening at the smaller end sufficiently large to admit of the doll's head passing through it. When the head has been shown, the lower part of the bag is turned over the doll and its body shown, "so that there can be no deception!" The conjuror then says (still holding the head above the top of the bag), "I will now show you the wonderful cap by which the old gentleman is at once rendered invisible ;" and producing it from his pocket, he places it upon the head of the doll for a moment, and then removes it; the head then disappears in the bag, which is then turned inside out, and no trace of the doll can be perceived, though the bag be thrown on the floor, stamped upon, etc.

And now for the secret and the method of performing this really surprising though very simple trick. The head is removable and only fastened to the neck by a peg about three-quarters of an inch long ; the bag or dress is made full at the bottom, *i. e.*, about the size of a hat, and has an opening at the top just large enough to allow the doll's head to pass through it ; at the lower edge of this bag must be made a small pocket, just large enough to contain *easily* the doll, and on the

outside of the bag must be a red streak, by way of ornament, coming from the top directly down to the pocket, so that it may be seen exactly where the pocket is. This side of the bag must be held nearest to the performer.

In performing the trick the doll is introduced at the bottom of the bag, and passed upwards until the head is shown through the opening at the top; and when the performer says, "I will now show you the cap," he, holding the head of the doll in his left hand, quickly passes the body into his pocket, where he has the cap, which he produces, leaving the body in its place. He then for a moment places the cap on the doll's head, and replaces it in his pocket; then placing his right hand in the bag, he slowly draws down the head, which he slips into the small pocket in the bag, and shows his hand open and empty. He then catches hold of the lower edge of the bag at the pocket, holding, of course, the head of the doll in his hand, and strikes the bag against the table, ground, etc, and says, "I told you the old gentleman would become invisible." He then says, "I will try to bring him back again;" and introducing his hand into the bag, he takes the head from the pocket and shows it through the opening at the top of the bag, and retaining it in his hand, he throws the bag on the floor and tramples upon it.

If well done, we consider this trick, though common, one of the best that is performed. It will be as well to have two dolls made exactly alike, one with the head fixed, to be handed round, and the other with the movable head to be used in the trick. We sometimes use a pocketless dress, and "palm" the head.

TO PASS A DIME, OR OTHER SMALL ARTICLE, THROUGH A TABLE.

This trick, like the preceding one, is very amusing, and if well, and what we may call *cleanly* done, is really very astonishing. The conjuror, seating himself at a table, borrows two articles of any kind sufficiently small to be concealed in the hands; these he places on the edge of the table before him, and says, I take this one, as you see, in my right hand, and hold it at arm's length, and the other I take in my left hand—my hands never meet. I now place my left hand under the table and my right hand above it, and upon my giving the word "Pass!" the dime which you saw me take in my right hand will pass through the table to the ball of cotton in my left, which you see is the case.

This trick is very easy of accomplishment, if but a little time and patience be bestowed upon it. The dime, piece of India-rubber, or any other small article must be placed on the edge of the table, and the fingers must be placed over it *exactly* the same way as if it were really desired to take it in the hand; but instead of doing so the fingers merely push it over the edge of the table, and, the knees of the performer being closed, it falls into his lap. It is then picked up with the left hand, and the right hand being brought sharply upon the upper surface of the table, the dime appears to have passed through it.

THE CUP AND CENT.

This too, if well performed, is a most astounding trick. Three coins of one cent each are shown, and a small cap or cup. The cents are thrown on the table, picked up again, arranged one on the other, and the cap placed over them. A hat is then introduced, and shown to be empty; this is then held in the left hand under the table, the cap removed with the right hand, the cents shown and recovered. The conjuror then says, "Pass!" when the cents are heard to fall in the hat; the cap on the table is raised, and they are gone, and in their place a small die or three cent piece appears. The cents are then taken in the left hand, held under the table, and commanded to pass; and on raising the cap they again appear beneath it.

This trick is very simple though ingenious, and the solution of it is as follows. The cap is of leather or any similar stiff material, and made to fit over three coins of one cent each *easily;* and the "trick" cents are six riveted together, the upper one being entire, but the other five being turned out, leaving nothing but their outer rims. Three coins of one cent each are shown, as also the cap; and after showing the cents, while gathering them in the hand, "palm" them and place the "trick" cents (inside of which is the die) on the table, and cover them with the cap. Then taking the hat in the left hand, command the cents to pass, and at the word drop the genuine cents into the hat, at the same time raising the cap on the table, and by pinching the sides of it rather tightly the "trick" cents are raised with it, and the die or three cent-pieces appear, then covering the die or three cent-pieces with the cap and the "trick" cents concealed in it, show the genuine cents in the hat and command them to return; and holding the genuine cents in the left hand, lift the cap, and the cents again appear. Then taking the cap in the right hand, adroitly drop the "trick" cents into it and tender the cap for scrutiny.

The table-cloth should be a thick and soft one, to prevent the spectators from hearing the die fall as the "trick" cents are placed on the table.

THE SHOWER OF SUGARPLUMS.

This is a capital *finale* to an evening's amusement, particularly with young children. A small bag, capable of holding about a pint, must be made of a piece of figured calico, of a conical shape, but open at the bottom or larger end, on each side of which must be inserted a flat thin piece of whalebone; at the upper or smaller end must be a small hook made of wire—a lady's hair-pin will answer the purpose perfectly. The trick is performed in this way:—

The bottom of the bag must be opened by pressing the opposite ends of the two pieces of whalebone, when, of course, they will bend and divide, and the bag must then be filled with sugarplums, care being taken to put the small bonbons at the top of the bag, and the large ones at the bottom next the whalebone, which will prevent the small ones from falling out. The bag when filled must on the first opportunity be suspended by its hook at the back of a chair having a stuffed back, so that it cannot be seen.

When the trick is to be performed, a large handkerchief must be shown, with a request that it may be examined. It

is then laid over the back of the chair. A little girl must then be asked if she is afraid of being out in the rain, and on her answering in the negative she must be requested to kneel down in the middle of the room. The performer must then place his left hand on the handkerchief, and feeling the hook which supports the bag, he raises it with the handkerchief, and holds it above the little girl's head ; then passing his right hand from the fourth finger and thumb of the left hand which hold the handkerchief and bag, downwards, he can easily feel the bottom of the bag, and on pressing the opposite ends of the whalebone, they bend and open, and the contents of the bag of course fall out in a shower, and a general scramble among the children takes place.

TO REMOVE AN EGG FROM ONE WINE-GLASS TO ANOTHER WITHOUT TOUCHING EITHER THE EGG OR THE GLASSES.

Place two wine-glasses touching each other and in a direct line from you, and in the one nearer to you must be placed an egg with its smaller end downwards. Then blow with the mouth suddenly and sharply and strongly against the side of the egg, but in a downward direction, when the egg will be lifted up, and falling over will lodge in the other glass.

THE EGG IN THE BAG.

This, too, is a capital trick, if quietly and neatly performed, and the more slowly the better.

A small bag is produced, rather larger than a sheet of note-paper, into which an egg (or rather the shell of one out of which the contents have been blown) is dropped. The corner of the bag must then be squeezed round it to show that it is there, and it may be felt by any one present. The corner of the open end of the bag is then held by the finger and thumb of the left hand, and the right placed in the bag, which is then held open end downwards, and the right hand withdrawn empty. The bag is then seized by the right hand, and struck violently against the table, and then crumpled up in the hands. It is then held with the mouth upwards, the right hand is again placed in the bag, and the egg unbroken produced.

The trick is performed in this way : The bag is made double on one side, thus forming a second bag, the mouth of which is at the bottom of the other. After the egg has been dropped in the bag and felt to be there, it is held in the right hand, while the bag is held bottom upwards, and then dropped in the second bag. The right hand is then withdrawn. When the edge of the bag is seized by the right hand, the egg must be also held in the same hand in the bag, and it is thus preserved from being broken when the bag is struck against the table, etc. The mouth of the bag being then held upwards, the egg of course falls into the first bag, and is then taken out and shown.

TO FIX A PENKNIFE BY ITS POINT IN THE CEILING, AND AFTERWARD PLACE A QUARTER SO EXACTLY UNDER IT THAT WHEN DISLODGED BY STRIKING THE CEILING THE KNIFE SHALL FALL ON THE QUARTER.

This is a most ingenious trick, and is done in this way Mounting a table, stick the penknife by its point into the ceiling, but only sufficiently to support it. Then after a deal of examination of its position, etc., place a piece of brown paper on the floor, on which put the quarter, and then say you will undertake to place the quarter so exactly under it that, when dislodged, the knife shall fall upon it. When wonder is excited, and it is declared to be impossible, call for a glass of water ; then mounting on the table, dip the penknife in the water and withdraw the glass ; a drop of water will soon fall on the paper, and on that very spot place the quarter. You then strike the ceiling with your fist, when the knife will fall, of course, on the quarter. The knife chosen for the purpose should be one having rather a heavy pointed handle, as the drop of water will then fall from the most central point.

TO PRODUCE A CANNON-BALL FROM A HAT.

A ball must be turned out of any kind of soft light wood, and must have a hole bored in it large enough to admit the middle finger, and it should be painted black. The trick is performed in this way : On the front of the conjuring table, *i. e.*, the side next the spectators, should be placed a few layers of books, high enough to conceal from view the ball or any other apparatus with which it is intended to perform. On the side of the books next the performer the ball should be placed, with the hole in it towards him. The hat should be placed on the books on its side on the left-hand end of the table, with its crown next the spectators. When the trick is to be performed the hat should be shown to be entirely empty, and then returned to its position on the books ; then, having placed a hat-brush or silk handkerchief at the right hand of the table, say, "This trick cannot be performed unless the hat is perfectly smooth," and while leaning to the right to reach the brush or handkerchief, which diverts attention to *that* end of the table, the middle finger of the left hand must be placed in the hole in the ball, which is thus slipped into the hat, which must then be carefully brushed and held crown uppermost. The brush should then be put down, and the right thumb placed on the rim of the hat, with the fingers extended underneath so as to support the ball in the hat, and the left hand should then be placed in the same position, and the hat, with the ball in it, carried and placed upon another table. A small ball must then be produced, and a boy asked if he thinks he can hold it in his mouth, and told to try. The ball is then taken in the right hand, pretended to be thrown against the hat, "palmed," and concealed in the pocket. The boy should then be asked if he will again take the ball in his mouth, and while opening it the cannon-ball is suddenly taken from under the hat and placed in front of his face.

Physics Without Appliances.

A Cheap Magnifying Lamp—Measuring the Illuminating Power of a Candle and an Argand Lamp.

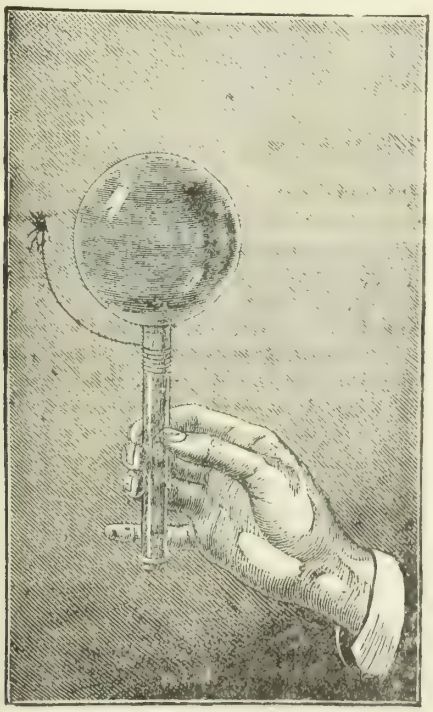
AN ordinary looking-glass, a lighted taper, and a foot rule, or a measuring tape, are quite sufficient to demonstrate the simple geometrical laws of reflection; for, with their aid, it is very easy to show that the image of the candle in the mirror is virtually situated at a distance behind the mirror equal to the actual distance of the candle front, and that, when a ray falls obliquely on the mirror, the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection. A teacher who wishes to go further into the matter, and to demonstrate the laws of reflection at curved surfaces, usually provides himself with the appropriate silvered mirrors of convex and concave form. Failing these, the exterior and interior surfaces of the bowl of a bright silver spoon will probably be as satisfactory a substitute as any. We have found even a saucer of common glazed earthenware to form a very fair concave mirror, giving upon a small tissue paper screen a beautiful little inverted image of a distant gas flame. To illustrate the geometrical laws of refraction through lenses, a good reading-glass of large size is a desirable acquisition. Spectacle-lenses, though of a smaller size, and therefore admitting less light, are also of service. In the absence of any of these articles, it is generally possible to fall back upon a water decanter, provided one can be found of a good globular form, and not spoiled for optical purposes by having ornamental work cut upon the sides of the globe. It is held a few inches away from a white wall and a candle is placed at the opposite side, so that its light falls through the decanter on to the wall. The candle is moved toward or away from the decanter until the position is found in which its rays focus themselves upon the wall, giving a clear inverted image of the candle-flame upon the wall. The experiment may be varied by setting down the candle on the table, and then moving the decanter to and fro until a definite image is obtained. If a large hand-reading-glass be available, the image will be much clearer than with the improvised water-lens; and a further improvement in the manner of experimenting may be made by using a screen of white paper or card instead of a whitened wall on which to receive the image. The first sheet of paper should be set up in simple fashion at one end of the table. The candle should be placed at the other end of the table, and the reading-lens moved about between them until a point is found at which it throws upon the screen a good clear image of the candle. It will be found that there are two such points, one near the candle, the other near the screen. In each case the image of the candle will be inverted, but in the first case it will be a magnified and, in the second, a diminished image, the size of the image, as compared with that of the real flame, being proportional to their respective distances from the lens.

When the lens has been placed in a position of good focus, the candle may be removed and placed where the screen stood; if now the screen is placed where the candle was, it will be found that the image is again visible on the screen, still inverted, though altered in magnitude. This experiment, in fact, proves the law of conjugate foci.

The young beginner in science who repeats these experiments for himself will begin to understand how it is that in the photographer's camera the image in the instrument is inverted, and how it can also be true that the images cast on the sensitive retina of the eye are also inverted. The retina at the back of the eyeball answers to the white screen on which the image is thrown by the lens in front of it. It is possible, indeed, to show in actual fact that the image in the eyeball is inverted; the experiment is very simple, but we believe that this is the first time that it has been described in print. Take a candle, and hold it in your right hand as you stand opposite a looking-glass. Turn your head slightly to the left while you look at the image of yourself in the glass. Open your eyes very wide, and look carefully at the image of your left eye. Move the candle about gently, up, down, forward, etc., so that the light falls more or less obliquely on to the eyeball. You will presently notice a little patch of light in the extreme outer corner of the eye; it is the image of the candle on the inside of the eyeball, which you see through the semi-transparent horny substance of the eye. If you move the candle up, the little image moves down, and if you succeed well, you will discern that it is an inverted image, the tip of the flame being downward. You thus prove to your own satisfaction that the image of the candle in your eyeball is really upside down.

A magnifying-glass of very simple construction a few years ago found a great sale in the streets of London, at the price of one penny. A bulb blown at the end of a short glass tube is filled with water. When held in front of the eye, this forms a capital lens for examining objects of microscopic dimensions, which may be secured in place by a bit of wire twisted round the stem.

The principle by which the intensity of two lights is compared in the photometer is very easily shown. We can measure, by the following process, the relative brightness of an Argand oil-lamp, and of an ordinary candle. Both these lights are set upon the table, and are so arranged that each casts on to a screen of white paper a shadow of a tall, narrow object. The most handy object for this purpose is another candle unlighted. The Argand lamp, being the brighter light, will cast the deeper shadow of the two, unless it is placed farther away. The measure of the brightness is obtained by moving the brighter light just so far off that the intensity of the two shadows is equal, for then we know that the relative intensities of the two lights are proportional to the squares of their distances from the photometer. All that remains, therefore, is to measure the distances and calculate out the intensities. If, for example, the distance of



the lamp is double that of the candle when the two shadows are equally dark, we know that the brightness of the lamp is four times as great as that of the candle.

Many other facts in optics can be shown with no greater trouble than that entailed by such simple experiments as we have described. The pendant luster of a chandelier will provide an excellent prism of glass for showing the dispersion of light into its component tints. A couple of spectacle glasses appropriately chosen will, when pressed together, afford capital "Newton's rings" at the point where they touch. Diffraction bands of gorgeous hue may be observed by looking at a distant gaslight, or at the point of light reflected by a silvered bead in sunshine, through a piece of fine gauze, or through a sparrow's feather held close in front of the eye. And yet more remarkable effects of diffraction are obtained if the point of light be looked at through substances of still finer structure, such as the preparations of woody structure, and of the eyes of insects which are sold as microscopic objects. But the explanation of these beautiful phenomena would lead us far beyond our subject.

Expansion of Air—To keep Hot and Cold Water apart.

The science of heat constitutes one of those departments of physics in which both the uninitiated beginner and the advanced student can find food for thought. To follow out the theoretical teachings of the science of heat requires a knowledge of abstruse mathematical formulæ; but, on the other hand, a very large proportion of the fundamental facts of experiment upon which the science depends can be illustrated with the simplest means.

The property possessed by almost all material bodies of *expanding* when they are warmed affords us the means of ascertaining the *degree* to which they are warmed. Thus the expansion of the quicksilver in the bulbs of our thermometers shows us the degree of temperature of the surrounding air. Again, the heat imparted to the air within a paper fire-balloon makes it expand and become specifically lighter than the surrounding atmosphere through which it rises. In general it may be asserted that matter, in whichever state it may be—solid, liquid, or gaseous—expands when heat is imparted to it, and contracts when heat is taken from it. An empty wine bottle is placed with its mouth downward in a deep dish or jar containing water, the bottom of the bottle projecting over the side of the jar. Heat is then applied by means of a spirit-lamp; or, if this is not available, by burning under it a piece of cotton-wool soaked in spirits and held on the end of a fork. The glass of the bottle becomes hot—if too hot it may crack—and the air inside shares its warmth and begins to expand. There being only a limited space inside the bottle, some of the air will be forced out and will rise in bubbles through the water. If now the flame be removed, the reverse operation of contraction by cooling may be witnessed; for, as the air inside the bottle cools, it will occupy a smaller and smaller amount of space, and the water will gradually rise up in the bottle-neck. Of course, this is seen better with a bottle of clear glass than with one of dark or opaque tint.

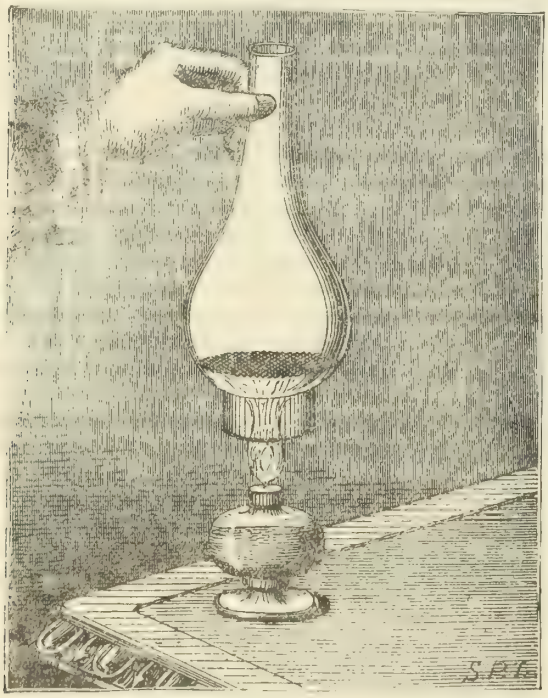
The contraction of a liquid on cooling can be even more simply shown. Take a common medicine bottle, warm it gently (by rinsing it out with a little hot water) so that it shall not crack by the sudden heating, and then fill it *brimful* of boiling water. Leave it to cool; and in less than half an hour you will find that the water which you poured in to overflowing has shrunk down into the neck of the bottle, having contracted as it cools.

It was mentioned above that the hot air in a fire balloon raises it, being lighter than the cold air. In the same way hot water will rise through cold, and float on the top of it, being specifically lighter. You may prove this in several ways. Fill a deep jar with water, and then, taking a red-hot poker, plunge about an inch of the tip of it into the surface of the water. Presently the whole of the water at the top will be boiling furiously; but the water at the bottom will be just as cool as

before, for the hotter water will not have gone down, but will have floated at the top, being lighter in consequence of expansion. The same thing can be shown very prettily by the following simple experiment:—Fill a wide and deep glass jar—the glass of a parlor aquarium will do excellently—to about half its depth with cold water. Provide yourself also with a kettleful of boiling water, a funnel, a bit of wood about three inches square, and with some ink—red ink if possible. Pour into the kettle enough of the ink to color it with a perceptible tint: this is simply that you may be able to distinguish between the colorless cold water and the colored hot water which you are going to cause to float at the top. The only difficulty of the experiment is how to pour out the hot water without letting it *mix* with the cold water. A bit of wood (or cardboard) is laid on the water as a float, and you must pour the hot water on to this to break the force of its fall. The funnel will also help to break the fall of the hot water, and will aid you to guide the stream on to the middle of the float. With these precautions you need not fear failure, and you will enjoy the spectacle so seldom seen, though so often actually occurring, of *hot water floating on the top of cold water.*

SINGING AND SENSITIVE FLAMES.

Much notice was attracted some years ago by the discovery of singing and sensitive flames. A sensitive flame is not easily



made, unless where gas can be burned at a much higher pressure than is to be found in the case of the gas supplied by the companies for house-lighting. To make a singing-flame requires the proper glass tubes, and an apparatus for generating hydrogen gas. The roaring-tube, which we are now about to describe, is a good substitute, however, and is also due to the generation of very rapid vibrations, although in this case the way in which the heat sets up the vibrations cannot be very simply explained. Let a common paraffine lamp-chimney be chosen, and let us thrust up loosely into its wider or bulbous portion a piece of iron wire gauze such as is often employed for window-blinds. If this be not at hand, a few scraps of wire twisted together, or even a few hairpins, will suffice. The lamp-chimney must then be held over the flame of a spirit-lamp, or other hot flame, until the wire gauze glows with a red heat. Now remove the lamp or lift the chimney off it, so that the gauze may cool. It will emit a loud note like a powerful (though rather harsh) organ-pipe, lasting for about a quarter of a minute, or until the gauze has cooled. Tubes of different sizes produce different notes.

It is now well known that the quality of different sounds depends upon the form or character of the invisible sound-waves, and that different instruments make sounds that have characters of their own, because their peculiar shapes throw the air into waves of particular kinds. The different vowel-sounds are caused by putting the mouth into particular shapes in order to produce waves of a particular quality. Take a jew's-harp and put it to the mouth as if you were going to play it. Shape the mouth as if you were going to say the vowel O, and on striking the harp you hear that sound. Alter the shape of the mouth to say A, and the harp sounds the vowel accordingly. The special forms of vibration corresponding to the different vowel-sounds can be rendered evident to the eye in a very beautiful way by the simplest conceivable means. A saucerful of soapy water (prepared from yellow kitchen soap and soft water, or with cold water that has previously been boiled), and a brass curtain-ring, is all that is needed. A film of soapy water shows, as all children know when they blow bubbles, the loveliest rainbow-tints when thin enough. A flat film can be made by dipping a brass curtain-ring into the soapy water, and then lifting it out. When the colors have begun to show on the edge of the film, sing any of the vowels, or the whole of them, one after the other, near the film. It will be thrown into beautiful rippling patterns of color, which differ with the different sounds. Instead of a curtain-ring, the ring made by closing together the tips of finger and thumb will answer the purpose of proving a frame on which to produce the phoneidoscopic film.

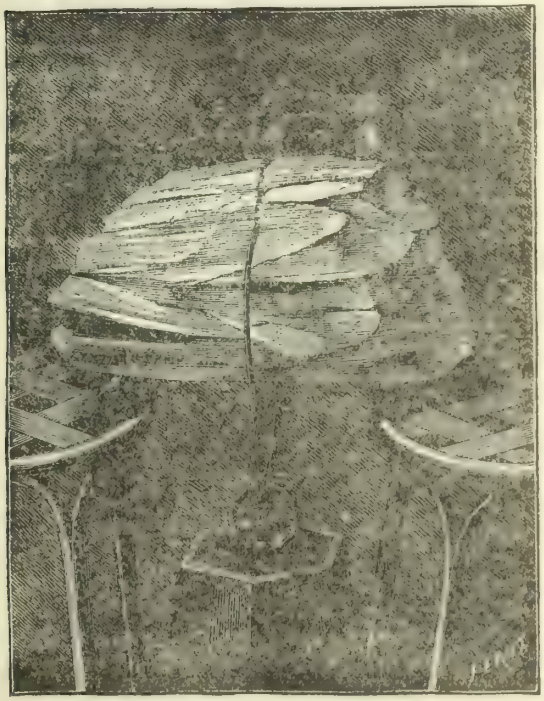
TRANSMISSION OF SOUND.

Acoustical experiments require, for the most part, the aid of some good instrument or valuable piece of apparatus. Nevertheless, a few instructive illustrations of the principle of science can be improvised without difficulty. Firstly, there is the familiar experiment brought into fashion by Professor Tyndall, of setting a row of ivory billiard balls, or glass solitaire marbles, along a groove between two wooden boards, and showing how their elasticity enables them to transmit from one to another a wave of moving energy imparted to the first of the row, thus affording a type of the transmission of sound-waves from particle to particle through elastic media. Then we may show how sounds travel through solid bodies by resting against a music-box, or other musical instrument, a broomstick, or any

convenient rod of wood, at the other end of which we place our ear.

Another familiar illustration is afforded by means of threads:—A large spoon is tied to the middle of a thin silken or hempen thread, the ends of which are thrust into the ears upon the ends of the thumbs. If the spoon be dangled against the edge of the table it will resound, and the tones reach the ear like a loud church-bell. The thread telephone, or "lover's telegraph," is upon the same principle, the thread transmitting the whispered words to a distance, without that loss—by spreading in all directions—which takes place in the open air.

The discovery that a musical tone is the result of regularly recurring vibrations, the number of which determines the pitch of the tone, was made by Galileo without any more formal apparatus than a mill-edged coin along the rim of which he drew his thumbnail, and found it to produce a sound. We can show this better by taking a common toy gyroscope-top with a heavy leaden wheel, such as are sold at every toy shop. With a strong penknife or a file, cut a series of fine notches or grooves across the rim, so that it shall have a milled edge like a coin. Now spin it, and while it spins, gently hold against the revolving wheel the edge of a sheet of stiff writing-paper, or of



a very thin visiting card. A loud, clear note will be heard if the nicks have been evenly cut, which, beginning with a shrill pitch, will gradually fall with a dolorous cadence into the bass end of the scale, and finally die out in separately audible ticks.

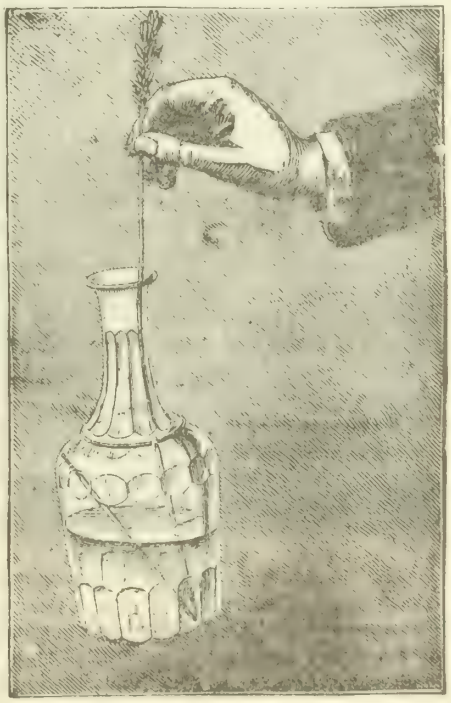
REGELATION DEMONSTRATED.

If a piece of ice be placed on two chairs and a copper wire passed around it, with a weight to make it press on the ice, in the course of a few hours the weight will have dragged the wire through the ice, as if it were no harder than a piece of cheese, yet the ice has healed up as fast as the wire cut into it, and it is still one solid block. This is termed regelation, and the extraordinary fact can be accounted for in the following way:—

In the neighborhood of the wire, where it passes through the ice, the pressures are not uniform, for just below the wire the portions of the ice are under pressure, owing to the pull of the heavy weight, while immediately above the wire the ice is subjected to a stress tending to draw the particles asunder, or, in other words, it is subjected to a *pull* or "negative pressure." The pressure on the ice under the wire lowers its melting point, and causes very small quantities of it to melt; these liquid portions immediately are squeezed out, and find their way round the wire to the space above it, where, the pressure being reduced, they again freeze hard.

TO LIFT A DECANTER WITH A STRAW.

THE following simple experiment illustrates the principle that a substance which is very weak in one direction may be

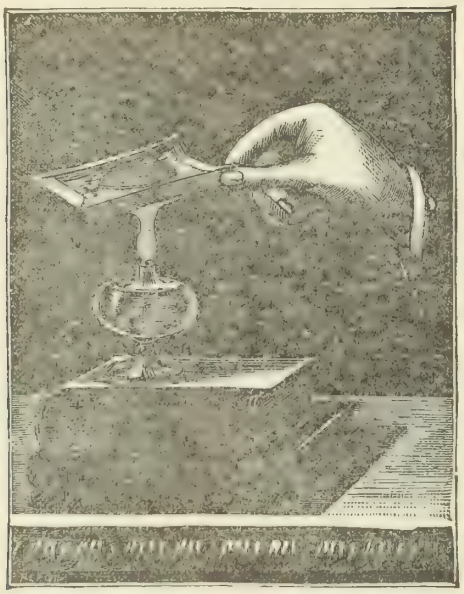


very strong in another, the "strength" of the material (that is to say, the resistance it offers before it will break) depending on the way in which a force is applied to it. It is possible to lift a decanter full of water by means of a single straw. To do this the straw must be bent, as shown in the above illustration, so that the weight comes longitudinally upon the straw. The straw is a very weak thing if it has to resist force applied laterally. Lay a single straw horizontally, so that the two ends are supported, and then hang weights on to

the middle of it—a very few ounces will break it across. But let the weights be fixed to one end of the straw, and the straw itself be hung downward so that the pull is exerted along it, and it will support one or two pounds at least. When bent, as in the figure inside the bottle, most of the weight is applied as a thrust against the end of the straw; the bottle tilts slightly until the center of gravity of the whole is below the point from which it hangs between finger and thumb; but in this position the sideway thrust against the middle of the straw is very small, and the material is strong enough to stand the strain to which it is subjected lengthways.

MELTING LEAD ON A CARD.

Twist up the edges of a common playing-card or other bit of cardboard, so as to fashion it into a light tray. On this tray place a layer of small shot or bits of lead, and heat it over the flames of a lamp. The lead will melt, but the card will not burn. It may be charred a little round the edges, but immediately below the lead it will not be burned, for here again the lead conducts off the heat on one side as fast



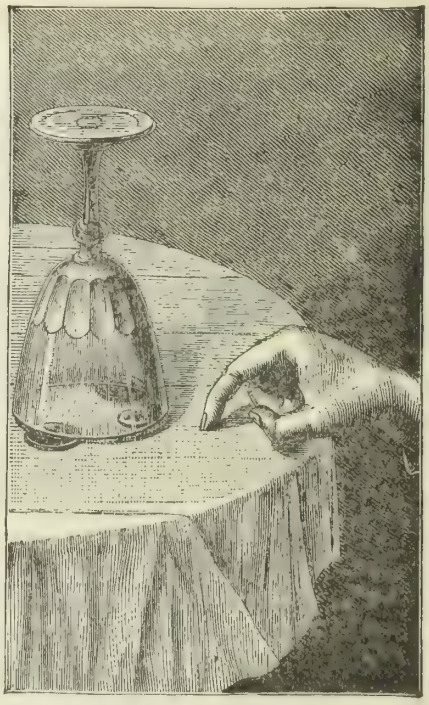
as it is supplied on the other. Lastly, we give an experiment which, like the two preceding, proves that a good conducting substance may protect a delicate fabric from burning by conducting away the heat rapidly from it. Lay a piece of muslin quite flat upon a piece of metal. A live coal placed on the muslin will not burn it, for the metal takes away the heat too fast. If the muslin is, however, laid on a bad conductor, such as a piece of wood, it will not be protected, and the live coal will kindle the muslin.

A MINIATURE DIVING BELL.

A wine-glass is turned mouth downward and plunged into a jar of water. The water rises up only a very little way into the mouth of the wine-glass, owing to the air which it contains. The deeper the wine-glass is plunged the more the air is compressed, and the higher does the water rise in the miniature bell. To compress the contained air into one-half of its original volume it would be necessary to plunge the wine-glass about thirty-four feet deep into the water; for to halve the volume of the air inside we must double the external pressure. The pressure of the air is already several pounds to each square inch of surface. A few flies or other insects may, without incurring the charge of cruelty to animals, be made to do duty as divers inside the diving bell during this experiment.

EXPERIMENT WITH COIN.

A simple experiment, depending partly upon the inertia of matter and partly upon elasticity, is often shown as an after-dinner trick. Upon a linen table-cloth is placed a five-cent piece, between two quarters, or larger and thicker coins. Over this an empty wine-glass is placed, and the puzzle is how to get out the smaller coin without touching the glass. The very simple operation of scratching with the finger-nail upon



the cloth, as shown in our illustration, suffices to accomplish the trick, for the little coin is seen to advance gently toward the finger until it is carried forward beyond the glass.

While the fibers are drawn forward slowly, they drag the coin with them to a minute distance; but when the slip occurs and they fly backward, they do so very rapidly, and slip back under the coin before there is time for the energy of their movement to be imparted to the coin to set it in motion. So the coin is gradually worked toward the operator.

ASTRONOMY.

ASTRONOMY (from the Greek, *astron*, a star, and *nomos*, a law) is, comprehensively, that science which explains the nature and motions of the bodies filling infinite space, including our own globe, in its character of a planet or member of the solar system. The science may be divided into two departments—1. *Descriptive Astronomy*, or an account of the systems of bodies occupying space; 2. *Mechanical Astronomy*, or an explanation of the physical laws which have produced and which sustain the arrangements of the heavenly bodies, and of all the various results of the arrangement and relations of these bodies. *Uranography* is a subordinate department of the science, presenting an account of the arrangements which have been made by astronomers for delineating the starry heavens, and working the many mathematical problems of which they are the subject.

DESCRIPTIVE ASTRONOMY.

The field contemplated by the astronomer is no less than INFINITE SPACE. So at least, he may well presume space to be, seeing that every fresh power which he adds to his telescope allows him to penetrate into remoter regions of it, and still there is no end. In this space, systems, consisting of suns and revolving planets, and other systems again, consisting of a numberless series of such lesser systems, are suspended by the influence of gravitation, operating from one to another, yet each body at such a distance from another, as, though the mind of man can in some instances measure, it can in none conceive. We begin with what is usually called the Solar System—that is, the particular solar system to which our earth belongs.

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

The solar system, so named from *sol* (Latin), the sun, consists of the sun in the center, numerous planets, and an unknown number of bodies named comets. The word planet is from the Greek *planao*, to wander, because the few such bodies known to the ancients were chiefly remarkable in their eyes on account of their constantly shifting their places with reference to the other luminaries of the sky. Comets are so named from *coma* (Latin), a head of hair, because they seem to consist of a bright spot, with a long brush streaming behind.

Some of the planets have other planets moving round them as centers—the moon, for instance, round the earth. These are called secondary planets, moons or satellites; while those that move round the sun are called primary planets. The primary planets consist—1st, of eight larger planets, including the Earth; their names, in the order of their nearness to the sun, are—Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Herschel or Uranus, and Neptune. 2d. A group of small planets or planetoids, called also asteroids, considerable in number. The discovery of a new asteroid by Professor Borelli, places the entire number of planets in the solar system at one hundred and eighteen, against six known in 1781, when Sir W. Herschel discovered Uranus.

The planets move round the sun on nearly one level or plane, corresponding with the center of his body, and in one direction, from west to east. The secondary planets, in like manner, move in planes round the centers of their primaries, and in the same direction, from west to east. These are denominated revolutionary motions; and it is to be observed that they are double in the case of the satellites, which have at once a revolution round the primary, and a revolution, in company with the primary, round the sun. The path described by a planet in its revolution is called its *orbit*.

Each planet, secondary as well as primary, and the sun also, has a motion in its own body, like that of a bobbin upon a spindle. An imaginary line, forming, as it were, the spindle of the sun or planet, is denominated the *axis*, and the two extremities of the axis are called the *poles*. The axes of the sun and planets are all nearly at a right angle with the plane of the revolutionary movements. The motion on the axis is called the rotatory motion, from *rota*, the Latin for a wheel. The sun, the primary planets, and the satellites, with the doubtful exception of two attending on Uranus, move on their axes in the same direction as the revolutionary movements, from west to east.

The Sun is a sphere or globe of 882,000 miles in diameter, or 1,384,472 times the bulk of the earth, moving round its axis in 25 days. When viewed through a telescope, the surface appears intensely bright and luminous, as if giving out both heat and light to the surrounding planets. But on this surface there occasionally appear dark spots, generally surround-

ed with a border of less dark appearance; some of which spots have been calculated to be no less than 45,000 miles in breadth, or nearly twice as much as the circumference of the earth. The region of the sun's body on which the spots appear, is confined to a broad space engirdling his center. They are sometimes observed to come into sight at his western limb, to pass across his body in the course of twelve or thirteen days, and then disappear. They are sometimes observed to contract with great rapidity, and disappear like something melted and absorbed into a burning fluid. Upon the bright parts of the sun's body there are also sometimes observed streaks of unusual brightness, as if produced by the ridges of an agitated and luminous fluid. It has been surmised, that the sun is a dark body, enveloped in an atmosphere calculated for giving out heat and light, and that the spots are produced by slight breaks or openings in that atmosphere, showing the dark mass within. Though so much larger than the earth, the matter of the sun is of only about a third of the density or compactness of that of our planet, or little more than the density of water.

The sun is surrounded to a great distance by a faint light, or luminous matter of extreme thinness, shaped like a lens or magnifying-glass, the body of the sun being in the center, and the luminous matter extending in the plane of the planetary revolutions, till it terminates in a point. At particular seasons, and in favorable states of the atmosphere, it may be observed before sunrise, or after sunset, in the form of a cone pointing obliquely above the place where the sun is either about to appear or which he has just left. It is termed the *Zodiacal Light.*

Mercury, the nearest planet to the sun, is a globe of about 2,950 miles in diameter, rotating on its axis in 24 hours and 5½ minutes, and revolving round the central luminary, at a distance of 37,000,000 of miles in 88 days. From the earth it can only be seen occasionally in the morning or evening, as it never rises before, or sets after the sun, at a greater distance of time than 1 hour and 50 minutes. It appears to the naked eye as a small and brilliant star, but when observed through a telescope, is horned like the moon, because we only see a part of the surface which the sun is illuminating. Mountains of great height have been observed on the surface of this planet, particularly in its lower or southern hemisphere. One has been calculated at 10¾ miles in height, being about eight times higher, in proportion to the bulk of the planet, than the loftiest mountains upon earth. The matter of Mercury is of much greater density than that of the earth, equaling lead in weight; so that a human being placed upon its surface would be so strongly drawn toward the ground as scarcely to be able to crawl.

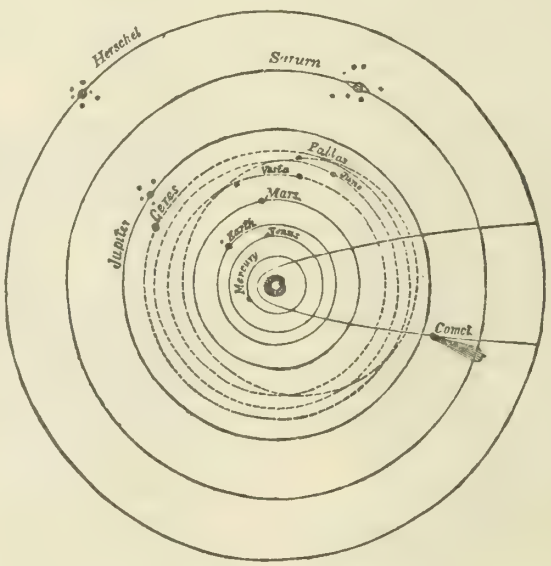
Venus is a globe of about 7,800 miles in diameter, or nearly the size of the earth, rotating on its axis in 23 hours, 21 minutes, and 19 seconds, and revolving round the sun, at the distance of 68,000,000 of miles in 225 days. Like Mercury, it is visible to an observer on the earth only in the morning and evening, but for a greater space of time before sunrise and after sunset. It appears to us the most brilliant and beautiful of all the planetary and stellar bodies, occasionally giving so much light as to produce a sensible shadow. Observed through a telescope, it appears horned, on account of our seeing only a part of its luminous surface. The illuminated part of Venus occasionally presents slight spots. It has been ascertained that its surface is very unequal, the greatest mountains being in the southern hemisphere, as in the case of both Mercury and the Earth. The higher mountains in Venus range between 10 and 22 miles in altitude. The planet is also enveloped in an atmosphere like that by which animal and vegetable life is supported on earth, and it has consequently a twilight. Venus performs its revolution round the sun in 225 days. Mercury

Rate of movement of the Planets in miles per minute.

Mercury	1796
Venus	1334
Earth	1133
Mars	905
Vesta	905
Juno	905
Ceres	693
Pallas	693
Jupiter	490
Saturn	363
Uranus	255
Moon	38

Densities of Planets compared with water, which is considered as one.

The Sun	1, 2-13ths.
Mercury	9, 1-6th.
Venus	5, 11-15ths.
Earth	4½
Mars	3, 2-7ths.
Jupiter	1, 1-24th.
Saturn	0, 13-32ds.
Uranus	0, 99-100ths.



THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Inclinations of Orbits to the Ecliptic.

Mercury	7° 0′ 9″ 1.
Venus	3° 23′ 28″ 5.
Mars	1° 51′ 6″ 2.
Vesta	7° 5′ 9″ 0.
Juno	13° 4′ 9″ 7.
Ceres	10° 37′ 26″ 2.
Pallas	34° 34′ 55″ 0.
Jupiter	1° 18′ 51″ 3.
Saturn	2° 29′ 35″ 7.
Uranus	0° 46′ 28″ 4.

and Venus have been termed the Inferior Planets, as being placed within the orbit of the Earth.

The Earth, the third planet in order, and one of the smaller size, though not the smallest, is important to us, as the theater on which our race have been placed to "live, move, and have their being." It is 7,902 miles in mean diameter, rotating on its axis in 24 hours, at a mean distance of 95,000,000 of miles from the sun, round which it revolves in 365 days, 5 hours, 56 minutes, and 57 seconds. As a planet viewed from another of the planets, suppose the moon, "it would present a pretty, variegated, and sometimes a mottled appearance. The distinction between its seas, oceans, continents, and islands, would be clearly marked; they would appear like brighter and darker spots upon its disk. The continents would appear bright, and the ocean of a darker hue, because water absorbs the greater part of the solar light that falls upon it. The level plains (excepting, perhaps, such regions as the Arabian deserts of sand) would appear of a somewhat darker color than the more elevated and mountainous regions, as we find to be the case on the surface of the moon. The islands would appear like small bright specks on the darker surface of the ocean; and the lakes and Mediterranean seas like darker spots on broad streaks intersecting the bright parts, or the land. By its revolution round the axis, successive portions of the surface would be brought into view, and present a different aspect from the parts which preceded."

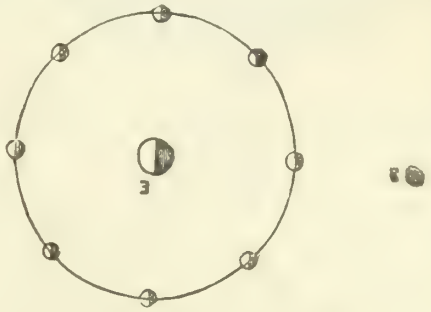
The form of the earth, and probably that of every other planet, is not strictly spherical, but spheroidal; that is flattened a little at the poles, or extremities of the axis. The diameter of the earth at the axis is 26 miles less than in the cross direction. This peculiarity of the form is a consequence of the rotatory motion, as will be afterward explained.

The earth is attended by one satellite, the *Moon*, which is a globe of 2,160 miles in diameter, and consequently about a



TELESCOPIC APPEARANCE OF THE MOON.

49th part of the bulk of the earth, revolving round its primary in 27 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes, and 11 seconds, at the distance of 240,000 miles. The moon is 400 times nearer the earth than the sun is; but, its diameter being at the same time 400 times less than that of the sun, it appears to us of about the same size. The moon rotates on her axis in exactly the same time as she revolves round the earth. She consequently presents at all times the same part of her surface toward the earth. Inspected through a telescope, her surface appears of unequal brightness and extremely rugged. The dark parts, however, are not seas, as has been supposed, but more like the beds of seas, or great alluvial plains. No appearance of water, or of clouds, or of an atmosphere, has been detected. The surface presents numerous mountains, some of them about a mile and three quarters in height, as has been ascertained by measurement of the shadows which they cast on the neighboring surface. The tops of the mountains of the moon are



PHASES OF THE MOON.

generally shaped like a cup or basin, with a small eminence rising from the center, like many volcanic hills on the earth. It has hence been surmised that the moon is in a *volcanic state*, as the earth appears to have been for many ages before the creation of man, and that it is perhaps undergoing processes calculated to make it a fit scene for animal and vegetable life.

The moon turning on its axis once in a little more than 27 days, presents every part of its surface in succession to the sun in that time, as the earth does in 24 hours. The *day* of the moon is consequently nearly a fortnight long, and its *nights* of the same duration. The light of the sun, falling upon the moon, is partly absorbed into its body; but a small portion is reflected or thrown back, and becomes what we call *moonlight*. The illuminated part from which we derive moonlight, is at all times increasing or diminishing in our eyes, as the moon proceeds in her revolution around our globe. When the satellite is at the greatest distance from the sun, we, being between the two, see the whole of the illuminated surface, which we accordingly term *full moon*. As the moon advances in her course, the luminous side is gradually averted from us, and the moon is said to wane. At length, when the satellite has got between the earth and the sun, the luminous side is entirely lost sight of. The moon is then said to *change*. Proceeding in her revolution, she soon turns a bright edge toward us, which we call the *new moon*. This gradually increases in breadth, till a moiety of the circle is quite filled up; it is then said to be *half moon*. The luminary, when on the increase from *new* to *half*, is termed a crescent, from *crescens*, Latin for increasing; and this word has been

applied to other objects of the same shape—for instance, to a curved line of buildings.

In the early days of the new moon, we usually see the dark part of the body faintly illuminated, an appearance termed the *old moon in the new moon's arms*. This faint illumination is produced by the reflection of the sun's light from the earth, or what the inhabitants of the moon, if there were any, might be supposed to consider as moonlight. The earth, which occupies one invariable place in the sky of the moon, with a surface thirteen times larger than the apparent size of the moon in our eyes, is then *at the full*, shining with great luster on the sunless side of its satellite, and receiving back a small portion of its own reflected light. The light, then, which makes the dark part of the moon visible to us, may be said to perform three journeys, first from the sun to the earth, then from the earth to the moon, and finally from the moon back to the earth, before our eyes are enabled to perceive this object.

Mars, the fourth of the primary planets, is a globe of 4,189 miles in diameter, or little more than a half of that of the earth; consequently, the bulk of this planet is only about a fifth of that of our globe. It performs a rotation on its axis in 24 hours, 39 minutes, and 13⅜ seconds, and revolves round the sun, at a distance of 142,000,000 of miles, in 686 days, 22 hours, and 18 seconds. Mars appears to the naked eye of a red color; from which circumstance it was, probably, that the ancients bestowed upon it the name of the god of war. Inspected through a telescope, it is found to be occasionally marked by large spots and dull streaks, of various forms, and by an unusual brightness of the poles. As the bright polar parts sometimes project from the circular outline of the planet, it has been conjectured that these are masses of snow, similar to those which beset the poles of the earth.

Vesta, *Ceres*, *Pallas*, and *Juno* are among the globes, revolving between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, in paths near and crossing each other, and which are not only much more elliptical than the paths of the other planets, but also rise and sink much further from the plane of the general planetary revolutions.

Vesta is of a bulk only 1-15,000th part of the bulk of the earth, with a surface not exceeding that of the kingdom of Spain. It revolves round the sun in 3 years, 66 days, and 4 hours, at a mean distance of 225,500,000 miles. Though the smallest of all the planets, it gives a very brilliant light, insomuch that it can be seen by the naked eye.

Juno is 1,425 miles in diameter, and presents, when inspected through the telescope, a white and well-defined appearance. Its orbit is the most eccentric of all the planetary orbits, being 253,000,000 of miles from the sun at the greatest, and only 126,000,000, or less than one-half, at the least distance. In the half of the course nearest to the sun, the motion of the planet is, by virtue of a natural law afterward to be explained, more than twice as rapid as in the other part.

Ceres has been variously represented as of 1,624 and 160 miles in diameter. The astronomer who calculated its diameter at 1,624 miles, at the same time believed himself to have ascertained that it has a dense atmosphere, extending 575 miles from its surface. It is of a reddish color, and appears about the size of a star of the eighth magnitude. Ceres revolves round the sun, at a distance of 260,000,000 of miles, in 4 years, 7 months, and 10 days.

Pallas has been represented as of 2,099 miles in diameter, with an atmosphere extending 468 miles above its surface. Another astronomer has allowed it a diameter of only 80 miles. It revolves round the sun, at a mean distance of 266,000,000 of miles, in 4 years, 7 months, and 11 days. However unimportant it may appear beside the large planets, it has a peculiar interest in the eyes of astronomers, on account of its orbit having a greater inclination to the plane of the ecliptic than those of all the larger planets put together.

Jupiter is the largest of all the planets. Its diameter is nearly eleven times that of the earth, or 89,170 miles, and its volume or mass is consequently 1,281 times that of our globe. The density of Jupiter is only a fourth of that of the earth, or about the lightness of water; and a human being, if transferred to it, would be able to leap with ease over a pretty large house. It performs a rotation on its axis in 9 hours, 55 minutes, and 33 seconds, or about two-fifths of our day. It revolves round the sun, at a distance of 490,000,000 of miles, in 4,330 days, 14 hours, and 39 minutes, or nearly twelve of our years. Viewed through a telescope, Jupiter appears surrounded by dark lines, or belts, which occasionally shift, melt into each other, or separate, but sometimes are observed with little variation for several months. These belts are generally near the equator of the planet, and of a broad and straight form; but they have been observed over his whole surface, and of a lighter, narrower, and more streaky and wavy appearance. It is supposed that the dark parts are lines of the body of the planet, seen through openings in a bright, cloudy atmosphere.

Jupiter is attended by four satellites, which revolve round it, in the same manner as the moon round our globe, keeping, like it, one face invariably presented to their primary. They are of about the same size, or a little larger diameter than our moon; the first having a diameter of 2,508, the second of 2,068, the third of 3,377, and the fourth of 2,890 miles. The first revolves round the primary planet in 1 day, 18 hours, 28 minutes; the second in 3 days, 13 hours, 14 minutes; the third in 7 days, 3 hours, 43 minutes; and the fourth in 16 days, 16 hours, 32 minutes. These satellites frequently eclipse the sun to Jupiter; they are also eclipsed by the primary planet, but never all at the same time, so that his dark side is never altogether without moonlight.

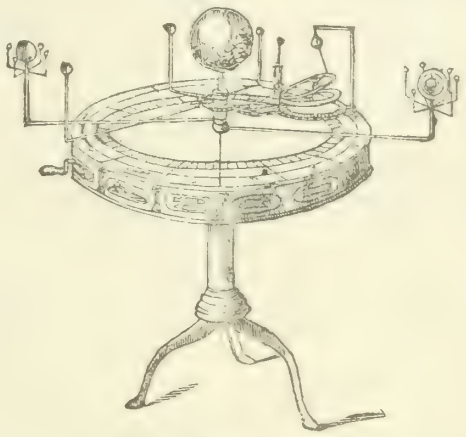
Saturn, seen through a telescope, is the most remarkable of all the planets, being surrounded by a ring, and attended by seven satellites. In bulk this is the second of the planets, being 79,042 miles in diameter, or about 995 times the volume of the earth. Its surface appears slightly marked by belts like those of Jupiter. It performs a rotation on its axis in 10 hours, 16 minutes, and revolves round the sun, at a distance of 900,000,000 of miles, in 10,746 days, 19 hours, 16 minutes, or about 29½ of our years. At such a distance from the sun, that luminary must be diminished to one-eightieth of the size he bears in our eyes, and the heat and light in the same proportion. The matter of Saturn is one-eighth of the density of our earth.

The ring of Saturn surrounds the body of the planet in the plane of its equator. It is thin, like the rim of a spinning-wheel, and is always seen with its edge presented more or less directly toward us. It is luminous with the sun's light, and casts a shadow on the surface of the planet, the shadow of which is also sometimes seen falling on part of the ring. The distance of the inner edge from the planet is calculated at about 19,000 miles; its entire breadth from the inner to the outer edge is 28,538; the thickness is not more than 100. In certain positions of the planet we can see its surface at a considerable angle, and the openings or loops which it forms on the sides of the planet. At other times we see its dark side, or only its edge. From observations made upon it in favorable circumstances, it is found to be apparently divided near the outer edge by a dark line of nearly 1,800 miles in breadth, as if it were divided into two concentric rings. From other appearances, it has been surmised to have other divisions, or to be a collection of several concentric rings. It is also occasionally marked by small spots. The ring of Saturn rotates on its own plane in 10 hours, 32 minutes, 15 seconds, and a part of a second, being about the same time with the rotation of the planet.

The seven satellites of Saturn revolve around it, on the exterior of the ring, and almost all of them in nearly the same plane. They are so small as not to be visible without a powerful telescope. The two inner ones are very near to the outer edge of the ring, and can only be discerned when that object is presented so exactly edgeways as to be almost invisible. They have then been seen passing like two small bright beads along the minute thread of light formed by the edge of the ring. The three next satellites are also very small; the sixth is larger, and placed at a great interval from the rest. The seventh is the largest; it is about the size of the planet Mars, and is situated at nearly thrice the distance of the sixth, or about 2,300,000 miles from the body of Saturn. The revolutions of these satellites range from 1 to 79 days; and it has been ascertained of some of them that, according to the usual law of secondary planets, their rotations on their axes and their revolutions round their primary are performed in the same time, so that, like our moon, they always present the same face to the center of their system. The orbit of the seventh satellite is much inclined to the plane of Saturn's equator.

Uranus, or *Herschel*, the remotest planet known in the solar system, is a globe of 35,112 miles in diameter, rotating on its axis in 7 hours, and performing a revolution round the sun, at a distance of 1,800,000,000 of miles, in 84 of our years. The sun to this remote planet must appear only a 400th part of the size which he bears in our eyes. Two satellites are known, and other four are suspected, to attend upon Uranus. The two which have been observed circulate round their primary in orbits almost perpendicular to the ecliptic, and are further supposed to move in a direction contrary to that of all the other planetary motions—namely, from east to west.

Some idea may be obtained of the comparative size of the principal objects of the solar system, by supposing a globe of two feet diameter, placed in the center of a level plain, to represent the sun; a grain of mustard-seed, placed on the circumference of a circle 164 feet in diameter, for Mercury; a pea, on a circle of 284 feet, for Venus; another pea, on a circle of 430 feet, for the Earth; a large pin's head, on a circle of 654 feet, for Mars; four minute grains of sand, in circles of from 1,000 to 1,200 feet, for Vesta, Ceres, Pallas, and Juno; a moderate sized orange, on a circle of nearly half a mile in diameter, for Jupiter; a small orange, on a circle



ORRERY.

four-fifths of a mile in diameter, for Saturn; and a small plum or full-sized cherry, on a circle of a mile and a half in diameter, for Uranus. It is calculated that the united mass of the whole of the planets is not above a 600th part of the mass of the sun. The sun and planets are represented, with an approximation to correctness, in philosophical toys termed orreries, of which the appearance is conveyed in the preceding engraving.

COMETS.

Comets are light vapory bodies, which move round the sun in orbits much less circular than those of the planets. Their orbits, in other words, are very long ellipses, or ovals, having the sun near one of the ends. Comets usually have two parts, a body or nucleus, and a tail; but some have a body only. The body appears as a thin vapory, luminous mass, of globular form; it is so thin, that, in some cases, the stars have been seen through it. The tail is a lighter or thinner luminous vapor surrounding the body, and streaming far out from it, in one direction. A vacant space has been observed between the body and the enveloping matter of the tail; and it is equally remarkable that the tail has in some instances appeared less bright along the middle, immediately behind the nucleus, as if it were a stream which that nucleus had in some measure parted into two.

Out of the great multitude—certainly not less than 1,000—which are supposed to exist, about 150 have been made the subject of scientific observation. Instead of revolving, like the planets, nearly on the plane of the sun's equator, it is found that they approach his body from all parts of surrounding space. At first, they are seen slowly advancing, with a comparatively faint appearance. As they approach the sun, the motion becomes quicker, and at length they pass round

nim with very great rapidity, and at a comparatively small distance from his body. The comet of 1680 approached within one-sixth of his diameter. After passing, they are seen to emerge from his rays, with an immense increase to their former brilliancy and to the length of their tails. Their motion then becomes gradually slower, and their brilliancy diminishes, and at length they are lost in distance. It has been ascertained that their movement round the sun is in accordance with the same law which regulates the planetary movements, being always the quicker the nearer to his body, and the slower the more distant. In the remote parts of space their motions must be extremely slow.

Three comets have been observed to return, and their periods of revolution have been calculated. The most remarkable of these is one usually denominated Halley's Comet, from the astronomer who first calculated its period. It revolves round the sun in about seventy-five years, its last appearance being at the close of 1835. Another, called Enke's Comet, from Professor Enke, of Berlin, has been found to revolve once in 1,207 days, or 3⅓ years; but, in this case, the revolving body is found at each successive approach to the sun, to be a little earlier than on the previous occasion, showing that its orbit is gradually lessening, so that it may be expected ultimately to fall into the sun. This fact has suggested that some part of that space through which the comet passes, must be occupied by a matter presenting some resistance to the movement of any denser body; and it is supposed that this matter may prove to be the same which has been described as constituting the zodiacal light. It is called a *resisting medium*; and future observations upon it are expected to be attended with results of a most important nature, seeing that, if there be such a matter extending beyond the orbit of the earth, that planet, in whose welfare we are so much interested, will be exposed to the same ultimate fate with Enke's Comet.

The third, named Beila's Comet, from M. Beila, of Josephstadt, revolves round the sun in 6¾ years. It is very small, and has no tail. In 1832, this comet passed through the earth's path about a month before the arrival of our planet at the same point. If the earth had been a month earlier at that point, or the comet a month later in crossing it, the two bodies would have been brought together, and the earth, in all probability, would have instantly become unfit for the existence of the human family.

Comets often pass unobserved, in consequence of the part of the heavens in which they move being then under daylight. During a total eclipse of the sun, which happened sixty years before Christ, a large comet, not formerly seen, became visible, near the body of the obscured luminary. On many occasions, their smallness and distance render them visible only by the aid of the telescope. On other occasions, they are of vast size. The comet now called Halley's, at its appearance in 1456, covered a sixth part of the visible extent of the heavens, and was likened to a Turkish scimitar. That of 1680, which was observed by Sir Isaac Newton, had a tail calculated to be 123,000,000 of miles in length, a space greater than the distance of the earth from the sun. There was a comet in 1744, which had six tails, spread out like a fan across a large space in the heavens. The tails of comets usually stretch in the direction opposite to the sun, both in advancing and retiring, and with a slight wave at the outer extremity, as if that part experienced some resistance.

THE STARS.

The idea at which astronomers have arrived respecting the stars, is, that they are all of them suns, resembling our own, but diminished to the appearance of mere specks of light by the great distance at which they are placed. As a necessary consequence to this supposition, it may be presumed that they are centers of light and heat to systems of revolving planets, each of which may be further presumed to be the theater of forms of beings, bearing some analogy to those which exist upon earth.

The stars, seen by the naked eye on a clear night, are about two thousand in number. This, allowing a like number for the half of the sky not seen, gives about four thousand, in all, of visible stars. These are of different degrees of brilliancy, probably in the main in proportion to their respective distances from our system, but also perhaps in some measure in proportion to their respective actual sizes. Astronomers class the stars under different *magnitudes*, not with regard to apparent size, for none of them present a measurable disk, but with a regard to the various quantities of light flowing round them; thus, there are stars of the first magnitude, the second magnitude, and so on. Only six or seven varieties of magnitude are within our natural vision; but with the telescope vast numbers of more distant stars are brought into view; and the magnitudes are now extended by astronomers to at least sixteen.

The stars are at a distance from our system so very great, that the mind can form no idea of it. The brilliant one called Sirius or the Dog-star, which is supposed to be the nearest, merely because it is the most luminous, has been reckoned by tolerably clear calculation to give only 1-20,000,000th part of the light of the sun; hence, supposing it to be of the same size, and every other way alike, it should be distant from our earth not less than 1,960,000,000,000,000,000 miles. An attempt has been made to calculate the distance of Sirius by a trigonometrical problem. It may be readily supposed that the position of a spectator upon the earth with respect to celestial objects must vary considerably at different parts of the year: for instance, on the 21st of June, he must be in exactly the opposite part of the orbit from what he was on the 21st of December—indeed, no less than 190,000,000 of miles from it, or twice the distance of the earth from the sun. This change of position with relation to celestial objects is called *parallax*. Now, it has been found that Sirius is so distant, that an angle formed between it and the two extremities of the earth's orbit is too small to be appreciated. Were it so much as one second, or the 3,600th part of a degree, it could be appreciated by the nice instruments we now possess; but it is not even this. It is hence concluded that Sirius must be at least 19,200,000,000 of miles distant, however much more! Supposing this to be its distance, its light would take three years to reach us, though traveling, as it does, at the rate of 192,000 miles in a second of time!

THE RULES OF DEBATE, AND HOW TO CONDUCT ONE.

PUBLIC MEETINGS.

A PUBLIC meeting is the assemblage of a portion of the people, for the expression of opinion upon matters of local or general concern. The proceedings are but few and simple; yet, to preserve order during its session, and to give effect to its action, the meeting has to be guided by defined rules from the time of its projection to the moment of its close.

A DEMOCRATIC MEETING!

The citizens of Blank, in favor of the policy of the Democratic party, are requested to meet on Saturday Evening, September 9th, at the house of Jasper Glyde, Bridge Street, at 7 o'clock, to take such measures as are deemed advisable to promote the success of the party in the coming election.

The notice is also published in the county newspaper, should there be one.

Meanwhile, the proposers of the affair, either after a caucus or individually, obtain the consent of some speaker, say a Mr. Joseph Becker, to be present and give his views on public topics. In that case, the advertisement closes with an announcement like this:

"A. B., Esq., has accepted an invitation to address the meeting."

The projectors meanwhile meet in caucus, and agree upon officers. They select for chairman Mr. Charles Kendrick, an old resident and a man of standing, and Mr. John Travers, to act as secretary, and these gentlemen consent to take the positions assigned them.

When the evening comes, and the meeting has assembled, no business is begun until half an hour after the hour named. This interval is called "thirty minutes' grace," and is always allowed, through custom, for the difference in watches.

At 7½ o'clock, Mr William Irwin steps forward and says:

"The meeting will please come to order."

Every one hereupon suspends conversation, and, so soon as all is quiet, Mr. Irwin continues:

"I move that Mr. Charles Kendrick act as President of this meeting."

Mr. Parke Neville says:

"I second the motion."

Then Mr. Irwin puts the question thus:

"It has been moved and seconded that Mr. Charles Kendrick act as president of this meeting. So many as are in favor of the motion will signify their assent by saying 'aye!'"

As soon as those in the affirmative have voted, he will say:

"Those who are opposed, will say 'no!'"

If there are more ayes than noes, as there will be, unless Mr. Kendrick be very unpopular indeed, he will say:

"The ayes have it. The motion is carried. Mr. Kendrick will take the chair."

If, on the contrary, the noes prevail, he will say:

"The noes have it. The motion is lost."

Thereupon he will nominate some other, or put the question upon other nominations.

As soon as a chairman is chosen, he will take his place. Mr. Thomas Turbot then says:

"I move that Mr. John Travers act as secretary of this meeting."

This motion is seconded, and the chairman puts the question and declares the result.

The form of putting the question to the chairman may be simplified thus:

"Mr. Charles Kendrick has been nominated as president of this meeting. Those in favor, will say 'aye!'—Contrary opinion, 'no!'"

The meeting is now organized. The chairman will direct the secretary to read the call. When that has been done, he will say:

"You have heard the call under which we have assembled; what is your further pleasure?"

Hereupon, Mr. John Smith says:

"I move that a committee of three be appointed to draft resolutions expressive of the sense of this meeting."

This is seconded.

The chairman then says:

"Gentlemen, you have heard the motion; are you ready for the question?"

If any one desires to speak against the resolution, he arises and says:

"Mr. Chairman!"

The chairman turns toward the speaker, and listens to him, and so to each in succession. When they are all done, or in case no one responds to the call, he puts the question in the customary form previously given, and declares the result.

The resolution being adopted, the chairman says:

"How shall that committee be appointed?"

If there be no reply, or a reply of "chair," the chairman names the mover of the resolution and two others as a committee. The committee withdraws to prepare the resolutions, or to examine those previously prepared for the purpose.

During the absence of the committee is a proper time for the speaker or speakers to address the meeting. When the speeches are over, the chairman of the committee comes forward and says:

"Mr. Chairman, the committee begs leave to report the following resolutions:"

He then reads the resolutions, and hands them to the secretary.

The chairman now says:

"You have heard the report of the committee; what order do you take on it?"

Some one now moves that the report be accepted, and the resolutions be adopted. To save time, the chairman will put the question solely on the adoption of the resolutions. If no objection is made, and no amendment offered, he will put the question, and declare the result.

As a general thing, a committee may be avoided, as a useless formality, and the resolutions be offered by one of the projectors of the meeting.

So soon as the resolutions are adopted, and the speeches are over, the chairman should ask:

"What is the further pleasure of this meeting?"

If there be no further business, some one moves an adjournment. The chairman does not ask if the meeting be ready for the question, since an adjournment is not debatable, but puts the question direct. If carried, he says:

"This meeting stands adjourned without day."

If the meeting thinks proper to adjourn to meet at another time, the time is fixed by a previous resolution, and then, when it adjourns, the chairman declares it adjourned to the time fixed upon.

It will be seen that the foregoing form, by varying the call, and changing the business to suit, will answer for any other political party, or for any other purpose.

When a public meeting is called by any executive or other committee, the name of the chairman of that committee should be appended to the call, and the committee itself should prepare business for the action of the meeting, as much as possible.

The duty of the secretary of a public meeting is merely nominal, unless it is desired to publish an account of its proceedings. In the latter case, the record of the foregoing meeting, which is a form for any other meeting, varied, under the circumstances of the case, would read thus:

"At a meeting of the Democratic citizens of Blank, held pursuant to public notice, on Saturday evening, September 9th, at 7 o'clock, at the house of Jasper Glyde, Mr. Charles Kendrick was called to the chair, and Mr. John Travers appointed secretary.

"On motion of Mr. John Smith, a committee of three, consisting of Messrs. John Smith, Henry Magraw, and Casper Evans, was appointed to draft resolutions expressive of the sense of the meeting.

"During the absence of the committee, the meeting was effectively addressed by Joseph Becker, Esq.

"The committee, through its chairman, reported the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

[*Here the secretary inserts the resolutions.*]

"On motion, the meeting adjourned."

ORGANIZING ASSOCIATIONS.

When it is advisable to form a society, club, or other association, for any specific purpose, those who agree in regard to its formation may meet upon private notice or public call. The mode of organizing the meeting is similar to that of any other.

As soon as the meeting has been organized, and the chairman announces that it is ready to proceed to business, some one of the originators, previously agreed upon, should rise, and advocate the formation of the club or society required for the purpose set forth in the call, and end by moving the appointment of a committee to draft a constitution and by-laws. This committee should be instructed to report at the next meeting. A convenient time of adjournment is fixed on, and if there be no further business, the meeting adjourns.

When the time for the second meeting arrives, the same officers continue, without any new motion. If either be absent, his place is supplied, on motion, by some other. The Committee on the Constitution and By-laws reports. If the constitution is not acceptable, those present suggest amendments. As soon as it has taken the required shape, it is adopted, and signed by those present. The by-laws are treated in the same way.

The society is now formed, but not fully organized. The officers provided for by the constitution have now to be elected. This may be done at that meeting, or the society may be adjourned over for that purpose. So soon as it has been done, the chairman of the meeting gives way to the newly-elected president, or, in his absence, to a vice-president; the secretary of the meeting vacates his seat, which is taken by the newly elected secretary or secretaries, and thus the organization of the new body is complete.

PUBLIC CELEBRATIONS.

Public celebrations may be made by some public society, or by the citizens at large. If by the latter, a meeting is generally called, subject to the customary rules, and a committee of arrangements appointed, who take charge of the business. A society appoints a like committee.

The committee of arrangements meet, and appoint a chairman and secretary. As soon as this is done, the mode of celebration is determined upon. In the case of the Fourth of July, some fit person is generally invited to deliver an oration, and another to read the Declaration of Independence. A sub-committee is appointed to secure a proper room, unless the celebration takes place in the open air, when the committee has in charge the erection of a stand.

The proper sub-committees are:

1. On correspondence. The duty of this committee is to invite such distinguished guests as are desirable.

2. On orator. This committee invites the orator selected.

3. On place. This committee attends to hiring a room and fitting it up, or, if it be an out-of-door celebration, see to the erection of a stand for the officers and speaker, and seats for the auditors.

4. On printing. This committee attends to the necessary advertising and printing.

All these report their action to the main committee as it adjourns from time to time.

The day having arrived, at the hour named, the officers and speakers being ready, and the audience assembled, the chairman of the committee of arrangements calls the meeting to order, nominates the president of the day, and puts the question on his acceptance. The latter now takes his seat, and the other officers are appointed. So soon as this is done, a clergyman, if there be one named for the purpose, delivers a short prayer. The chairman of the day next announces by name the reader of the Declaration, and says:

"Mr. [naming him], will read the Declaration of Independence."

The Declaration being read, the chairman says:

"Mr. [naming him], the orator of the day."

The orator now comes forward, and delivers his oration, at the close of which the exercises are determined, and after a benediction, if a clergyman be present, the meeting adjourns without any formal motion.

If a band of music can be had, it is always engaged on such an occasion, and plays national and patriotic airs previous to the taking the chair, at the close of the proceedings, and at the various intervals.

The public celebration of their own anniversaries by public societies, if done by orations, follows the same form.

CONVENTIONS.

A convention is a number of delegates assembled for the purpose of carrying out the views of constituents, and is gifted with powers over that of an ordinary meeting. It is the legislature of a party; and, consequently, is governed by the same rules of action, or very nearly, as any other legislative body.

A convention may be called, either by some committee gifted with the power, or by invitation of the leading friends of a particular cause or measure. The call should contain some general directions as to the mode of electing delegates.

The night before the meeting, it is usual for the friends of particular men or measures, among its delegates, to hold a caucus, in order to devise the plan of action necessary to secure the success of the man or measures they prefer. Here they discuss acts and views with a freedom which cannot be permitted in open convention, and agree upon their common ground on the following day. Part of their proceedings will leak out in spite of all precaution; but care should be taken to admit none but those who are friendly, in order that as much secrecy as possible may be attained.

There are two sets of officers in a convention—temporary and permanent. The first is merely for the purpose of conducting the business preparatory to organization. The possession of the permanent president is often a matter of great importance when there are two parties in a convention. If the temporary president appoints the committee which is to nominate permanent officers, it may be important to gain him. In that case there is a struggle who shall nominate first, and sometimes there are several nominations for temporary chairman. To avoid this indecent competition, it is usual to give the delegation from each county, district, or township, the right to name one member of the committee on permanent organization. Until the permanent officers have been chosen, and have taken their seats, none but preliminary business is to be transacted.

The whole machinery of a convention resembles that of one of the houses of legislature. But a convention for a political or social purpose never formally goes into committee of the whole. When there is an interval, and the main body is waiting for the report of a committee, or after the business is done, and previous to adjournment, it is customary to call on various prominent men to address the convention, which thus goes into quasi-committee, without the formality of a motion.

Frequently, the permanent chairman of a convention is chosen on account of his wealth or position; but the custom is a bad one. A convention is essentially a business convocation; the time of its members is more or less valuable; and no chairman should be installed unless he is familiar with the duties of his position, and capable of conducting affairs with promptness, dignity, and force.

It is a custom to give the thanks of the convention to its officers, just previous to adjournment. In that case, the member who makes the motion puts, himself, the question upon its adoption, and declares the result.

FORMS OF CONSTITUTIONS.

A constitution is the formal written agreement making the fundamental law which binds the parties who associate. In preparation of this, useless words should be avoided.

The constitution, after having been adopted, should be engrossed in a blank book, and signed by the members. Amendments or alterations should be entered in the same book, with the date of their adoption, in the shape of a copy from the minutes; and a side-note inserted in the margin of the constitution, opposite the article amended, showing on what page the amendment may be found.

LYCEUMS OR INSTITUTES.

PREAMBLE.—Whereas, experience has shown that knowledge can be more readily acquired by combination of effort than singly, we, whose names are hereunto annexed, have agreed to form an association to be known as [*here insert title*],

and for its better government, do hereby establish the following constitution :

ARTICLE I.—The name, style, and title of this association shall be [*here insert name*], and its objects shall be the increase and the diffusion of knowledge among its members.

ARTICLE II.—1. The officers of this association shall consist of a president, two vice-presidents, a corresponding secretary, a recording secretary, a treasurer, a librarian, and a curator, who shall be elected annually on [*here insert time of election and mode, whether by open voice or by ballot*].

2. The said officers shall hold their offices until their successors shall have been elected ; and their powers and duties shall be similar to those of like officers in like associations.

ARTICLE III.—There shall be appointed by the president, immediately after his election, by and with the consent of the association, the following standing committees, to consist of five members each, namely : on finance, library, museum, lectures, and printing, who shall perform such duties and take charge of such business as may be assigned to them by vote of the association.

ARTICLE IV.—1. Any person residing within [*here state limits*], who is above the age of twenty-one years, may become a resident member of this association, by consent of a majority of the members present at any stated meeting succeeding the one at which his name shall have been proposed ; any person residing without the limits aforesaid may be chosen, in like manner, a corresponding member ; and any person who is eminent in science or literature, may be elected an honorary member.

2. Each and every resident member, upon his election, shall sign this constitution, and pay over to the recording secretary the sum of [*here insert the sum*], and shall pay the like sum annually in advance ; but no dues or contributions shall be demanded of corresponding or honorary members.

ARTICLE V.—1. This association shall be divided into the following sections, namely : 1. Natural Science ; 2. Arts ; 3. History ; 4. Agriculture and Horticulture ; 5. Mental and Moral Philosophy ; 6. General Literature ; to each of which sections shall be referred all papers or business appropriate to its department ; and to one or more of these sections each member, immediately after his election, shall attach himself.

2. Each section shall report, from time to time, upon the business intrusted to it, as this association shall direct.

ARTICLE VI.—This association shall meet monthly [*here insert time*], and at such other times as it may be called upon by the president, upon the written request of six members ; of each of which meetings due notice shall be given, and at each and all of these meetings six members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE VII.—The rules of order embraced in "The Rules of Debate and Chairman's Assistant," shall govern the deliberations of this association so far as the same may apply ; and the order of business therein laid down shall be followed, unless suspended or transposed by a two-thirds vote.

ARTICLE VIII.—Any member who shall be guilty of any public, felonious offence against the law, or who shall persevere in a course of conduct degrading of itself or calculated to bring this association into odium, may be expelled by a two-thirds vote of the members present at any stated meeting, and any member who shall neglect or refuse to pay his dues for more than one year, shall thereby cease to be a member of this association ; but no member shall be expelled until due notice shall have been given him of the charges brought against him, and until he shall have had the opportunity of being confronted with his accusers, and of being heard in his own defence.

ARTICLE IX.—This constitution may be altered, amended, or abrogated, at any stated meeting, by a vote of two-thirds of the members present ; *provided*, that written notice of said alteration, amendment, or abrogation, shall have been given at a previous stated meeting.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

THE PRESIDING OFFICER.

The chairman should have made himself fully acquainted with the rules of order and the usages of deliberative bodies. He should be prompt, dignified, and impartial. He should be quick of eye to note any member who rises, and quick of speech to declare him in possession of the floor. He should suffer no member to violate order, without instant rebuke. His voice should be steady, distinct and clear, so that all may hear readily. When he puts the question, states a point of order, or otherwise addresses the body, he should rise ; and when he has finished, resume his seat. His constant attention is necessary, and his eye should never wander from the speaker before him ; nor should he, in any way, show a neglect of the business. No matter what disturbance may arise, his coolness and temper must be preserved. If his decision be appealed from, he should show no resentment—an appeal being a matter of privilege—but should put the appeal in the same indifferent manner as though it were an ordinary question. He should always remember that he has been placed there to guide and control the machinery of the moment, and not to give his own views, or display his own abilities in an organized association. He will sign all orders for the payment of money, ordered by the body.

THE RECORDING OFFICER.

The secretary or clerk, at the commencement of proceedings, will seat himself at his table ; and, at the order of the chairman, will read the minutes of the previous meeting. He must note down the proceedings, and write them down in full, previous to another meeting. He must file all resolutions and other papers before the body, and allow none to go from his custody without due authority. He must read all resolutions and papers, when requested to do so by the chair. He must turn over his records and papers in good order to his successor on leaving his office. He must countersign all orders on the treasurer, which have been signed by the president, as this counter-signature is the evidence that the society has approved the order.

THE TREASURER.

The treasurer must enter, in a book to be provided for the purpose, all money received, and all payments made, on account of the body. He must pay out no money, except on an order, signed by the president, and countersigned by the

secretary. He must retain these orders, as his vouchers. He must turn over his books, in good order, to his successor on leaving his office. He must give bonds in such needful sum as it deems best, if the body require.

THE LIBRARIAN.

The librarian will take upon him the charge of the books and manuscripts not pertaining to the duties of other officers. Of these he must keep a catalogue. He must keep a record of all books borrowed, by whom and when returned; and must only loan them under such regulations as the body see fit to adopt. He must turn over his catalogue and records to his successor on leaving his office.

THE CURATORS.

The curators will take charge of all specimens of nature or art, or otherwise, and all property of the body, not in charge of other officers. This they will have catalogued, and will keep it under such restrictions as may be imposed on them by the main body. They must turn over their catalogue papers and property to their successors on leaving their office.

THE COMMITTEE ON CORRESPONDENCE.

The committee will take charge of all correspondence ordered by the body, and if there be no corresponding secretary, will conduct it with all parties, at direction of the body, through its chairman. It will report, from time to time, as directed, and will keep copies of letters sent, and a file of those received, which it will turn over to its successors, on its discharge. If there be a corresponding secretary, he will perform the duties assigned above to the committee of correspondence.

THE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE.

The committee on finance will devise the ways and means to obtain the necessary funds for the body, and report thereon from time to time; and will attend to such other duties as may be assigned to them.

OTHER COMMITTEES.

Other committees will attend to such business as may be assigned to them by the main body, reporting thereon as may be required.

BY-LAWS.

The old custom of appending a distinct set of By-Laws has fallen into disuse. The main points will be found embodied in the Constitution in the forms given. Any others, or any modifications of the rules necessary, may be provided for in the Constitution, or enacted by a majority vote. But, if it be thought necessary, that portion of the Constitution that contains provisions that were formerly so placed, can be made distinct.

OFFICIAL FORMS.

THE PRESIDENT.

On taking his seat, says:

"The meeting [*or society, or club, or association, as the case may be*] will come to order."

If there have been a meeting previous:

"The secretary will please to read the minutes."

After the minutes have been read:

"You have heard the minutes of the previous meeting read. What order do you take on them?"

When a motion has been made and seconded:

"It has been moved and seconded that [*here state the motion*]. Are you ready for the question?"

If a member arises to speak, recognize him by naming him by his place, or in any way which will identify him without using his name, if possible.

In putting the question:

"It has been moved and seconded that [*here state the motion*]. So many as are in favor of the motion will signify their assent by saying 'Aye!'"

When the ayes have voted, say:

"Those to the contrary opinion, 'No!'"

Or, have the resolution read, and say:

"It has been moved and seconded that the resolution just read be passed. So many as are in favor," etc.

On a call for the previous question:

"Shall the main question be now put? Those in the affirmative will," etc.

On an appeal, state the decision, and, if you think proper, the reasons therefor, and that it has been appealed from, and then:

"Shall the decision of the chair stand? Those in the affirmative," etc.

Should it be sustained, say

"The ayes have it. The decision of the chair stands as the judgment of this meeting" [*or society, etc., as the case may be*].

Should it not be sustained, say:

"The noes have it. The decision of the chair is reversed."

In announcing the result of a question, if it be carried, say:

"The ayes appear to have it—the ayes have it—the motion [*or amendment, as the case may be*] is carried."

If it be lost:

"The noes appear to have it—the noes have it—the motion is lost."

If a division be called for:

"A division is called for. Those in favor of the motion will rise."

Count them. When counted, announce the number, and say:

"Those opposed will rise."

Count them, report the number, and declare the result.

If the yeas and nays be called for, and no objection be made, he states the question, if needed, and says:

"As the roll is called, members will vote in the affirmative or negative. The secretary will call the roll."

After the ayes and nays have been determined, the chairman states the number and declares the result.

If no quorum be present at the hour of meeting, after waiting a reasonable time, he says:

"The hour for which this meeting was called having arrived and past, and no quorum being present, what order is to be taken?"

Or, he may simply announce the fact, and wait for a member to move an adjournment.

If during a meeting some member calls for a count, he counts, and announces if a quorum be present or not. If not, he says:

"This meeting is in want of a quorum. What order is to be taken?"

Or he may state the fact only, and wait for a motion to adjourn. But while there is no quorum present, business must be suspended.

After the minutes have been adopted, he says:

"The next business in order is the reports of standing committees."

If none, or after they have reported, he says:

"The reports of special committees are next in order."

And so he announces each business in its proper succession.

When the hour for the orders of the day arrives, on call of a member, he says:

"Shall the orders of the day be taken up? So many as are in favor," etc.

In case of disorder in committee of the whole, which its chairman cannot repress, the presiding officer may say:

"The committee of the whole is dissolved. The society [*or club, or association, as the case may be*] will come to order. Members will take their seats."

He will then take the chair, instead of the chairman of the committee of the whole.

In taking the question on amendment, he says:

"The question will be on the amendment offered by the member from [*naming his place, or otherwise indicating him*]," and then puts the question.

If on an amendment to an amendment, then:

"The question will be on the amendment to the amendment," and the rest as before.

If either the amendment or the amendment to the amendment be carried, he will say:

"The question now recurs on the resolution as amended. Are you ready for the question?"

And if no member rises to speak, he will put the question.

On the motion to amend by striking out words from a resolution, he says:

"It is moved to amend by striking out the words [*naming them*]. Shall those words stand?" And then he puts the question.

Objection being made to the reading of a paper, he will say:

"Shall the paper [*naming it*] be read?" and then put the question.

And on an objection being made to the reception of a report, he will say:

"Shall the report of the committee be received?" and after the demand he puts the question.

When in doubt as to which member was up first, he says:

"The chair is in doubt as to which member is entitled to the floor. The society [*or club, or association, as the case may be*] will decide. Was the gentleman from —— [*indicating any one*] first up?" And puts the question. If the body decide against that member, he puts the question on the next, and so through, until the society decides that some one of them has the floor. If but two contend, however, and the society decide against the first named, the decision virtually entitles the other to the floor without further vote.

If a member is out of order, he will say:

"The member [*indicating him*] is out of order." He will make him take his seat, and then state wherein the member is out of order.

If the point of order is raised by a member, he will say:

"The member [*indicating him*] will state his point of order." When this has been done, he decides the point.

On a question of the time of adjournment, he says:

"It has been moved and seconded that when this meeting [*or club, etc., as the case may be*] adjourns, it adjourn to [*naming time and place*]. Are you ready for the question?" And if no one rises to speak, puts the question.

On a question of adjournment, he says:

"It has been moved and seconded that this meeting [*or club, etc.*] do now adjourn;" and puts the question.

When adjournment is carried, he says:

"This society [*or club, etc.*] stands adjourned to" [*naming time and place*]; or if without any time, he says:

"This society [*or club, etc.*] stands adjourned without day."

THE RECORDING SECRETARY.

The secretary commences his minutes thus:

"At a stated [*or special, or adjourned stated, or adjourned special, as the case may be*] meeting of [*here insert the name of the body*], held on [*here insert the time and place of meeting*], Mr. [*insert chairman's name*] in the chair, and [*here insert secretary's name*] acting as secretary—

"The minutes of the preceding meeting were read and approved."

If the reading of the minutes was dispensed with, say so, instead of the preceding line.

Then give a statement of what was done, without comments, as succinctly as possible, down to the adjournment.

In countersigning an order for money, or in giving a certified copy of the minutes, or an extract from them, always sign the name on the left-hand corner of each sheet except the last. On the last, the signature on the same corner should be preceded—if an order for money—by the word *teste* or *attest;* and if it be a copy of minutes, by the words "A true copy of the minutes."

In case of an adjournment for want of a quorum, say:

"At a stated [*or special, etc.*] meeting called at [*name place and time*], no quorum being present, the meeting adjourned."

In recording the yeas and nays, prepare a list of the members, or have it on hand, and after the name of each have two columns ruled.

Where a member votes, "aye," write it in the first column, or head one column "aye," and the other "no," and make a mark in the proper column, opposite the name. Where he votes "no," write it on the second. Add up, and enter the number at the foot of each column. Indorse the resolution or motion voted upon the back of the list.

Where a report is made, it is not necessary in the minutes to do more than give an abstract of its contents, or a sentence or two indicating its nature. The report should, however, be indorsed with its title, and the date of its report, and filed.

A list of the orders of the day should always be made out previous to every meeting, for the convenience of the presiding officer.

CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In addressing a letter for the body, write the words "Corresponding Secretary," as concluding part of the signature, and retain a copy of the letter sent, with a record of the time it was dispatched, stating whether by mail or private hand.

THE TREASURER.

The form of account of the treasurer is very simple. But where the accounts are complicated, a regular set of books should be opened, and kept by double entry.

THE COMMITTEES.

The chairman of the committee of the whole, when the committee has risen, will say to the president of the main body, if it have concluded its business:

"Mr. President: The committee of the whole has, acccording to order, gone through the business assigned to it, and asks leave to report."

Leave being granted, he reports what has been done.

Or, not having concluded—

"The committee of the whole has, according to order, considered the business assigned to it, and made progress therein, but not having time to conclude the same, asks leave to sit again."

Or, if rising from the want of a quorum—

"The committee of the whole, has, according to order, considered [*proceeded to consider*] the business assigned to it, but has risen for want of a quorum."

In putting the question for rising—

"It has been moved and seconded that this committee do now rise and report [*or report progress*]. So many as are in favor," etc.

All written reports are headed after a similar form. If from a standing committee, thus:

"The committee on [*insert name of committee*] respectfully report ——." And then let the report follow.

If a special committee—

The committee to which was referred [*here state the special matter of reference*], have considered the same, and respectfully report," etc.

And all reports conclude with:

"All of which is respectfully submitted."

A minority report is headed

"The undersigned, the minority of a committee to which was referred," etc.

And concludes as in a majority report.

RULES OF ORDER.

QUORUM.

1. A quorum is a sufficient number to legally transact business. A majority of the members of any association constitutes a natural quorum; but a smaller number is usually made a quorum by a provision to that effect in the constitution or by-laws, through motives of convenience.

2. If there be a quorum present at the hour named for the meeting, or within thirty minutes thereafter, the presiding officer takes the chair, and calls the association to order; if not, he waits a reasonable time, and from the chair announces that no quorum is present. Thereupon no further business is in order, except to adjourn for want of a quorum. But it will be in order to call the roll of members, and to make endeavor to obtain the presence of enough to form a quorum.

3. During the transaction of business, should it be observed that no quorum is present, the chair may announce the fact, or any member may call for a count. If, on counting, it be found that there is no quorum, business is suspended until a quorum be found. If not to be had, the meeting must be adjourned.

4. If, on calling the ayes and noes, or on division, a quorum be not found, the vote is null, and at the next meeting the unfinished business is in the exact state it was when the absence of a quorum was discovered.

CALL.

1. On a call of the body, each member rises as he is called, and answers to his name, and the absentees are noted. In a small body it is not necessary to rise.

MINUTES.

1. The presiding officer having taken the chair, and a quorum being present, the minutes are read. If there be any mistakes in the record, these are amended, and then the minutes are adopted. If, under any circumstances requiring haste, or in the absence of the journal, the reading of the minutes be suspended, they may be either read and adopted at another stage of the proceedings, or at the next succeeding meeting. Nevertheless, the minutes being a record of facts, any error subsequently discovered may be amended at any time. This may be done by unanimous consent; or, if objections be made, then any member who voted in the affirmative on their adoption, can move a reconsideration of the motion to adopt. This last motion prevailing, the minutes are open to amendment; and after being amended, the motion on their adoption as amended is put.

2. The rule of record in ordinary associations is somewhat different from that in legislative bodies. The minutes of the former stand in lieu of the journals of the latter. The former never contain a question which is interrupted by a vote to adjourn, or to proceed to the order of the day; the latter always do. Even propositions withdrawn, or ruled out of order, may be entered, as so treated. The minutes are to be full and explicit, and a true record of all that was done, but not of all that was said, unless the latter be necessary to the clear understanding of the business.

3. Proceedings in committee of the whole are, of course, not entered on the minutes—the entry merely that the committee rose and reported thus, and so, and what was done thereon by the association.

PRESIDING OFFICER.

In the absence of the president, or in case he declines, the vice-president takes the chair. If there be more than one vice-president, then they take it in their numerical order, unless the association, by vote, designate a particular one. If neither

president nor vice-president be present, some member is called to act temporarily as chairman, on motion put by the mover thereof.

RECORDING OFFICER.

In the absence of the secretary, or, if more than one, in the absence of all, a temporary secretary must be appointed on motion.

ARRANGEMENT OF BUSINESS.

This, in associations, is usually provided for in the by-laws. If not otherwise provided for, it is as follows: 1. Reading the minutes; 2. Reports of standing committees; 3. Reports of special committees; 4. Special orders; 5. Unfinished business; 6. New business. The election of new members, unless otherwise ordered, is always in order; and the election of officers ranks as a special order; but an election of members is not in order while other business is pending, or while a member has the floor.

ORDERS.

There is only one case where a member has a right to insist on anything, and that is where he calls for the execution of an existing order. No debate nor delay can be had on it; but where it is for an order of the day, fixing some particular business to be taken up, then the president, on call of a member, puts the question whether the association will proceed to the order of the day. If it is decided in the negative, that is, in effect, a reversal of the former order, and the association decides to proceed to other business.

COMMITTEES.

1. Standing committees are appointed under the constitution or by-laws of the association, or by resolution, and sit permanently, while special committees are usually appointed by resolution to attend to some particular business, which being done, they are usually discharged.

2. The first-named person acts as chairman of any committee. It is true that the committee possesses the inherent power to choose its own chairman; but custom prevents this power from being used. Should a committee select some other than the first named as chairman, it would be considered a wanton insult.

3. It is always proper to place the mover of a successful motion on any committee arising through his resolution, and to name him first; but if the committee is upon an inquiry into his conduct, or where its deliberation concerns himself personally, or his manifest interest, the rule is not followed.

4. As near as they will apply, the rules of order of the main body govern the deliberations of committees.

5. A committee to whom a resolution or affirmative proposition is committed should always have a majority of members, if they can be had, favorable to such resolution or proposition.

6. Unless otherwise ordered, the chair appoints all committees.

7. When there is a standing committee on any subject, anything referring to such subject should be referred to that committee alone; but it may be given to a special committee, if the association think proper.

8. Standing committees require no order to report. They are always in session, and should report at every meeting, if only to report progress.

9. A committee cannot sit while the main body is in session, unless so ordered to do.

10. A majority of a committee must concur in a report; but the minority are never refused leave to bring in a counter report.

11. Sometimes a majority cannot be found, when the committee should report the fact of their disagreement, and ask leave to be discharged; they are then to be discharged, and either a new committee raised, or the subject brought before a committee of the whole, or before the main body.

12. Persons appointed upon a committee should join that committee so soon as they are notified of their appointment, unless they are excused; as it is the duty of the first named member of the committee to call his fellows together as soon as possible.

COMMITTEE OF THE WHOLE.

1. If it be necessary to go into committee of the whole society, either for a general or specific purpose, it is done by motion, when the chairman vacates the chair, and calls some member to it to act as chairman; though the committee of the whole, if it chooses, can select another chairman like any other committee. This it never does.

The quorum of the committee is the same as that of the main body. If a quorum be found wanting, the committee has to rise, the regular chairman takes his seat, and the chairman of the committee informs him that the committee rises for want of a quorum. Then the usual course is taken in regard to the absence of a quorum.

2. If any communication be made to the main body while in committee of the whole, the committee cannot receive it. If its reception be necessary, the committee have to rise.

3. If there be confusion or disturbance in committee of the whole, the president may take the chair, declare the committee dissolved, and reduce the body to order. In that case it requires another motion for that committee to sit again.

4. A committee of the whole cannot adjourn, but it must rise. It cannot take the previous question, nor take the ayes and noes.

5. If the business before the committee of the whole be unfinished, it rises on motion, the regular presiding officer takes the chair, and the chairman of the committee reports that the committee of the whole have, according to order, considered the business assigned to them, and have made progress therein, but, not having time to conclude the same, ask leave to sit again. Leave is then granted on motion. If the subject be a special one, and it is concluded, the motion is that the committee rise and report proceedings; then, when the president takes the chair, the chairman of the committee reports that the committee have gone through the business referred to them, and ask leave to report. Leave is then given to report then, or at some other time, either by motion, or, should there be no objection, on the call of some member.

6. In committee, members may speak oftener than once on the same subject, and are not confined strictly to the subject-matter. With these and the foregoing exceptions, the same

rules of order govern the committee of the whole as govern the main body.

7. A motion to rise and report progress is in order at any stage of the business, and is to be decided without debate. When they have reported, they may be discharged on motion, which brings the matter laid before them directly before the association itself.

COMMITMENT.

1. If it be desired to refer a resolution, address or other matter to a committee, it is done on motion. If to a special committee, the chair names the committee. Any member present may suggest one member on that committee, and if the main body do not object the chair will name him, since the silence of members in that case is equivalent to a direct appointment of that person by the association. But such a course is unusual, and generally improper.

2. Though the majority on a committee should be favorable to a measure, the minority may be of those who are opposed to it in some particulars. But those totally opposed to it should never be appointed; and if any one of that view be named, he should rise and state the fact, when the main body will excuse him from serving.

3. If it be a written matter which is referred, the secretary delivers it to the first named of the committee.

4. A committee meets when and where it pleases, unless the time and place is fixed for it. But it cannot act unless its members assemble together.

5. The committee cannot change the title or subject of the matter before it, but otherwise have full power over it.

6. If it be a written matter before it, if it originate with the committee, the writing must be considered paragraph by paragraph, and the question put on each. After each paragraph is approved or amended, it is then considered as a whole. If it has been referred, the committee only report the amendments they recommend separately; as they have no right to amend a paper belonging to the main body.

7. When the committee is through, some member moves that it rise, and report the matter to the main body, with or without amendments, as the case may be.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

The chairman of the committee, standing in his place, informs the association that the committee to which was intrusted such a matter, naming it, have directed him to report thereon, and moves that the report be received. The cry of "Receive!" or "Report!" or "Read it!" from any one, generally dispenses with the formality of a question. He then reads the report, whatever it may be, and delivers the written report to the secretary. Then it lies on the table until called up by a motion. The committee is dissolved, and can act no more unless reconstituted for the purpose by a vote.

MOTIONS.

1. A motion is a proposition by two members; consequently, if not seconded, it is not to be entertained. This is different, however, in the case of an appeal, where the question may be put on the demand of one member.

2. A motion must be put in writing, if any member desires it, and read, when required for information. But if the demand for the reading be repeated, so as to show itself a mere pretext for delay, the association may order it to be read no more.

3. A motion for adjournment cannot be made while one member is speaking; because it is a breach of order for one to speak when another has the floor, except to a point of order; consequently, even a privileged motion cannot be entertained. And even on a call to order, decided against him, he must still be allowed to go on, provided he does not persist in the same violation of order in his remarks.

AMENDMENTS.

1. An amendment takes the place of the question it is proposed to amend, and must be decided first. So an amendment to an amendment must be decided before the first amendment.

2. But amendments cannot be piled one on the other; that is, while you can amend an amendment, you cannot amend the second amendment.

3. For example: it is moved to give the thanks of the association for his kind gift of fifty volumes to the society. It is moved to amend by striking out the word "kind" and inserting "generous." This is an amendment. It is then moved to strike out the word "generous" and insert that of "liberal." This is an amendment to the amendment. It is then proposed to strike out the word "liberal," and insert that of "munificent." This third amendment is out of order.

4. Nor can amendments be made to certain privileged questions. Thus, an amendment to a motion to adjourn, for the previous question, a call of the house, or to lay on the table.

5. But an amendment, though inconsistent with one previously adopted, is still in order. It is for the association alone to decide whether, by the passage of the second amendment, it will recede from its former action.

6. On an amendment being moved, a member who has spoken to the main question, may speak to the amendment.

7. If it be proposed to amend by leaving out certain words, it may be moved to amend the amendment by leaving out a part of the words of the amendment, which is equivalent to letting those words remain.

8. For example: the original words being "Resolved that we have heard with feelings of lively satisfaction that the authorities of our town propose to tax dogs, and approve their action," it is moved to amend by striking out the words "with feelings of lively satisfaction." If it be moved to amend the amendment, by striking out the words "with feelings of satisfaction," the question would be: Shall those words stand as part of the resolution? If carried, the word "lively" is struck out, and the rest remains. The question then recurs on the resolution as amended.

9. When it is proposed to amend by inserting a paragraph, or part of one, the friends of this should make it perfect by amendments; because if it be inserted it cannot be amended, since it has been agreed to in that form. So if proposed to amend by striking out a paragraph, the friends of the paragraph should also make it as perfect, by amendments, as possible; for if the striking out be negatived, that is equivalent

to agreeing to it in that form, and amendments are not admissible.

10. When it is moved to amend by striking out certain words and inserting others, the manner of stating the question is, first to read the whole passage to be amended, as it stands at present; then the words proposed to be struck out; next those to be inserted; and, lastly, the whole passage as it will be when amended. And the question, if desired, is then to be divided, and put first on striking out. If carried, it is next on inserting the words proposed. If that be lost, it may be moved to insert others.

11. A motion is made to amend by striking out certain words and inserting others in their place, which is negatived. Then it is moved to strike out the same words, and to insert others of a tenor entirely different from those first proposed, which is negatived. Then it is moved to strike out the same words and insert nothing, which is agreed to. All this is in order; because to strike out A and insert B, is one proposition. To strike out A and insert C is another proposition. To strike out A and insert nothing, is another proposition. The rejection of either proposition does not preclude the offering of a new one. But a motion to strike out alone being voted down, is equivalent to voting that the words should stand, and amendments are not in order. Jefferson thinks that even if the question be divided, and taken first on the striking out, and that fails, amendments are in order, because the proposition is only half put. There is force in this, and it seems to be the practice.

12. After the paragraph is amended, it nevertheless may be further amended by striking it entirely out.

PRIVILEGED QUESTIONS.

1. "When a question is under debate, no motion shall be received but to adjourn, to lay on the table, to postpone indefinitely, to postpone to a day certain, to commit, or to amend; which several motions shall have precedence in the order they stand arranged; and the motion to adjourn shall be always in order, and shall be decided without debate."

2. These privileged questions shall not only be entertained while the main question is pending, but will be put before it.

3. A motion to adjourn takes precedence of all others, because otherwise the body might be kept sitting against its will, and indefinitely. Yet even this question cannot be entertained after another question is actually put, and while members are voting upon it.

4. An order of the day—that is, a question which has previously been set down to be argued or determined on that day—takes place of all questions except adjournment. If, for instance, a matter be set down for 7 o'clock, then at that hour, although another question may be before the body, a motion to proceed to take up the order of the day must be received by the chair.

5. These privileged questions sometimes conflict with each other, but are reconciled under known rules.

6. If the previous question be first moved, it is first put. This cuts off all the others. The society, having decided to take the question, must vote on it as it stands—postponement, commitment, and amendment being out of order.

7. If postponement be carried, of course the question cannot be either committed, amended, nor the previous question be carried, for the subject is not before the body.

8. If committed, the same rules and reasons follow.

9. If amendment is first moved, the question on that must be determined before the previous question.

10. If amendment and postponement are proposed, the latter is put first. The reason is, that the amendment is not suppressed, but comes up again in its order whenever the main question is again considered.

11. If a motion for amendment be followed by one for commitment, the latter shall be put first.

12. The previous question cannot be put on the motion to postpone, commit, or amend the main question.

13. The motion for the previous question, or for commitment or amendment, cannot be postponed.

14. A motion made for reading papers relative to the question discussed must be put before the main question.

15. A motion made and seconded cannot be withdrawn without leave, though, if no member object, it is not necessary to put the question.

16. When different sums or dates are used in filling blanks, the question shall first be put on the largest sum and the longest time.

17. In commitment, the motions to commit are privileged in the following order: 1. Committee of the Whole; 2. Standing Committee; 3. Special Committee.

18. A motion to lay on the table must be put before either postponement, commitment, or amendment, although neither of these last can be laid on the table.

19. A postponement can be amended as to time, and an amendment can be amended; but if it be proposed to amend by inserting anything, a motion to amend or perfect the matter proposed to be inserted must be put to a vote before the question to insert. The same rule follows in regard to striking out.

20. A question of privilege, such as a quarrel between members, or affecting the character of members, or the main body, must be disposed of before the original question be disposed of.

21. Questions on leave to withdraw motions, or appeals from the decision of the chair, have a precedence over the main question.

PREVIOUS QUESTION.

1. When any question is before the association, any member may move that the main question be put; and this is termed moving the previous question. If the motion pass in the affirmative, the main question is put immediately, and no further debate is allowed upon the matter at issue.

2. This is frequently styled "the gag law," becuase its adoption cuts off all debate. When a subject in the judgment of the majority has been exhausted, or when personalities have been introduced, and disorders are threatened, it is a very proper and wise thing; but it should not generally be brought to bear so long as members who desire to speak are unheard.

DIVISION OF THE QUESTION.

1. A question which contains more parts than one may be divided, on the demand of a member, provided the main body

concur. If the question contain parts which are evidently incompatible, the presiding officer may divide them of his own will, unless the body deny him the power.

2. When a question is divided, after the question has been taken on the first member of it, the second member is still open to amendment and debate, unless the previous question be taken upon it.

COEXISTING QUESTIONS.

1. Occasionally there are two questions up at the same time—one primarily, and the other secondarily. Are both subject to debate?

2. When it has been moved to commit a question, the main question is debatable under that motion; but no amendment can be entertained, because the question of commitment will be first put.

EQUIVALENT QUESTIONS.

Where questions are equivalent, so that the rejection of one is the affirming the other, that necessarily determines the latter. Thus, a vote against striking out is virtually the same as a vote to agree; a vote to reject is equivalent to a vote to adopt; but, on a motion to strike out A and insert B being decided in the negative, this does not preclude the motion to strike out A and insert C, these being separate questions.

THE QUESTION.

1. The question is first to be put on the affirmative, and then on the negative side.

2. After the question has been put, debate upon it is out of order; but after the presiding officer has put the affirmative, any member who has not spoken before on the question may speak before the negative be put, for it is not a full question until the negative be put,

3. But on trifling matters, such as leave to bring in reports of committees, withdrawing motions, reading papers, and such like, the consent of the main body will be supposed without the formality of a question, unless some one should object, for the absence of an objection in such cases testifies to unanimous consent.

DIVISION.

1. The affirmative and negative voices having been heard upon a question, the presiding officer declares by the sound what is the result. If he have doubts as to the relative strength of the yeas and nays, or if any member demands it, before other business has been gone into, then a division is ordered.

2. The mode of dividing is for those in the affirmative to rise, when the presiding officer counts those up, and announces the number. These sit, and those in the negative arise, to be counted in like manner.

3. One-fifth of the members present may call for the yeas and nays, each member's name being called, and his answer entered by the secretary.

In case of any disorder during a division or calling of the yeas and nays, the presiding officer decides the question of order; and the decision is not the subject of appeal at this time, although it may be revised after the division or call is over. (See Rule XXXIII.)

RECONSIDERATION.

1. A question which has been decided either in the affirmative or in the negative, may be reconsidered upon the motion of a member who has voted with the majority. But this motion for reconsideration will not be in order, unless made during the meeting whereat the question was decided.

2. The effect of the adoption of a motion to reconsider is to place the question in the position it occupied before the vote on its adoption or rejection was taken; consequently it is as open to amendment, postponement, commitment, or laying on the table, as it was at that time.

APPEALS.

1. An appeal from the decision of the chair is a matter of right, and brings under review and opens to debate the grounds of such decision.

2. The presiding officer, by usage and courtesy, has the right to assign his reasons for his decision before the question is put on the appeal.

3. The question on an appeal is, whether the decision of the presiding officer shall stand as the judgment of the body itself. If a majority vote in the affirmative, the decision stands; if not, it is reversed.

4. An appeal cannot be put on an appeal; that is, a second appeal cannot be entertained while the first remains undisposed of.

5. A mere opinion of the chair, drawn out by an interrogation on points of order, is not subject to an appeal. To be appealed from, it must be an actual decision on a question coming up legitimately in the progress of business.

PAPERS.

1. When papers have been laid before the main body, or referred to a committee, every member has a right to hear them once read at the secretary's table, before he can be compelled to vote on them.

2. But he has not a right, therefore, to have papers read independently of the will of a majority of his colleagues. If the reading be demanded purely for information, and not for delay, and no one objects, the chairman will direct it to be done, without putting it to the question. But should any one object, the question must be put.

3. Nor can any member have a right, without a question first put, to have any thing read, which is not before the body.

4. Nor can a member have a right to read a paper, in his place, not even his own speech, if it be objected to, without the leave of the body. But this rule is not usually enforced, unless there be a gross or intentional abuse of the time and patience of the body.

COMMUNICATIONS.

When a communication addressed to the main body is presented, the question is to be put whether it shall be received. But a general cry of "Receive!" or, even if there be no objection, the silence of the body, is sufficient to dispense with the formality of the question. In that case, or in case the vote on its reception be in the affirmative, it is to be read, unless otherwise disposed of.

THINGS ON THE TABLE.

1. Matters which have been laid on the table can only be called up when the class of business to which they belong is in order.

2. If laid on the table by a motion, they can only be lifted from it by a motion. If laid there under rules, as a matter of course, they can be called up by any member as a matter of right, when the business to which they belong is reached in its regular order.

3. But it is deemed discourteous, when the matter lies on the table, to call it up in the absence of the mover, or against his wishes, if present, provided it refers to a matter of local or private concern, in the mover's special charge ; and provided, further, that it is not designed or calculated to delay final action on any measure or proposition before the body, or impede the progress of business.

RESOLUTIONS.

All resolutions must be committed to writing, if demanded, and the name of the mover should be signed thereto.

RIGHTS OF MEMBERS.

1. It is the right of a member to have the question put on his motion, and a refusal to do this is a breach of order on the part of the chair.

2. It is the right of a member to insist on the execution of a standing order of the body.

3. And it is the right of a member, if he observe that a quorum is not present during the transaction of business, to call for a count.

ORDER AND DECORUM.

1. When the presiding officer takes the chair every member is to be seated.

2. When any member means to speak, he is to stand up, uncovered, and to address himself—not to those around, or to any particular member—but to the presiding officer, who calls him by his name ; or, better still, indicates him by his position, or otherwise, that the body may take notice who it is that speaks. But a member who is indisposed may be indulged to speak sitting.

3. When a member stands up to speak, no question is to be put ; but he is to be heard, unless the body overrules him.

4. If two or more rise to speak nearly together, the chairman decides who was first up, and calls him by name or location ; whereupon he proceeds, unless he voluntarily sits down, and gives way to the other. But if the chairman is not clear in his mind, or the body does not acquiesce in his decision, the question is to be put as to which was first up.

5. No man can speak more than once to the same question, not even though he change his opinion in the meanwhile, unless by unanimous consent.

6. But if he be the mover, proposer, or introducer of the question pending, he may close the debate ; but only after every one desiring to speak on it shall have been heard.

7. Or he may be permitted to speak again, to clear a matter of fact ; or merely to explain himself in some material part of his speech ; or to the manner and words of the question keeping himself to that only, and not traveling into the merits of it ; or to the orders of the body, if they be transgressed, keeping within that line.

8. If the chairman rise to state a point of order, give information, or otherwise speak within his privilege, the member standing up must resume his seat, that the chairman may be first heard.

9. No one is to speak impertinently or beside the question, superfluously or tediously.

10. No person is to use indecent language against the proceedings of the body ; and no prior determination of which is to be reflected on by any member, unless he means to conclude with a motion to rescind it. While a proposition is under consideration, however, though it has been even reported by a committee, reflections upon it are not reflections upon the body itself.

11. No person, in speaking, is to mention a member then present by his name ; but to describe him by his seat, or as one who spoke last ; or on the other side of the question ; or in some other indirect way to identify him.

12. Nor is he to digress from the matter to fall upon the person ; nor to use even unmanly words against a member ; nor to arraign the motives of those who propose or advocate it. All such violations of order it is the duty of the chair to immediately suppress.

13. When a member shall be called to order by a member or the chair, he shall sit down until the point of order is decided. The member who makes the call shall state his point of order, and the question shall be decided by the chair, without debate ; subject, of course, to an appeal.

14. While the chair is putting a question, or addressing the body, none shall walk out of or across the room ; nor, in such case, nor while a member is speaking, shall entertain private discourse ; nor, while a member is speaking, shall pass between him and the chair. Every member shall remain uncovered while the body is in session. No member, or other person, shall visit or remain near the secretary's table while the ayes and noes are being called, or the ballots counted.

15. No one is to disturb another in his speech by hissing, coughing, spitting, or rude exclamations ; nor stand up to interrupt him ; nor pass between the chair and the speaking member, nor go across the house while he is speaking ; nor walk up and down the floor ; nor take books or papers from the table, or write there. Nevertheless, if no attention is paid to what the member says, it is a piece of prudence for him to sit down, as the ill-manners of his colleagues are *prima facie* evidence that he is saying nothing worth the hearing.

16. If repeated calls do not produce order, the chair may call any member by name who obstinately persists in irregularity, whereupon the main body may require the member to sit down. He must be heard in exculpation, if it is intended to proceed further, and then withdraw to await the further action of his colleagues, who may pass a vote of censure upon him ; or, if he persist, may act in his case in the manner prescribed in the by-laws of the body.

17. Disorderly words are not to be noted until the member finishes his speech, unless they are manifestly personal, indecent, blasphemous, or reflecting upon the house. The offen-

sive words are to be taken down by the member who objects, or by the secretary, at his request. If the chair thinks they are not disorderly, he directs them not to be taken down by the secretary, unless there be a general cry to the contrary. They are to be read, when taken down, to the member, who may deny them ; in which case the body shall decide by vote whether they are his or not. If they are voted to be his, or if he acknowledge them, he must justify them satisfactorily, explain the use of them, or apologize. If the offended member still persists, and is not satisfied, the sense of the body may be taken, during which both members must withdraw. But when business has intervened, or any member spoken after the offensive words, they cannot be taken down.

18. Disorderly words spoken in committee must be written down, as in the main body ; but the committee can only report them to the latter for its action.

19. Blasphemous or seditious words, or words reflecting on the religious belief of members or on religion generally, are not in order.

20. No member can be present when anything which concerns himself is debating, much less vote upon it ; nor is any member to speak to the merit of it until he withdraws. Nevertheless, he may be heard upon it, before he withdraws.

21. No member is to come into the place of meeting, or remain there, with his head covered, nor put on his hat while there.

22. A question of order may be adjourned for a time, to look into precedents.

23. When a member is called to order, he shall sit down at once, unless permitted to explain. If the body be appealed to, it shall decide the question without debate ; if there be no appeal, the decision of the chair shall be submitted to. If the decision be in favor of the member, he shall be allowed to proceed ; if against him, he shall not proceed without the leave of the body ; and the body may, if it think proper, proceed to censure him.

24. All decisions of the presiding officer are liable to be reversed, altered, or amended by the body.

ADJOURNMENTS AND RECESSES.

An adjournment is the closing of a session for the day to be resumed on another day ; on which day the regular routine of business is commenced anew, except when superseded by a special order.

A recess is a suspension of business from one hour of a day to another hour of the same day ; at which hour business is taken up at the point where it was left, unless a special order takes its place.

A motion to adjourn cannot be amended, by adding the day and hour. It must be put simply that this body do now adjourn ; and, if carried in the affirmative, it is adjourned to the next sitting day, or without day, as the case may be. But any special time of adjournment may be fixed by a previous resolution.

If a question be put for adjournment it is no adjournment till so pronounced by the chair. And it is a breach of courtesy for a member to leave his place until the chair has pronounced on the question of adjournment.

SUSPENSION OF RULES.

By unanimous consent any rule or order may be suspended in part or whole ; but the object of suspending the rule must be stated in the motion, and when that object has failed or been attained, the rule regains its former force.

FORCE OF WORDS.

Throughout these rules, whenever the word "body" or "main body" has been used, it means the society, club, association, or other organized body to which the rules are made to apply.

TIE-VOTE.

Where a presiding officer is not chosen out of the body itself, as in the case of the Vice-President of the United States, the Lieutenant Governor of a State, or the Mayor of a city or town, who may preside over the Common Council, he has naturally no vote. The Constitution in the case of the two first, and the charter in case of the last, give them the privilege of deciding in case of a tie, and they do not vote otherwise.

But in the case of the Speaker of Congress, or of a House of Assembly, or a State Senate choosing its own presiding officer, the Speaker or President votes like any other member, only it is customary for the clerk, in calling the roll, to call him by his title, and not by his name. Hence in ordinary societies the presiding officer votes on all questions, and *must* vote if it be pressed, or be guilty of contempt of the main body, as in the case of any other member. The effect of a tie vote then is merely that the question before the body, not having a majority of votes, is lost.

OF RESOLUTIONS.

A written resolution is the formal record of opinion upon one or more subjects, expressed by a body of men. As in almost every species of written composition, the language should be simple, terse and forcible.

A resolution may or may not be prefaced by a preamble. If it be so constructed, the preamble should set forth briefly the cause of the resolution which is to follow. This preamble is usually commenced with the word "Whereas."

After this comes the resolution or resolutions—which commence with the word "Resolved."

A good resolution—one that is pithy and forcible—requires some care in its composition. Unless the writer be a very experienced one, he had better avoid all figures of rhetoric, and confine himself to a plain statement of the opinion he wishes to convey.

As example is always useful, we will take a subject, and show the preferable form of a preamble and resolution upon it.

We will suppose that a party majority in the legislature passes a registry law, which is not approved by the opposite party, and a public meeting of the members of the latter desire to condemn it. The following preamble and resolutions may be suggested :

"*Whereas*, It is proper for the people, in their public assemblages, to express their views of the conduct of those in office, and to award to the latter their approval or censure and

"*Whereas*, The late legislature of this State have passed an oppressive registry bill, odious in its principles, and burdensome in its details; therefore,

"*Resolved*, That the act referred to meets our unqualified disapproval and decided condemnation; that we will spare no efforts to promote its abrogation; and that we will vote for no candidate for senate or assembly who is not pledged to its speedy repeal."

Now, the above is not more wordy than such resolutions usually are, yet it can be easily simplified.

It is unnecessary to aver that it is proper for the people to express their views on official conduct, "in their public assemblages," since it is their right to do that also in other places. The rest of the first paragraph is a mere repetition. And, finally, the whole is a matter generally admitted, and, therefore, not the subject of affirmation. The preamble had better begin with the second paragraph. But that contains useless words also. Any thing which is oppressive is apt to be odious in its principles and burdensome in its details, and *vice versa*.

The resolution itself contains superfluous matter in its phrases—"decided condemnation" or "unqualified disapproval" should be stricken out, and the remainder of the paragraph condensed.

Again: the statements of the preamble may be as fully expressed in the body of the resolution itself, and may be properly omitted.

Following these hints, the resolution would read as follows:

"*Resolved*, That we are opposed to the present oppressive registry law, and that we will vote for no candidate for either house of the legislature who is not pledged to its speedy repeal."

With these remarks upon composition, we proceed to lay before the reader a series of resolutions upon various ordinary subjects, which may possibly afford him hints, or serve for the nucleus of others.

VARIOUS RESOLUTIONS.

RESOLUTIONS OF CONDOLENCE ON THE DEATH OF A MEMBER OF A FIRE COMPANY.

Whereas, It has seemed good to the Almighty Disposer of events to remove from our midst our late worthy and esteemed fellow-member, Philip Flint; and

Whereas, The intimate relations long held by the deceased with the members of this company render it proper that we should place upon record our appreciation of his services as a fireman, and his merits as a man; therefore,

Resolved, That we deplore the loss of Philip Flint, with deep feelings of regret, softened only by the confident hope that his spirit is with those who, having fought the good fight here, are enjoying perfect happiness in a better world.

Resolved, That we tender to his afflicted relatives our sincere condolence, and our earnest sympathy in their affliction at the loss of one who was a good citizen, a devoted fireman, and an upright man.

Resolved, That the members of this company will attend our deceased member to the grave in a body; that the engine-house be hung with the emblems of mourning until after the funeral ceremony shall have been performed, and that the hall of meeting be draped with black for thirty days.

Resolved, That a copy of the foregoing resolution, signed by the president, and certified by the secretary, be transmitted to the relatives of the deceased.

RESOLUTIONS OF INSTRUCTION TO MEMBERS OF THE LEGISLATURE.

Whereas, From the situation of this county [*or* "town," *or* "village,"], the general road law of the State is partly inapplicable to us, and highly inefficient, and the circumstances of the case require a specific law; therefore

Be it resolved, by the people of [*insert name here*], *in town meeting assembled*, That the Senate and Representatives of this district in the legislature be, and hereby are, instructed to procure the passage of a law exempting this county [*or* "village," *or* "town," *as the case may be*] from the action of the general road law, and placing the working and repair of the roads entirely under the control of the local authorities.

RESOLUTIONS OF THANKS TO THE OFFICERS OF A CONVENTION.

Resolved, That the thanks of this convention are hereby given to the president for the able, dignified, and impartial manner in which he has presided over its deliberations, and to the other officers for the satisfactory manner in which they have fulfilled the duties assigned to them.

[*On a resolution of this kind the question is always to be put by the member who makes the motion—it being personal to the presiding officer.*]

RESOLUTIONS AT A MEETING OF STOCKHOLDERS IN FAVOR OF A CERTAIN ROUTE.

Resolved, That the proposed horse railroad should be located upon the summit of the Palisades, and not on the shore below, for these reasons:

1. The shore route is narrow, and being limited by the river on one side and the steep Palisades on the other, is incapable of the expanded population which may be expected on the space above, and is not likely to furnish those profits in the future which shall reimburse stockholders for the present outlay.

2. There is now a road being constructed from Hoboken to Union Hill, on the upper route. This will probably be extended to Bull's Ferry, and thus connecting with this line an unbroken communication will be secured between the upper terminus of our road and the ferry at Hoboken.

3. The slightly increased cost of grading in the upper route is more than made up by the fact that the right of way in the lower route will cost a vast deal more.

Resolved, That, for the foregoing and other reasons, the directors be instructed to select the upper, and not the lower, route for the line of the proposed road.

OF REPORTS.

A report is the written statement of a person having a particular matter in charge, of the acts officially performed, or of a committee concerning the results of an investigation or matter confided to their care. The matter of the report is regulated by the same rules as regards its style and nature, as govern resolutions.

RECAPITULATION OF CERTAIN POINTS.

In order to impress certain points more strongly on the mind, we present in a condensed form the rules in regard to matters likely to confuse the reader.

I. MOTIONS IN ORDER DURING DEBATE.

These in their order of precedence are:

1. To adjourn.
2. To lay on the table.
3. To postpone indefinitely.
4. To postpone to a day certain.
5. To commit.
6. To amend.

II. MOTIONS IN THEIR ORDER OF PRECEDENCE.

1. To fix time [and place, if desired] of adjournment.
2. To adjourn.
3. For the order of the day.
4. To lay on the table.
5. For the previous question.
6. To postpone indefinitely.
7. To postpone to a time certain.
8. To commit.
9. To amend.

III. MOTIONS IN ORDER WHEN A MEMBER HAS THE FLOOR.

1. Call to order.
2. Appeal from decision of the Chair.
3. Objection to considering a question.
[Not in order if debate have already begun on the subject.]
4. That the question be discussed.
5. For the order of the day.

IV. MOTIONS OPENING MAIN QUESTIONS TO DEBATE.

1. To strike out enacting clause of bill, or ordinance, [of course, not applicable in private societies, and used in State or Municipal Legislatures when it is desirable to force the fight on the measure at the second reading.]
2. To commit the question.
3. To refer.
4. To postpone indefinitely.
5. To reconsider a debatable question.

V. SUCCESSFUL MOTIONS THAT CANNOT BE RECONSIDERED.

1. Adjournment.
2. To take from the table.
3. To reconsider.
4. That the committee rise.
5. To suspend the rules.

VI. MATTERS NOT SUBJECT TO AMENDMENT.

1. Motion to adjourn.
2. Amendment to an amendment.
3. An appeal from the decision of the Chair.
4. A call to order.
5. Motion for leave to continue speaking after having been pronounced out of order.
6. Motion to lay on the table.
7. Objections to the consideration of a question.
8. Motion for the order of the day.
9. Motion to indefinitely postpone.
10. Call for the previous question.
11. Motion to reconsider.
12. Motion that the committee rise.
13. Motion that a question be discussed.
14. Motion to suspend the rules.
15. Motion to take from the table.
16. Motion to take up a question out of the proper order.
17. Motion for leave to withdraw a motion.

VII. NON-DEBATABLE MATTERS.

1. A motion to adjourn. But a motion to fix the time to which the Society shall adjourn, when it does adjourn, is debatable.

2. An appeal from the decision of the Chair, when a question of decorum is in debate, or to the priority of business. And no appeal can be made the subject of debate while the previous question is pending.

3. A call to order is not debatable.

4. Motion to extend the limit of debate.

5. Motion to have leave to continue speaking after having been pronounced out of order.

6. Motion to lay on the table.
7. Motion to limit debate.
8. Objection to the consideration of a question proposed.
9. Motion for the order of the day.
10. Motion for the previous question.
11. Questions in regard to priority of business.
12. Call for the reading of papers.
13. To reconsider an undebatable question.
14. Motion that the committee rise.
15. Motion to allow the question to be discussed.
16. Motion to suspend the rules.
17. Motion to take from the table.
18. Motion to take up a question out of proper order.
19. Leave to withdraw a motion.

VIII. FORMS OF PUTTING CERTAIN QUESTIONS.

In putting the question on an appeal, the Chair does not ask if the decision of the Chair be overruled, but—"*Shall the decision of the Chair be sustained?*" or "*Shall the decision of the Chair stand?*" If there be a tie vote, the decision of the Chair is overruled, because of the lack of a majority.

In putting the question on striking out certain words, it is put—"*Shall these words* [naming them] *stand as part of the resolution?*" If there be a tie vote, they are struck out, because a majority have not pronounced in their favor.

On a demand for the order of the day, the question is put—"*Will the Society* [council, club, whatever it is] *now proceed to the order* [or orders] *of the day?*"

On a demand for the previous question, the form is—"*Shall the Main Question be now put?*"

On an objection to the consideration of a question, if made at the time of the introduction of the subject, the form is—"*Shall the question be considered?*"

On putting the yeas and nays—"*As many as are in favor of*

the motion [or resolutions] *will when their names are called, answer, Aye. Those of the contrary opinion, No. Mr. Secretary, call the roll.*"

On a call for the yeas and nays—"*As many as are in favor of calling the yeas and nays, will, when their names are called, say, Aye. Mr. Secretary, call the roll.*" When the requisite number have answered the Secretary suspends calling, reports result to Chair, who says—[naming the number,] "*In the affirmative. The yeas and nays are ordered.*" Or, if there be no objection, he may say—"*Those in favor of calling the yeas and nays will rise and remain standing till counted.*" He then counts them audibly, and announces the number and result. But if any member cries "vote!" or otherwise dissents, the roll must be called for the ayes only.

IX. TWO-THIRDS VOTE.

There is no such thing naturally as the necessity of a two-thirds vote. By the rules of order, a majority suffices to order the previous question, to limit the time of speeches, to limit the debate—which last is virtually ordering the previous question at a fixed hour—or to consider a question when objected to; while to suspend the rules, or amend them, or to make a special order, or to move for the discussion of a non-debatable question, or to take up a question out of its order—the three last amounting to a suspension of the rules—requires unanimous consent.

But while this is the practice in legislative bodies, in ordinary organizations, where celerity in the dispatch of business is not of great importance, where the previous question is looked upon as a device to prevent the minority from expressing an opinion, and where a suspension of the rules is more frequently necessary, the following special rule is sometimes adopted:

It shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting to call the previous question, to limit debate, to fix a specified hour for closing debate, to consider a question when objected to on its introduction, to make a special order, to suspend, or to amend the rules, to order the discussion of a subject non-debatable under the rules, or to take up a question out of its order.

This may be placed in the constitution or by-laws of the society, when it will become paramount law, to which the rules of order opposed to it must yield.

The safest mode, however, will be found to adhere to the parliamentary rules.

X. MATTER-OF-COURSE QUESTION.

To expedite business, that to which no one objects, when stated by the chair, is considered ordered. Thus, the reception of a report, calling for division, reception of communication, withdrawal of a motion before the house, leave to continue speech in order after being pronounced out of order, etc., are permitted without a vote, if no objection be made. So in making a motion, which strictly (when not a question of order, an objection to the consideration of a question or a call for the order of the day) requires to be seconded, it is always taken for granted that it has been, unless some one should violate courtesy so far as to inquire. In that case, it must be seconded, or it falls to the ground.

It is considered unfair to insist upon the seconding of a motion, because it violates the natural right of a member to get a proposition in good faith before the house; but, if his motion be made for dilatory purposes, or to annoy and weary out the majority, or be in effect, though not in shape, offensive to the house, it is eminently proper that he should have at least one member to back him in his attempt; and it is no discourtesy to cut off his discourtesy by demanding the seconder.

Phrenology.

PHRENOLOGY is a Greek compound, signifying a discourse on the mind. The system which exclusively passes by this name, was founded by Dr. Francis Joseph Gall, a German physician, born in 1757. The *brain* is the organ by and through which *mind* in this life is manifested. This truth is now disputed scarcely anywhere.

Phrenologists conjectured that different brains differ in quality, but were long without any indications of these differences. The doctrine of the *Temperaments* has thrown considerable, though not perfect, light on this point, and for this we are indebted to Dr. Thomas, of Paris. There are four temperaments, accompanied with different degrees of power and activity, in other words, quality of brain. These are the *bilious*, the *nervous*, the *sanguine*, and the *lymphatic*. These temperaments were observed and distinguished long before the discovery of phrenology, though to little purpose. They figure in the fanciful philosophy of Burton, and similar writers of former times, and much nonsense is written connected with them. Phrenology has adopted them, and made them intelligible and useful. They are supposed to depend upon the constitution of particular bodily systems. The muscular and fibrous systems being predominantly active, seem to give rise to the bilious temperament. The name is equivocal, and therefore not well applied; the other three are more appropriate. The brain and nerves predominating in activity, give the nervous; the lungs, heart and blood-vessels, the sanguine; while the glands and assimilating organs present the lymphatic temperament. The predominance of these several bodily systems is indicated by certain sufficiently obvious external signs, whence our power of recognizing them. The nervous temperament is marked by silky, thin hair, thin skin, small, thin muscles, quick muscular motion, paleness, and often delicate health. The whole nervous system, brain included, is active, and the mental manifestations vivacious. It is the temperament of genius and refinement. The bilious has black, hard, and wiry hair, dark or black eyes, dark skin, moderate fullness, but much firmness of flesh, with a harsh outline of countenance and person. The bilious temperament gives much energy of brain and mental manifestation, and the countenance is marked and decided; this is the temperament for enduring much mental as well as bodily labor. The sanguine temperament has well-defined forms, moderate plumpness and firmness of flesh, light or red hair, blue eyes, and fair and often ruddy countenance. It is accompanied with great activity of the blood-vessels, an animated countenance, and a love of out-door exercises. With a mixture of the bilious—for in most individuals the temperaments are mixed, often all four occurring in one person—it would give the soldier's temperament. The brain is active. The lymphatic temperament is indicated by a round form, as in the fat and corpulent, soft flesh, full cellular tissue, fair hair, and pale skin. The vital action is languid, the circulation weak and slow. The brain also is slow and feeble in its action, and the mental manifestations correspond.

THE PRIMITIVE FACULTIES OF MIND, AS CONNECTED WITH THEIR ORGANS IN THE BRAIN.

Mind, which was considered by the metaphysicians as a single thing or essence, was said by them to be capable of being in different *states*, in each of which states it made one of its various manifestations, as memory, judgment, anger, etc. In no particular does the phrenological hypothesis differ more from the metaphysical than in this. The phrenological doctrine is, that the brain, the organ of the mind, is divided into

various faculties, each of which has its own mode of acting. It is held—

First. That by accurate observation of human actions, it is possible to discriminate the dispositions and intellectual power of man, such as love, anger, benevolence, observation, reflection, etc.

Secondly. That the true form of the brain can be ascertained from the external form of the head; the brain, though the softer substance, being what rules the shape of the skull, just as a shell takes its form from the animal within.

Thirdly. The organs or parts into which the brain is divided, all of which organs are possessed by every individual except in the case of idiocy, appear on the brain's surface in folds or convolutions, somewhat like the bowels or viscera of an animal, but have a well-ascertained fibrous connection through the whole substance of the brain with one point at its base, called the *medulla oblongata*, which unites the brain to the spinal cord. The organs have thus each a conical form from the medulla oblongata to the surface; the whole being not inaptly compared to the stalks and flower of a cauliflower.

Fourthly. The brain is divided into two equal parts called *hemispheres*: on each side of the fosse or division between these hemispheres the same organ occurs; all the organs are therefore double, in analogy with the eyes, ears, etc. But when the term *organ* is used, both organs are meant. The organs which are situated close to the middle line drawn vertically on the head, though close to each other, are nevertheless double; for example, Individuality, Benevolence, Firmness, etc.

Fifthly. Beside the brain proper, there is a smaller brain, attached to the hinder part of the base of the brain, called the *cerebellum*.

Sixthly. The brain, including the cerebellum, is divided into the *anterior*, *middle*, and *posterior lobes*. The cerebellum forms part of the posterior lobe. The anterior lobe contains all of the intellectual faculties; the posterior and lower range of the middle lobe are the regions of the animal propensities; while the moral sentiments are found, with a sort of local pre-eminence, to have their organs developed on the top or coronal surface of the head.

The gradation in size of the organs is thus denoted:

Very Small.	Moderate.	Rather Large.
Small.	Rather Full.	Large.
Rather Small.	Full.	Very Large.

It has been found convenient to express these degrees in numbers, thus:—

1.	8. (Rather Small.)	15.
2. (Idiocy.)	9.	16. (Rather Large.)
3.	10. (Moderate.)	17.
4. (Very Small.)	11.	18. (Large.)
5.	12. (Rather Full.)	19.
6. (Small.)	13.	20. (Very Large.)
7.	14. (Full.)	21.

The intermediate numbers, 3, 5, 7, &c., denote something between the two denominations, and have been found useful.

In practice, the general size of the head is measured, in several directions, with calliper compasses. Twenty males, from 25 to 50 years of age, measured, from the occipital spine (the bony knot over the hollow of the neck) to the point over the nose between the eyebrows, on an average, $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches; some of them being as high as $8\frac{1}{2}$, and others as low as $6\frac{1}{2}$. From the occipital spine to the hollow of the ear, the average was $4\frac{3}{8}$, some being as high as 5, others as low as $3\frac{1}{2}$. From the hollow of the ear to the point between the eyebrows, as above, average nearly 5; some being $5\frac{1}{2}$, others $4\frac{1}{2}$. From the same hollow of the ear to the top of the head, about an inch behind the center (the organ of Firmness), the average was $5\frac{3}{16}$; some being $6\frac{1}{2}$, others $5\frac{1}{2}$. Across the head, from a little below the tops of the ears (from Destructiveness to Destructiveness), the average was $5\frac{3}{10}$; some being $6\frac{1}{2}$, others $5\frac{1}{2}$. The averages are in these twenty individuals higher than those of the natives of Britain generally, some of them being large, and none small.

Phrenologists further distinguish between *power* and *activity* in the organs of the brain. Power, in whatever degree possessed, is *capability* of feeling, perceiving, or thinking; while activity is the *exercise of power*, or the putting into action the organ with more or less intensity.

The powers of mind, as manifested by the organs, are called *faculties*. A faculty may be defined to be a particular power of thinking or feeling. A faculty has seven characteristics, in order to our concluding it primitive and distinct in the mind, namely, 1. When it exists in one kind of animal and not in another; 2. When it varies in the two sexes of the same species; 3. When it is not in proportion to the other faculties of the same individual; 4. When it appears earlier or later in life than the other faculties; 5. When it may act or repose singly; 6. When it is propagated from parent to child; and, 7. When it may singly preserve health, or singly manifest disease.

Division or Classification of the Faculties.—The faculties have been divided by Gall and Spurzheim into two great orders—FEELING and INTELLECT, or AFFECTIVE and INTELLECTUAL FACULTIES. The Feelings are divided into two genera—the *Propensities* and the *Sentiments*. By a propensity is meant an internal impulse, which incites to a certain action and no more; by a sentiment, a feeling which, although it has inclination, has also an emotion superadded.

The second order of faculties, the Intellectual, also suffers division into the *Perceptive* or *Knowing*, and the *Reflective Faculties*. The Perceptive Faculties are again divided into three genera—1st, the *External Senses* and *Voluntary Motion*; 2d, the *Internal powers which perceive existence*, or make man and animals acquainted with external objects and their physical qualities; and, 3d, the powers which perceive *the relations* of external objects. The fourth genus comprises the *Reflective Faculties*, which act on all the other powers; in other words, compare, discriminate, and judge.

The following is a table of the names of the organs synoptically given:—

AFFECTIVE.

I.—PROPENSITIES.	II.—SENTIMENTS.
1. Amativeness.	10. Self-Esteem.
2. Philoprogenitiveness.	11. Love of Approbation.
3. Inhabitiveness and Concentrativeness.	12. Cautiousness.
4. Adhesiveness.	13. Benevolence.
5. Combativeness.	14. Veneration.
6. Destructiveness.	15. Firmness.
[Alimentiveness.]	16. Conscientiousness.
[Love of Life.]	17. Hope.
7. Secretiveness.	18. Wonder.
8. Acquisitiveness.	19. Ideality.
9. Constructiveness.	20. Wit, or Ludicrousness.
	21. Imitation.

INTELLECTUAL.

I.—PERCEPTIVE.

22. Individuality.
23. Form.
24. Size.
25. Weight.
26. Coloring.
27. Locality.
28. Number.
29. Order.
30. Eventuality.
31. Time.
32. Tune.
33. Language.

II.—REFLECTIVE.

34. Comparison.
35. Causality.

ORDER FIRST.—FEELINGS.

GENUS I.—PROPENSITIES.

The propensities are common to man and the lower animals; they neither perceive nor reason, but only feel.

No. 1.—Amativeness.—This organ is situated immediately over the nape of the neck, and fills up the space between the ears behind, or rather between the mastoid processes, or projecting bones behind the ears. It generally forms a projection in that part, and gives a thickness to the neck when it is large, and a spareness when small.

As the basis of the domestic affections, it is one of great importance, and its regulation has ever been one of the prime objects of moral systems, laws, and institutions.

No. 2.—Philoprogenitiveness.—This, in man as well as animals, is the feeling of the love of his offspring. It depends on no other faculty, as reason or benevolence; it is primitive; and in the mother, who, for wise reasons, is gifted with it most strongly, its object, the infant, instantly rouses it to a high state of excitement. It is situated in the middle of the back of the head, and when large projects like a portion of an ostrich egg. The organ is one of the easiest to distinguish in the human head. Those who are flat and perpendicular there, instead of being delighted are annoyed by children. It is generally smaller in males than in females, though sometimes found larger; and men so organized delight to carry about and nurse children. The feeling gives a tender sympathy generally with weakness and helplessness; and we find it often returned by the young themselves to the old and feeble. It is essential to a soft kind attendant on the sick, to a nurse or nursery-maid, and to a teacher of youth. It induces women to make pets of small and gentle animals, when tyrant circumstances have kept them single, and denied them offspring of their own. Its feelings are, by a kind Providence, rendered so delightful, that they are extremely apt to be carried the length of excess; and spoiling and pampering children into vicious selfishness is the ruinous consequence.

No. 3.— Inhabitiveness — Concentrativeness.— The organ is situated immediately above the preceding. The purpose of a faculty which prompts men to *settle* instead of roaming, which latter habit is inconsistent with agriculture, commerce, and civilization, is obvious; *nostalgia*, or home-sickness, is the disease of the feeling.

No. 4.—Adhesiveness.—This organ is at the middle of the posterior edge of the parietal bone. It attaches men, and even animals, to each other, and is the foundation of that pleasure which we feel, not only in bestowing but receiving friendship. It is the faculty which prompts the embrace and the shake of the hand, and gives the joy of being reunited to friends. Acting in conjunction with Amativeness, it gives constancy and duration to the attachments of the married. Amativeness alone will not be found sufficient for this. Hence the frequent misery of sudden love marriages, as they are called, founded on that single impulse. The feeling attaches many persons to pets, such as birds, dogs, rabbits, horses, and other animals, especially when combined with Philoprogenitiveness. With this combination, the girl lavishes caresses on her doll and on her little companions.

No. 5.—Combativeness.—The organ of this propensity is situated behind, and a little upward from, the ear; anatomically, at the posterior-inferior angle of the parietal bone. A small endowment of this faculty manifests itself in that over-gentle and indolent character, which is easily aggressed upon, easily repelled by the appearance of difficulty and trouble, and which naturally seeks the shades and eddy-corners of life Nations so organized—the Hindoos, for example—are easily conquered by others, under whom they naturally sink into a condition more or less of servitude. A large endowment, on the other hand, shows itself in a love of danger for its own sake, a delight in adventurous military life, and a tendency to bluster, controversy, and turmoils of all kinds. Persons with large combativeness may be readily recognized in private society by their disposition to contradict and wrangle. They challenge the clearest propositions, and take a pleasure in doubting where everybody else is convinced. The generality of boys manifest an active combativeness in their adventurous spirit, hence their disposition to fighting, and to the working of all kinds of petty mischief. To control and guide the propensity is one of the most delicate, but almost most important, duties of the educator. When combativeness is deranged, we have a violent and noisy, and often a dangerous patient. Intoxication generally affords a great stimulus to it, hence, drunken quarrels and fightings.

No. 6.—Destructiveness.—This organ is situated on both sides of the head, immediately over the external opening of the ear, extending a little forward and backward from it, and rising a trifle above the top or upper flap of the ear. It corresponds to the lower portion of the squamous plate of the temporal bone. When the organ is large, the opening of the ear is depressed. It is still generally considered as giving the impulse to kill and destroy; but, in man, this propensity is shown to have, under the control of the higher sentiments and intellect, a legitimate sphere of exercise. It prompts beasts and birds of prey to keep down the redundant breeds of the lower animals, and enables man to "kill" that he may "eat." Anger, resentment, and indignation, in all their shapes, likewise spring from this faculty.

A small endowment of this faculty is one of the elements of a "soft" character. Persons so organized seem to want that which gives momentum to human operations, like an axe wanting in back weight.

Alimentiveness, or Appetite for Food.—Alimentiveness is the desire of, or appetite for, food. In this feeling, as such, the stomach is not concerned; its functions are strictly confined to the reception and digestion of our food.

Alimentiveness, from its near neighborhood to Destructiveness, seems to have a peculiar influence on that faculty, rousing it to great energy when its own enjoyments are endangered or interrupted.

Love of Life.—The self-preservation involved in the love of life is certainly not accounted for by any known organ or combination of organs. Cautiousness is fear of injury, fear of death; but it is not love of life. This feeling is powerfully manifested by some when their life is in no danger, but who look upon the close of life as a very great evil.

No. 7.—Secretiveness.—The order of this faculty will be observed to be situated immediately above that of Destructiveness, at the inferior edge of the parietal bone, or in the middle of the side of the brain. The legitimate use of the faculty is to exercise that control over the outward manifestation of the other faculties which is necessary to a prudent reserve. Without it, and of course, in those in whom the organ is small and the manifestation weak, the feelings express themselves too openly.

No. 8.—Acquisitiveness.—The organ of this faculty is situated farther forward than, and a little above, Secretiveness, at the anterior-inferior angle of the parietal bone.

The faculty of Acquisitiveness could not, and no faculty could, be given to man by his Creator for a mean, groveling, and immoral use; accordingly, when we consider it aright, we recognize in it the dignity of the greatest utility. In a word, it is the faculty through whose impulse man accumulates *capital*, and nations are rendered rich, great, and powerful. Without the faculty, man would be content to satisfy his daily wants, although even in this he would fail; but the surplus which, under the impulse of this faculty, he contributes to the store of wealth which accumulates from generation to generation, would not exist. Under proper regulation, then, the faculty is of the greatest value to man; by means of it he "gathers up the fragments, that nothing may be lost." Excessive pursuit of wealth is, however, an abuse of the faculty, and too much the vice of civilization, when it advances, as it has hitherto done, without adequate moral improvement.

No. 9.—Constructiveness.—The situation of this organ is immediately behind the temples, in the frontal bone, above the spheno-temporal suture. The faculty of which this organ is the instrument, is the power of mechanically making, constructing, and fashioning, by changing the forms of matter. Many of the inferior animals possess it, as the bee, the beaver, birds, and insects. Some savages have it in such small endowments as never to have built huts or made clothes, or even the simplest instruments for catching fish. In all operatives who excel in their arts—engravers, joiners, tailors, &c.—and in children who early manifest a turn for drawing figures, and cutting them out in paper, the organ is large.

GENUS II.—SENTIMENTS.

I. SENTIMENTS COMMON TO MAN AND THE LOWER ANIMALS.

No. 10.—Self-Esteem.—The situation of this organ is at the top of the back of the head, at the center; forming, as it were, the curve or turn between the back and top of the head. Technically, it is a little above the posterior or sagittal angle of the parietal bones. When it is large, the head rises far upward and backward from the ear, in the direction of the organ. The legitimate use of the faculty of Self-Esteem, or Self-Love, is that degree of self-complacency which enhances the pleasures of life, and which gives the individual confidence in his own powers, and leads him to apply them to the best advantage. It is sometimes called proper pride, or self-respect, in which form it aids the moral sentiments in resisting temptations to vice and self-degradation; this is called being *above* doing a criminal, a vicious, or a mean action. Its deficiency renders an individual too humble, and the world take him at his word, and push him aside. In large and uncontrolled endowment, it produces great abuses, and causes much annoyance and often misery to others. It is the quarreling, insulting, domineering, tyrannizing, dueling faculty. In children it is pettishness, forwardness, and self-will, and produces disobedience. In adults, it gives arrogance, superciliousness and selfishness.

No. 11.—Love of Approbation.—This organ is situated on each side close to Self-Esteem, and commences about half an inch from the lambdoidal suture. It gives, when large, a marked fullness to the upper part of the back of the head.

The faculty, unless kept in subordination by a very large and vigilant Conscientiousness, prompts to all the conventional insincerities and flatteries of society, from the dread that the truth will offend Self-Esteem, and draw down on the teller of it disapprobation. When Secretiveness is large and Conscientiousness small, Love of Approbation is profuse in the unmeaning compliments of society.

No. 12.—Cautiousness.—The organ of this faculty is situated about the middle of the parietal bone on both sides.

It has been said that *fear* is the fundamental feeling of this faculty. It is an important element in prudence, which places the individual on his guard and warns him not to be rash in his moral as well as his physical movements. In general, the organ is large in children—a wise and beneficent provision for their protection. The organ is often diseased, and then produces causeless dread of evil, despondency, and often suicide.

II. SUPERIOR SENTIMENTS PROPER TO MAN.

No. 13.—Benevolence.—The organ of this sentiment is situated at the upper part of the frontal bone, immediately before the fontanel, in the middle of the top of the forehead, where it turns to form part of the top of the head, or coronal surface. It is easily distinguished; and when large, gives a round elevated swell to that region. When the organ is small the forehead or top-front is low, flat, and retreating.

The faculty of Benevolence gives more than compassion for, and a desire to relieve, suffering; it gives a wish that others should be positively happy; prompts to active, laborious, and continued exertions; and, unless Acquisitiveness be very large and powerful, to liberal giving to promote its favorite object. It differs essentially in its charity, "which suffereth long and is kind," "and vaunteth not itself," from that which springs from Love of Approbation.

No. 14.—Veneration.—The organ of this faculty occupies the center of the coronal region just at the fontanel—the center of the top of the head. The function of the faculty is the sentiment of veneration, or deference in general for superiority, for greatness, and goodness. Its highest object is the Deity. It is remarkable in how many instances the painters

of sacred subjects have given large development of this organ in the heads of their apostles and saints—no doubt, because the pious individuals whom they would naturally select as studies for such characters, possessed the organ large. Veneration has no special object; it finds appropriate exercise with regard to *whatever is deemed superior*. Without this sentiment to make man look up to man, a people would be like a rope of sand, and society could not exist.

No. 15.—Firmness.—The organ of this faculty occupies the top of the head, behind Veneration, in the middle line. It is a faculty of peculiar character. It gives fortitude, constancy, perseverance, and determination; and when too powerful, it produces obstinacy, stubbornness, and infatuation. With Self-Esteem, it renders the individual absolutely impracticable. The want of it is a great defect in character; it is unsteadiness of purpose.

No. 16.—Conscientiousness.—The organ of this sentiment is situated on each side of the organ of Firmness, between the latter organ and that of Cautiousness.

Conscientiousness gives the emotion of justice, but intellect is necessary to show on which side justice lies. The judge must hear both sides before deciding, and his very wish to be just will prompt him to do so. This faculty regulates all the other faculties by its rigid rules. Conscientiousness not only curbs our faculties when too powerful, but stimulates those that are too weak, and prompts us to duty even against strong inclinations. To cultivate it in children is most important.

No. 17.—Hope.—The organ of this faculty has its place on each side of Veneration, partly under the frontal, and partly under the parietal bone. When not regulated by the intellect, Hope leads to rash speculation, and, in combination with Acquisitiveness, to gambling, both at the gaming-table and in the counting-house. It tends to render the individual credulous, and often indolent. In religion, hope leads to faith, and strongly disposes to a belief in a happy life to come.

No. 18.—Wonder.—The organ of this faculty is situated on each side of that of Benevolence, with one other organ, that of Imitation, interposed. Technically, it has its place in the lateral parts of the anterior region of the vertex.

Persons with the faculty powerfully developed are fond of news, especially if striking and wonderful, and are always expressing astonishment; their reading is much in the regions of the marvelous, tales of wonder, of enchanters, ghosts, and witches.

No. 19.—Ideality.—The organ of this faculty is situated farther down, but close to that of Wonder, along the temporal ridge of the frontal bone.

The faculty delights in the perfect, the exquisite, the *beau-ideal*—something beyond the scenes of reality—something in the regions of romance and fancy—of the beautiful and the sublime. Those writers and speakers who possess it large, adorn all they say or write with its vivid inspirations. It is the organ of imagery. The faculty renders conversation elevated, animated, and eloquent, the opposite of dry and dull.

No. 20.—Wit, or the Ludicrous.—The organ of this faculty is situated before, and a little lower than that of Ideality. When large, it gives a breadth to the upper region of the forehead.

No. 21.—Imitation.—This organ is situated on each side of that of Benevolence. The Imitative arts depend on this faculty; and its organ is found large, accordingly, in painters and sculptors of eminence.

ORDER SECOND.—INTELLECTUAL FACULTIES.

By these faculties man and animals perceive or gain knowledge of the external world, and likewise of their own mental operations. The object of the faculties is to know what exists, and to perceive qualities and relations. Dr. Spurzheim divided them into three genera:—1. The External Senses; 2. The Internal Senses, or Perceptive Faculties, which procure knowledge of external objects, their physical qualities and relations; 3. The Reflecting Faculties.

Genus I.—External Senses.—By these, man and the inferior animals are brought into communication with the external material world. The Senses, as generally received, are five in number—*Touch*, *Taste*, *Smell*, *Hearing*, and *Sight*. There are certainly two more, namely, the *sense of Hunger* and *Thirst*, and the *Muscular sense*, or that by which we feel the state of our muscles as acted upon by gravitation and the resistance of matter. Without this last sense we could not keep our balance, or suit our movements to the laws of the mechanical world.

Genus II.—Intellectual Faculties, which Procure Knowledge of External Objects, of their Physical Qualities, and Various Relations.—These faculties correspond in some degree with the perceptive powers of the metaphysicians, and form ideas.

No. 22.—Individuality.—The organ of this faculty is situated in the middle of the lower part of the forehead, immediately above the top of the nose. It takes cognizance of individual existences—of a horse for example. As Individuality merely observes existences without regard to their modes of action, it is the faculty of the naturalist. Those who possess it large and active, observe the minutest objects; nothing escapes them, and they remember even the minutest objects so well, that they will miss them when taken away. On the contrary, those who have it small, observe nothing, and give the most imperfect account of the objects which have been in their way.

No. 23.—Form.—This organ is situated on each side of, and close to the *crista galli*, and occupies the space between the eyes. In those who have it large, the eyes are wide asunder and *vice versa*. As every material object must have a form, regular or irregular, this faculty was given to man and animals to perceive forms, and they could not exist without it. When large, it constitutes an essential element in a talent for drawing, but requires Size and Constructiveness to perfect the talent.

No. 24.—Size.—Every object has a size or dimension. Hence a faculty is necessary to cognize this quality. The organ is situated at the inner extremities of the eyebrows, where they turn upon the nose. A perception of Size is important to our movements and actions, and essential to our safety. There is no accuracy in drawing or perspective without this organ.

No. 25.—Weight.—Weight is a quality of matter quite distinct from all its other qualities. The weight of any material object is only another name for its degree of gravitating tendency—its attractability to the earth. A power to perceive the different degrees of this attraction is essential to man's movements, safety, and even existence. There must be a faculty for that perception, and that faculty must have a cerebral instrument or organ. Phrenologists have generally localized that organ in the superorbital ridge or eyebrow, immediately next to Size, and farther from the top of the nose.

No. 26.—Coloring.—As every object must have a color in order to be visible, it seems necessary that there should be a faculty to cognize this quality. The organ is the next outward from Weight in the eyebrows, occupying the precise center of each eyebrow.

No. 27.—Locality.—Objects themselves are cognized by Individuality; but their place, the direction where they lie, the way to them depend on another faculty, a faculty given for that purpose. Without such a power, men and animals must, in situations where objects were numerous, and complicated in their positions, as woods, have lost their way. No man could find his own home, no bird its own nest, no mouse its own hole. The faculty, when active, prompts the individual to localize everything, and think of it as in its place. One glance at a paragraph or advertisement in a newspaper fixes its place in their minds, so that they will turn overt he largest and most voluminous newspaper, and know in what column, and partof a column, they will find it; or direct others to do so. A person with the faculty powerful, will go in the dark to find what he wants, and will find it if in its place. Skillful chess-players invariably have the organ of Locality large, and it is believed that it is the organ of which they make the principal use; for it gives the power of conceiving, before making a move, the effect of new relative positions of the pieces.

No. 28.—Number.—The organ of this faculty is placed at the outer extremity of the eyebrows and angle of the eye. It occasions, when large, a fullness or breadth of the temple, and often draws downward the external corner of the eye. When it is small, the part is flat and narrow between the eye and the temple. Their number is a very important relation or condition of things, and requires a distinct perspective power. Our safety, and even existence, may depend on a clear perception of Number.

No. 29.—Order.—The organ of this faculty is placed in the eyebrow, between Coloring and Number, and is large and prominent, and often pointed like a limpet-shell, in those who are remarkable for love of method, arrangement, and symmetry, and are annoyed by confusion and irregularity. The marked love of order in some persons, and their suffering from disorder, are feelings which no other faculty, or combination of faculties, seems to embrace.

No. 30.—Eventuality.—The organ of this faculty is situated in the very center of the forehead, and when large, gives to this part of the head a rounded prominence. Individuality has been called the faculty of *nouns*: Eventuality is the faculty of *verbs*. The first perceives mere existence; the other motion, change, event, history. All knowledge must be of one or the other of these two descriptions—either things that *are* or things that *happen*. In the following examples—the MAN *speaks*, the WIND *blows*, the DAY *dawns*, the nouns cognized by Individuality are printed in capitals, while the verbs, addressed to Eventuality, are in italics.

No. 31.—Time.—Whatever be the essence of time as an entity, it is a reality to man, cognizable by a faculty by which he observes its lapse. Some persons are called walking timepieces; they can tell the hour without looking at a watch; and some even can do so, nearly, when waking in the night. The faculty also marks the minute divisions of duration, and their relations and harmonies, which are called *time* in music, and *rhythm* in versification.

No. 32.—Tune.—The organ of this faculty is situated still further out than that of Time, giving roundness to the point where the forehead turns to form the temples. It is large in great musicians; and when small and hollow, there is an utter incapacity to distinguish either melody or harmony.

No. 33.—Language.—A faculty is given to man and animals which connects feelings with signs and cries; but to man alone is given articulate speech. The comparative facility with which different men clothe their thoughts in words, depends on the size of this organ, which is situated in the super-orbital plate, immediately over the eyeball, and when large, pushes the eye outward, and sometimes downward, producing, in the latter case, a wrinkling or pursing of the lower eyelid. There is no fluent speaker deficient in this organ.

Internal Excitement of the Knowing Organs—Spectral Illusions.—The Knowing Organs are for the most part called into activity by *external* objects, such as forms, colors, sounds, individual things, &c.; but internal causes often excite them, and when they are in action objects will be perceived which have no external existence, and which, nevertheless, the individual will believe to be real. This is the explanation of visions, specters and ghosts, and at once explains the firm belief of many that they have appeared to them, and the fact that it never happens that two persons see the same specters at the same time.

GENUS III.—REFLECTIVE FACULTIES.

The Intellectual Faculties already considered, give us knowledge of objects, and the qualities and relations of objects, also of the changes they undergo, or events.

No. 34.—Comparison.—Every faculty can compare its own objects. Coloring can compare colors; Weight, weights; Form, forms; Tune, sounds; but Comparison can compare a color with a note, or a form with a weight, &c. Analogy is a comparison not of things but of their relations.

No. 35.—Causality.—This is the highest and noblest of the intellectual powers, and is the last in the phrenological analysis of the faculties. Dr. Spurzheim so named it, from observing that it traces the connection between *cause* and *effect*, and sees the relation of ideas to each other in respect of *necessary consequence*. Its organs are situated on each side of Comparison. With a powerful perception of *causation*, the individual reasons from cause to effect by logical or necessary consequence. It is the faculty which sees principles and acts upon them, while the other two faculties only try experiments. Resource in difficulties, and sound judgment in life, are the result of powerful Causality.

KNOTS AND SPLICES.

THE mode of forming ropes and cables is shown in Fig. 1. A number of fibers, *a*, are spun right-handed (with the sun, or from left to right) into the *yarn*, *b*. A number of yarns, varying according to the size and quality of the strand required (ropes made of small fine yarn are the strongest and best), are then twisted, *left*-handed, into the *strand*, *c*. Three strands laid together, *right*-handed, form the *rope*, *d*. (At *e* is the vacant space caused by the strand *c* being "unlaid" to show its structure.) This three-strand right-handed rope is the rope used for general purposes and for the "running rigging" of ships. For "standing rigging"—shrouds and stays—it is customary to use right-handed rope composed of four strands laid round a fifth smaller strand, called the *heart*, which passes straight up the middle. Left-handed rope is sometimes met with, but not often. Ropes are built up in this way for the sake of getting the twist right and left alternately, which is the only way of preventing them from untwisting under strain. Without the twist the fibers would fall to pieces.

Three ropes like *d*, laid together left-handed, form the *cable*, *f*, the largest kind of rope. All left-handed rope is called *cable-laid*; but, strictly speaking, only nine-stranded rope like *f* should be so called. Formerly, ordinary right-handed rope was called *hawser-laid*, but that term is obsolete or has come to mean the same as "cable-laid."

There are many kinds of cord, such as window-sash lines, &c., which are not "laid," but "plaited," and are therefore in no sense *rope*. These cannot be spliced or made into the more complicated knots. Miniature rope, called *humber-line*, is about the smallest genuine laid rope, and is good for practicing knots upon. The smallest rope so called by sailors is inch-rope, *i. e.*, 1 in. in circumference. not



FIG. 1.



FIG. 2.

diameter. Rope exposed to the wet should be made of yarns soaked in tar. This makes the neatest knots and splices, the fibers sticking together better, but it makes the fingers in a sad mess. Untarred rope is nearly as good for practicing on.

String is composed of two or three yarns laid either way.

Spun-yarn is a kind of soft string, made by twisting, right-handed, two or three yarns from old rope.

Worming is filling up the channels between the strands of a rope, either to improve its appearance or to fit it for serving or parcelling (*a*, Fig. 2).

Parcelling is covering the rope with strips of old canvas soaked in tar to keep out the wet. Follow the "lay" of the strands from left to right (*d*, Fig. 2), then cover over or *serve* the parcelling with

Fig. 3. Fig. 4. Fig. 5. Fig. 6.



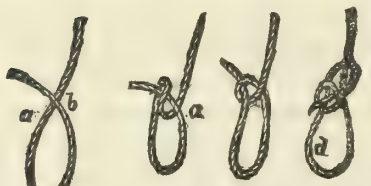


Fig. 7. Fig. 8. Fig. 9. Fig. 10.

spun-yarn (*b*, Fig. 2), going against the lay, or from right to left. "Service" is also put on without parcelling, over a plain rope or over worming.

Marling is used instead of service to keep parcelling in its place. It is a kind of "chain-stitch" as known to ladies (*c*, Fig. 2). Work it towards you.

Any bend or loop in a rope is called a *bight*, as *a* or *b* in Fig. 3. The *standing part* is that which is not bent about in forming the knot; the base, in fact, upon which the *end*—the part being manipulated—is worked. If you seize one of the bends of a coil of rope, and draw it out without finding the ends, you have hold of the "bight" of it.

The plain Overhand Knot (Fig. 4) is the simplest of all. It is made at the end of a rope, to prevent it passing through a hole (as in sewing) or to prevent the strands from separating too far.

The Figure of Eight Knot (Fig. 5) is better than the overhand, as it does not "jam" under strain and is easy to undo.

The Boat Knot or Marlingspike Hitch (Fig. 6) is simply an overhand knot with the end held by a piece of wood instead of being taken through the bight. On withdrawing this the knot falls to pieces.

The Bowline is the best of all knots. It forms a loop which neither jams nor slips, and is easy to undo. Two ropes may be joined by a bowline at the end of each. It may be thrown over or made fast round a post, it forms a sling for a cask, and fifty other things. Having formed a bight as in Fig. 7, hold the crossing *b* in the right finger and thumb; with the left hand take the bight at *a*, and draw it over the end as in Fig. 8: being twisted by this operation, it tends to take the shape shown in Fig. 9; let it do so, but still keep the crossing in order between the finger and thumb; now draw out the end a little, and work it in as in Fig. 10; adjust the loop to the size required, and pull it tight.

A Running Bowline is begun as in Fig. 11, taking *c* as the crossing and *d* as the bight described above. Fig. 12 shows it finished,—the best slip-knot known, free from any risk of jamming.

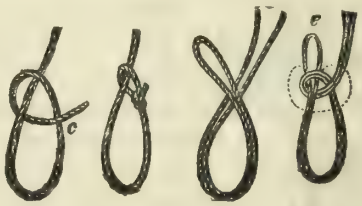


Fig. 11. Fig. 12. Fig. 13. Fig. 14.

One merit of the bowline is that it can be made on a rope with one end fixed and out of reach; but it can even be made in the middle of a rope when there is no time to look for the ends. This is a *bowline on a bight*. When a sailor hears the cry, "Man overboard!" he seizes a bight in the first coil of rope he meets with, forms a bowline on it, and throws it to the drowning man in less time than it takes to describe it, because he is not detained



Fig. 15. Fig. 16. Fig. 17.

looking for the end. Figs. 13 and 14, corresponding to 7 and 9, show that it is commenced as a common bowline, only with a double instead of a single

rope ; but instead of treating the looped end, *e*, like the end in Fig. 10, open it out and pass it round or behind the whole thing (see the dotted lines); then draw tight again, as in Fig. 15.

A Bowline with Four Bights is made with *two* double ropes. It has four large loops, instead of the two in Fig. 15, and may be used, for instance, to support the different parts of a man's body while being drawn out of the water insensible.

Figs. 16 and 17 show two ways of slinging a cask, &c., in the loop of a single bowline. In Fig. 17 the rope must be arranged before the bowline is made.

Fig. 18 is a simple running knot, but inferior to the bowline. It is often used for tying up parcels, when an overhand knot at *a* is made to prevent the end slipping through.

The Hangman's Knot is useful for the same

Fig. 18.

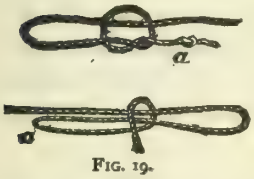


Fig. 19.

Fig. 20.



Fig. 21.



and other purposes and does not jam so much, besides being more ornamental. Form bights as in Fig. 19; work the end round and round, as many times as you like, towards the loop *a*, Fig. 20; pass it through *a* ; pull *b* so as to nip the end tightly in *a* (Fig. 21). When made with care this is a pretty knot.

A rope may be secured to a post or spar by a bowline, as to the cask in Fig. 16, or by

The Clove Hitch or Builder's Knot, Figs. 22

Fig. 23.

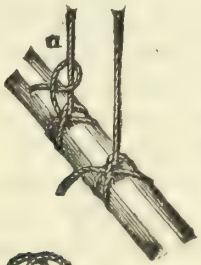
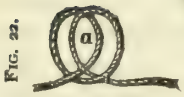


Fig. 22.



and 23, which holds very tight, especially if the end is "seized" or "stoppered" down with spun-yarn, or secured to the standing part by a "half-hitch," as at *a* in the latter figure. You can form this knot either by twisting the end of the rope round the post, in the manner shown in Fig. 23, or by forming a double loop as in Fig. 22, and passing the post or spar through the opening *a*, and then drawing tight. In either case the result is the same.

The Timber Hitch (Fig 24) holds tight while the strain is on, but not otherwise. It is useful in a hurry, and easily made.

The Rolling Hitch (Fig. 25) holds so securely that a weight may be suspended by it from a perpendicular pole, or the pole may be slung by it in the same position. At *a* it is shown drawn tight. In Fig. 26 an extra turn is taken, which adds to the

Fig. 24.

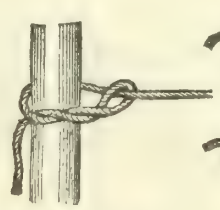


Fig. 25

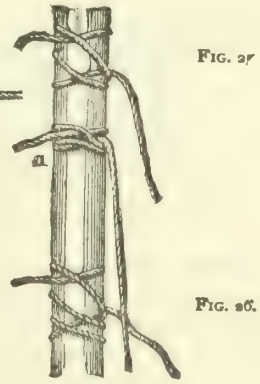


Fig. 26.

Fig. 27.

strength. There is also another more complicated form of the rolling hitch.

In all these figures the knot is drawn loose to show the structure.

The Cat's-paw (Fig. 27) is used for hitching the bight or any part of a rope to a hook, &c. Form two bights, twist them in opposite directions, and pass the hook through the loops. A weight may now be hung to either part of the rope. There are several cat's paws, but this is the commonest.

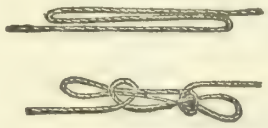


Fig. 28.



Fig. 29.

The Sheepshank or Dogshank (Fig. 28) explains itself. It is used for shortening ropes when

it is undesirable to cut them to the length required. It comes apart again when the strain is removed.

A BLACKWALL HITCH (Fig. 29), simple as it is, is a safe way of hanging a weight from a hook. The greater the weight the tighter the end is jammed against the hook, though there is no knot in it.

The neatest join for two ropes is the REEF KNOT, or RIGHT or TRUE knot. Twist the ends as in Fig. 30, then make an overhand knot as in Fig. 31. If the latter is twisted in the right direction, the ends will lie close as in Fig. 32; if not, they will stick out sideways. When this happens the knot is useless, and is called a "granny knot," or false knot. Neat as the true reef knot is, it is only suited for small ropes with no great strain on them: under much strain it jams and is difficult to undo. To

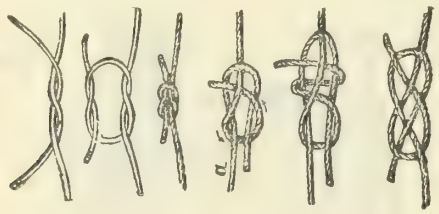


FIG. 30. FIG. 31. FIG. 32. FIG. 33. FIG. 34. FIG. 35.

join large ropes, hold one in the left hand as at *a* in Fig. 33; then work the other through in the direction of the arrow. This is the COMMON or SHEET BEND, or WEAVER'S KNOT. The reef knot is that used to join the ends of each pair of "reef points" in reefing a sail. Of course joining the two ends of a rope together is the same as joining two separate ropes. The weaver's knot is easy to undo, especially if made as in Fig. 34.

Fig. 35 is a CARRICK BEND, for joining two cables for towing ships, &c.; but a bowline bend is more general.

A permanent junction between two ropes should

FIG. 36.

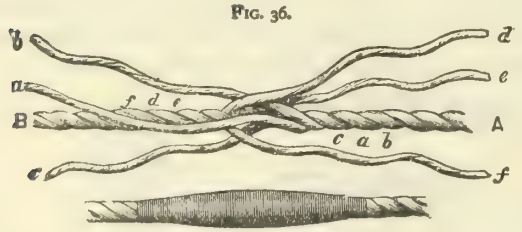


FIG. 37.

always be made by *splicing*. Fig. 36 shows the commencement of a

SHORT SPLICE.—Open out or unlay the strands, and "crutch" or inter-lock the ends (tightly, not loosely as in the drawing); take any strand, *a*, pass it over the opposing strand next before it, *f*, and stick it in between that and the next, *e* (which must be lifted up by a pointed piece of wood or iron called a *marlingspike*). Pass it under *e* and up between *e* and *d*. Treat all six strands in a similar manner. If great strength is required, pass them all a second time. When the ends reappear, untwist each into yarns; cut out half of each yarn; twist up the yarns again; then pass the six *reduced* strands once more, and cut off the ends. This is to *taper the splice*, to make it more sightly (Fig. 37.) If the description seems obscure, try it as you read: the principle is to embed or burrow each strand of A into the substance of B and *vice versa*. Splicing large ropes is very hard work.

An EYE SPLICE (Fig. 38) is easily made by any one who has mastered the short splice, the difference being that you have only the strands of *one* rope to work in amongst the strands of its own "standing part." Both these splices should be parcelled and served if exposed to wet.

FIG. 39.

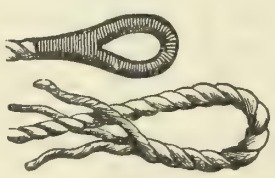


FIG. 38.

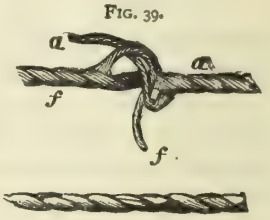


FIG. 40.

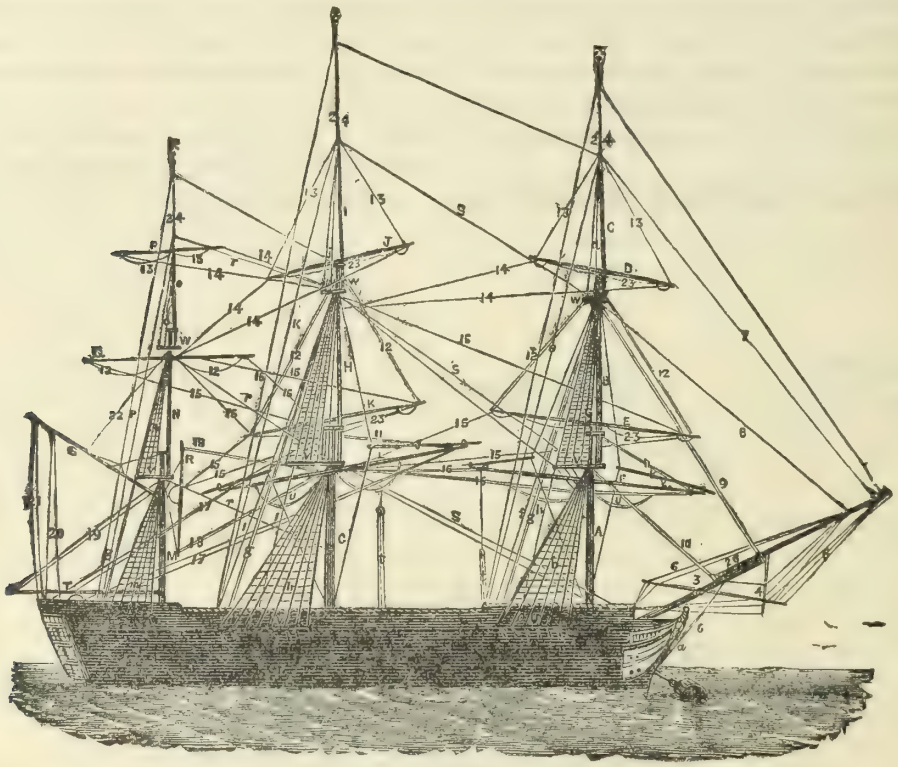
The LONG SPLICE is stronger and more elegant than the short splice, and must be used if the rope has to run through pulleys, &c., as it does not increase its thickness. Unlay a much greater length of each rope than is shown in Fig. 36; inter-lock or "crutch" the strands as before. Now untwist *a* still further—for several whole turns along its own rope A, which will then consist, so to speak, of two strands and a vacancy. Into the vacant space left by the removal of *a* lay the corresponding strand *f*, of the opposite rope (Fig. 36); twist *f* tighter as you lay it in A, for part of its length is now composed of two strands of its own, *b* and *c*, and one of its neighbor's, *f*. At the point where the untwisting of *a* ceases—and where, of course, the laying in of *f* ceases also—join *a* and *f*; cut off all but a few inches of each; untwist them, and cut off about one-fourth of the yarns from each. Tie the reduced

strands with an overhand knot (as in Fig. 39), which must be coaxed into the vacant place as neatly as possible; beyond the knot reduce *a* and *f* by another fourth; pass the end of *a* over *f* and the end of *f* over *a*, and each under the *two* next strands (Fig. 40): when you have well stretched the rope, cut off the ends where they appear. Sometimes the two are reduced by half before knotting; sometimes the extreme end is reduced to a fourth, and "stuck" once more. In the same way work one of A's strands —say *b*—into the rope B, untwisting *d* to make room for it, and joining them like *a* and *f*. You will now have *e* and *c* to dispose of. Reduce them, and tie their ends together like the others, but at the original point of junction, without laying them into either rope: your three pair of strands will now be united at three different points in the rope, some distance apart, and there will be no material increase of thickness.

A GROMMET—(see engraving in the article on Sailing)—is a rope ring made by unlaying one strand from a rope. Form a bight of the required size at one end, and work the loose end twice round it, following the natural crevices of the strand. You will now have a solid three-strand rope in the form of a ring, and a pair of ends to join. Join them by an overhand knot, first tapering them, and "stick" the ends just as in a long splice.

Sailors have many ornamental knots for finishing the ends of ropes, to prevent the strands from separating: amongst the others are the Matthew Walker, the Single Wall, the Single Wall Crowned, the Double Wall, the Double Wall Double Crowned, the Single Diamond, the Double Diamond, the Stopper Knot, and others, which space does not admit of our describing. All the knots and splices in common use we have given, and the reader may be sure that few pieces of stray information repay the trouble of learning—*and practicing*—better than a knowledge of the Art of Cordage.

A FULL RIGGED SHIP.



A The foremast
B Foretopmast
C Foretop-gallantmast
D Foretop-gallant-yard
E Foretopsail-yard
F Fore yard
G Mainmast
H Maintopmast
I Maintop-gallantmast
J Maintop-gallant-yard
K Maintopsail-yard
L Main yard
M Mizzenmast
N Mizzentopmast
O Miztp.-gallantmast
P Miztp.-gallant-yard
Q Miztp.-sail-yard
R Cross-jack yard
S The gaff
T The spanker-boom
U Forechain, or channels
V The main ditto
W The mizzen ditto
X The quarter galleries
Y The chain or channel wales
Z Main channel wales

a Cutwater and figure-head
b Fore-shrouds and rat-lines
c Ditto topmast ditto
d Top-gallant-shrouds
e Top-gallant backstay
f Topmast backstay
g g g Topsail ties
h Main shrouds, &c., or main rigging
i Ditto topmast ditto
j Ditto top-gallant ditto
k Ditto ditto backstay
l Ditto topmast ditto
m Mizzen shrouds
n Ditto topmast ditto
o Ditto top-gallant ditto
p Ditto ditto backstay
q Ditto topmast ditto
r r r Mizzen, mizzen-top, and mizzen-top-gallant-stays
s s s Main ditto ditto
t t Stay tackles
u u Fore and main-yard tackles
v v v Fore, main, and mizzentops (round tops)
w w w Fore, main, and mizzen cross-trees
x x x Fore, main, and mizzen trucks
y y Stun-sail, or studding-sail, booms, on the fore and main yards

1 The jib-boom
2 Bowsprit
3 Spritsail-yard
4 Dolphin-strikers
5 Bobstays
6 Jib-boom, guys, and stays
7 Foretop-gallant-stay
8 Jib-stay
9 Foretopmast-stay
10 Forestay
11 11 11 Lifts of the fore, main, and mizzen yards
12 12 12 Ditto ditto topsail yards
13 13 13 Ditto ditto, top-gallant-yards
14 14 Fore, main, and miztp.-gallant braces
15 15 Ditto ditto ditto topsail-braces
16 16 Fore-braces
17 17 Main-braces
18 18 Cross-jack-yard braces
19 Topping-lift
20 Vangs
21 Signal halyards
22 Peak or gaff halyards
23 Foot-ropes
24 Fore, main, and mizzen royals

HOME STUDIES FOR YOUNG LADIES.

ALL girls have not their whole time engrossed by their teachers; and most have spaces of holiday — either they are at school and come home for the vacation, or the governess goes to visit her friends, or the whole family goes to the sea-side, and there is a general relaxation, or there are sojourns with friends and a suspension of lessons. And in process of time, governesses cease to educate them, and they are left to educate themselves.

In the school-room it is necessary to teach the rudiments of many things, without which, in these days, it would hardly be possible to pass in the crowd. Therefore, much must there be acquired for which there is no natural bent. The unmathematical must learn arithmetic, enough at least, to cast up accounts; the unmusical ought to learn the first rules of music; the unhistorical must know the outlines of the events of the world; those with no turn for language must acquire French enough to understand, and not mispronounce the phrases they meet; and what is least congenial is necessarily hammered in with the most pains, and forms the best discipline.

However, in the voluntary studies of which we are speaking, taste is the safest guide, for it generally indicates what you best can excel in. No, the superlative is not quite right, for the *safest* guide is what your parents may wish you to improve in, or what may help your brothers and sisters most. Many a brother is encouraged to face his holiday task or preparation for an examination by a sist working with him, and what she acquires in th way, for pure love, is of use to her throughout her life.

But where there is no inducement of this kind, it is the wisest way, in all cases of long holidays, to resolve upon spending a certain time every day upon some solid occupation. It is a very good rule not to take up a story-book in the forenoon, or till a certain portion of useful reading has been gone through. It is the only way, we believe, to avoid being either dull, vacant, or frivolous, or what may lead to any or all of these—desultory. The way to have the most enjoyment is to have some real study to "break one's mind upon," and give a sense of duty done—some reasonable pursuit to engage the lively interest of eye, ear, and hand, occupy leisure moments, and afford wholesome zest and delight to all the amusements of mind and body that may offer.

The study may be of many kinds. Some young ladies will take delight in pursuing their fractions, working cube root, learning algebra or Euclid, and feeling new ideas delight them when they perceive how algebra and geometry work into one another. Such tastes, however, look very frightful to others, and for their sakes we will not pursue the subject farther than to say that those who have these likings will have special comprehension, and therefore enjoyment, of astronomy and other branches of physical science that cannot be appreciated at all without some knowledge of mathematics. Everybody learns some astronomy—at least as much as is connected with school-room geography; but, beyond this, every person ought to try to understand something of that wonderful mechanism and order which, above all things, seems to expand the mind to some idea of the vastness of the power and wisdom of the Creator.

But without making astronomy a *study*, it is a serious loss not to make it a *pursuit*—we mean so far as to learn to know the changes of the moon, and to distinguish a planet from a star; to observe enough not to inform one's neighbors "that we have seen the comet beautifully," when we have been looking at Jupiter, whom we might have seen every night for a month. It is a great loss of pleasure not to know the constellations, and every one can learn these with a very little attention, by tracing the stars they have observed either on the celestial globe or upon maps. The love and delight one thus wins for the glorious hunter Orion—our Lady's Distaff, as the North calls it—the Pleiades like "fireflies in a golden net," the grand, glittering Vega, the Lion's red heart, the little diamond-twinkling Dolphin—all returning in their seasons like dear old friends—are not to be thrown away out of mere indifference and inattention to some of the most glorious works of the Maker of all things.

We have said that astronomy may be a study or may be a pursuit. This would be the case with almost everything worth doing at all. The thoroughgoing generally turn their amusement into a study by their resolution really to go to the bottom of things, and understand the principle. Truly, they only find that "the mystery is gone farther;" but they have learned to wonder at the mystery, which they will never be able to do without study. The maid-servant who tells the child to fling away its handful, for it is "only nasty littering moss," sees no mystery, while the botanist sees marvels inexplicable.

While, however, you are a little busy "scholar," as the census calls you, you will generally find pursuits quite enough for your brain. Collections of flowers, shells, minerals, fossils, coins—all, if properly arranged in accordance with some easy guide-book, will lead you through much interesting knowledge to the threshold of sciences that you may pursue to some purpose when your time is more your own. The collections should be always well sorted and kept in good order, without which they become absolute rubbish—a burden to the proprietor, a nuisance to everybody, and such an exasperation to the housemaids and the authorities, that they will probably be confiscated, and the whole pursuit quashed, perhaps never to be resumed. Collecting is delightful work; only, as you grow past childhood, it is just as well, before beginning a collection, to ask, "Is this a rational thing?" There is much to be said in favor of foreign postage stamps, and of autographs (except that collectors get hardened into importuning perfect strangers for them); but every one now laughs at the old mania for amassing used English queen's heads, and in a dozen years people will be wondering what was the pleasure of finding in how many different ways the letters of the alphabet can be twisted together on the top of a sheet of note-paper. Some collections will have served to give you interest in the studies they are connected with, will make you enjoy your walks, see with your eyes, and read with an object. If you have a brother in a fit of chemistry, he will probably make you help him, and you had better learn to understand his intentions, and the principles on which he works; or, if not, "The Chemistry of Creation," and other like books, should be read, both to fill your mind with wonder at the marvelous things of this earth, and to give you clear and accurate knowledge, so that you may not fall into absurd blunders about gases, etc.

One class of minds delights chiefly in these present tangible things; there is another class which is more interested in men than in things; and of course there are also many, and these the more active spirits, which have room for both.

It is most advisable that part of the day's deeper reading should be historical. Those who really cannot bring themselves to care about things past, nor remember them, may perhaps more profitably spend their time over what they do care about; but this is not common among educated people, because there is so much in their daily lives that requires a reference to the past. Scarcely an ornament do they see but has a Greek or Gothic model; they are surrounded with pictures of historical scenes; the fields, houses, towns, or ruins around them have witnessed the great events that still influence our lives. It must be a very callous mind that does not heed all this; and besides, how great is the enjoyment of thinking about great characters and gallant men of old! If you never read anything except about little boys and girls, how they tore their frocks and were put in the corner, and the like, your mind will grow down to them, and you will think Leonidas guarding Thermopylæ, or Cornelia showing her jewels, or Bruce baffling the bloodhounds, only

stupid things, never to be thought of out of lesson-time; and you may end by being like the lady who thought "Plutarch's Lives" very entertaining, till she found they were all true, when they at once grew stupid!

But one thing let us advise you, and that is, don't keep to small books. It is quite a mistake to be afraid of a big book, and think it must be dry. You are set to read abridgments in the school-room, because you must there learn the framework in as small compass as possible, and of course it is very likely to be dull and dry; but go to the places where the abridgments are taken from, and there you will find that the people have room to spread out and seem to be alive, so that we can care about them.

You should also try to read the real great poems. Some you have learned in fragments in the school-room; but there is no time there to let you really get acquainted with them. You should read a translation of the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," which you can enjoy quite young; Tasso and Dante you may, we hope, one day read in Italian; but you should especially aspire to Shakespeare and Spenser so soon as ever you are thought old enough to be trusted with them. The earlier and the better you know both them and Milton, the greater will be your enjoyment of them, and the better your taste. It is the same with Scott and Southey. There is something specially engaging to young minds in the chivalrous freshness and animated life of Scott, his ringing verses, and high spirit of honor; and so, too, the noble sentiments and beautiful self-devotion throughout Southey's "Roderick," and the wild beauty and strange adventure in his "Thalaba" and "Kehama," will make them very charming reading to you; and it is much the best way to read poems like these while you are young and have time, before you get whirled off by the literature of the day.

Languages are in general so much the chief study in the school-room, that they would hardly come under the class of what a young lady would work at alone, unless, indeed, she has not the usual amount of lessons required of her. Except the picking up of Latin to help a brother, very little had better be done in that way before the schooling has ceased. Then, it may be feared, it is too much the usual habit to make very little use of what has been acquired with so much trouble. It is not always easy to get foreign books, and nobody ever thinks of looking at the rows or French memoirs and histories, with tarnished gold backs, in the drawing-room book-case. Perhaps the French master has said "they are old French," and set his pupil to read the "*Recueil*," with which he is most familiar. So she never becomes acquainted with the beautiful, idiomatic, carefully studied French that prevailed before the Revolution; and as, quite rightly, her mother will not let her read a modern French novel till she has heard its character, that language, the most familiar of all, remains useless, excepting if she goes abroad. Now, French is particulary well suited to history and biography; and any good library will supply you with long lists of books that will furnish very useful reading—Capefigue, Thierry, Sandeau, and many another among the moderns, to say nothing of the crowds of most entertaining memoirs of older date. Or the beautiful journals of Eugénie de Guérin should be read by all; while, among lighter books, Souvestre's are nearly all sure to be safe reading; and besides these we might mention Féval's "Fée des Grèves," Lady Georgiana Fullerton's "Comtesse de Bonneval," Mme. Reybaud's "Cabaret de Gaubert," as thoroughly interesting and unexceptionable.

German ought likewise to be kept from dropping out of use, which it is extremely disposed to do, although universally learnt. It is best to get lists of German books from trustworthy friends; or failing these, you are always on safe ground with history. Fouqué's exquisite tales are despised by German masters, as not being in perfect language; but those who read for the sake of beauty and poetic ideas, should assuredly not neglect the more celebrated of these.

Either German or Italian is sometimes omitted in the school-room, and thus affords a field of enterprise for after-study. The great Italian poet will furnish you with years of study, when once you have worked your way to him; and Italian, too, owns the most high-minded of modern novels—"I Promessi Sposi," which ought not to be read till the first difficulties of the language are mastered.

We must not, however, be understood to urge the study of either of these languages. Neither of them is absolutely necessary to the education of an American lady. What we do urge is the habit of disciplining the mind to a daily habit of exertion. And this is infinitely more necessary after the age is past

in which hours and tasks are prescribed for you. The first impulse is to shake yourself free from restraint, and idle, trifle, or amuse yourself merely by way of feeling your liberty; but by the time this has gone on a few months, unless some fresh excitement has carried you off, you will feel a great tedium, and yet a disinclination to exert yourself, which you would not have felt when your habits of application were not disused.

Try, then, to look forward to going on with something for yourself, or with a sister or friend. There ought to be each day one short interval of study requiring close accuracy—such as may be found in grammar, logic, mathematics; and another space of steady reading, to inform the mind and keep up the power of attention; and probably likewise some accomplishment to be worked up, such as music or drawing. These, and whatever besides may please you, are likely to hinder you from becoming frivolous and unsettled, and to afford you infinitely more pleasure than "all play and no work." Young girls of your own age, when visiting you, will often be well pleased to join in some such occupation, and the day will thus have a sort of ballast, besides that the very passage you have read together will ever after seem illuminated by the talk that it occasions.

A friendship will thrive far better on substantial food shared together, than on nothing but trifles. Nay, we believe that nonsense has not the power to be vigorous and merry without sense from which to rebound; it certainly can hardly be wholesome or innocent.

Girls have lately found out a very pleasant way of supplying the stimulus that is apt to be wanting on leaving the school-room, by forming themselves into little societies for improvement. Essay Societies is the generic title, but they generally have a private one of their own, such as the Kitten Club, the Querists, Spinsters, and the like. Essay Societies is hardly a good name, for few women are capable of writing essays at all, and certainly not under twenty; and it is better that the subject should be such as can be elucidated by intelligent diligence, instead of by knowledge of the world, such as only can be gained by experience.

Let us, then, suppose the society to be called the Querist Company. The members should not be too diverse in age. Eighteen and fifteen, or eighteen and five-and-twenty, can work together very well, but hardly fifteen and five-and-twenty, and in general a girl in the school-room has not time for such extra work. The exceptions are when there are no regular lessons, or at least comparatively few, and a girl, taught by a father or mother, can obtain free access to books, but wants motive and direction in making use of them. Otherwise the members should be all girls "come out," that is, with their education left to themselves. They should be in some degree known to one another, the more intimate the better for the interest and liveliness of the affair. Some are cousins living at a distance from one another, others friends in the same neighborhood; but to be well known to at least two members is a good rule, or the society loses its coherence and privacy. It is well to have a head and referee. The Querists have secured a cousin of some of the parties, who, as the chief querist, queerest of all, as they say, goes by the official name of Columbine. The Kitten Club, on the other hand, make one of their members, in rotation, into "Grimalkin," and commit the management to this ruling power for the time being, making her dispense the questions, and decide which is the best answer.

The questions or subjects are propounded by the Querists in rotation, two a month. More have been tried, but it was found that no one had time to attend to more than two questions; indeed, the chief reason for sending out two is that there may be a choice between them.

The questions are submitted to Columbine before they are sent round; each member receives hers at the beginning of the month, and returns her replies at the end to Columbine, who either chooses out the best, or, when two or three bring in varieties of information, selects these, writes a letter explaining the grounds of the choice, and sends them to the nearest member, who passes them to the next, and so on round the whole party. The best answers are carefully preserved in the archives of the society, and are sometimes made quite ornamental by the drawing members of the club. A few questions shall be mentioned as specimens.

Write a short life of St. Ambrose.

Describe the course and influence of the Gulf Stream.

Translate into verse or prose, Uhland's "Schloss am Meer."

Collect the passages of poetry that best describe the song of the nightingale.

What celebrated horses are mentioned in history?

Parse and give the derivation of the words in the lines—

> "Mountains on whose barren breast
> The laboring clouds do often rest."

Which king do you think was most correctly termed Great, and why?

How does the story of "Quentin Durward" depart from history?

What is the difference between genius and talent?

Write a story to illustrate the saying that every cloud has a silver lining.

Give an account of the American forest-trees.

These are such questions as the Querists put to one another. In answering, the rule is that there must be no direct assistance from elders in the family, except in suggesting books; and books, though freely consulted, must not be copied, except in making acknowledged quotations. The authorities consulted are written at the foot of the paper. Much information is thus gained and put together in a very pleasant manner, and it is well worth comparing the various opinions, or the different information that each can obtain.

Architecture.

ARCHITECTURE, or the art of planning and raising edifices, appears to have been among the earliest inventions. The first habitations of men were such as nature afforded, with but little labor on the part of the occupant, and sufficient to supply his simple wants—grottoes, huts, and tents. In early times, the country of Judea, which is mountainous and rocky, offered cavernous retreats to the inhabitants, who accordingly used them instead of artificial places of shelter. From various passages in Scripture, it appears that these caves were often of great extent, for, in the sides of the mountain of Engedi, David and six hundred men concealed themselves. In the course of time, art was employed to fashion the rude cavernous retreats, and to excavate blocks by which rude buildings were compiled in more convenient situations. The progress of architecture, however, from its first dawn, differed in almost every different locality. Whatever rude structure the climate and materials of any country obliged its early inhabitants to adopt for their temporary shelter, the same structure, with all its prominent features, was afterward kept up by their refined and opulent posterity.

From the cause now mentioned the Egyptian style of building had its origin in the cavern and mound; the Chinese architecture, with its pavilion roofs and pointed minaret, is moulded from the Tartar tent; the Grecian is derived from the wooden cabin; and the Gothic from the bower of trees. It is evident that necessity as much as choice or chance led to the adoption of the different kinds of edifices.

After mankind had learned to build houses, they commenced the erection of temples to their gods, and these they made still more splendid than private dwellings. Thus architecture became a fine art, which was first displayed on the temples, afterward on the habitations of princes and public buildings, and at last became a universal want in society.

Traces of these eras of advancement in the art of erecting buildings are found in various quarters of the globe, especially in Eastern countries, where the remains of edifices are discovered of which fable and poetry can alone give any account. The most remarkable of these vestiges of a primitive architecture are certain pieces of masonry in the island of Sicily, as well as in some other places, called the works of the Cyclops, an ancient and fabulous race of giants, mentioned by Homer in his Odyssey. By whom these walls were actually erected is unknown.

Of the progressive steps from comparative rudeness to elegance of design, history affords no certain account, and we are often left to gather facts from merely casual notices. The most ancient nations known to us, among whom architecture had made some progress, were the Babylonians, whose most celebrated buildings were the temple of Belus, the palace and the hanging gardens of Semiramis; the Assyrians, whose capital, Nineveh, was rich in splendid buildings; the Phœnicians, whose cities, Sidon, Tyre, Aradus, and Sarepta, were adorned with equal magnificence; the Israelites, whose temple was considered as a wonder of architecture; the Syrians

and the Philistines. No architectural monument of these nations has, however, been transmitted to us; but we find subterraneous temples of the Hindoos, hewn out of the solid rock, upon the islands Elephanta and Salsetta, and in the mountains of Elora. These temples may be reckoned among the most stupendous ever executed by man. The circuit of the excavations is about six miles. The temples are 100 feet high, 145 feet long, and 62 feet wide. They contain thousands of figures, appearing, from the style of their sculpture, to be of ancient Hindoo origin. Every thing about them, in fact, indicates the most persevering industry in executing one of the boldest plans.

EGYPTIAN STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

All the architectural remains of ancient times sink into insignificance when compared with those of Egypt. The obelisks, pyramids, temples, palaces, and other structures of this country, are on the grandest scale, and such as could only have been perfected by a people considerably advanced in refinement. The elementary features of Egyptian architecture were chiefly as follows: 1. Their walls were of great thickness, and sloping on the outside. This feature is supposed to have been derived from the mud walls, mounds, and caverns of their ancestors. 2. The roofs and covered ways were flat, or without pediments, and composed of blocks of stone, reaching from one wall or column to another. The principle of the arch, although known to the Egyptians, was seldom if ever employed. 3. Their columns were numerous, close, short, and very large, being sometimes ten or twelve feet in diameter. They were generally without bases, and had a great variety of capitals, from a simple square block, ornamented with hieroglyphics or faces, to an elaborate composition of palm-leaves, not unlike the Corinthian capital. 4. They used a sort of concave entablature or cornice, composed of vertical flutings or leaves, and a winged globe in the center. 5. Pyramids, well known for their prodigious size, and obelisks, composed of a single stone, often exceeding seventy feet in height, are structures peculiarly Egyptian. 6. Statues of enormous size, sphinxes carved in stone, and sculptures in outline of fabulous deities and animals, with innumerable hieroglyphics, are the decorative objects which belong to this style of architecture.

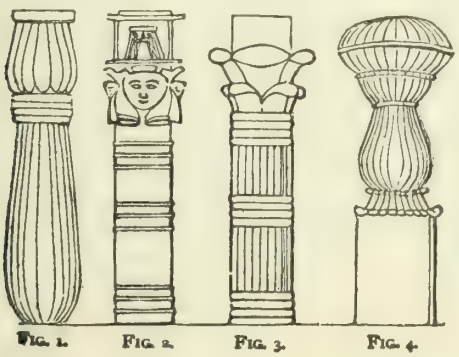


Fig. 1. Fig. 2. Fig. 3. Fig. 4.

The main character of Egyptian architecture is that of great strength with irregularity of taste. This is observable in the pillars of the temples, the parts on which the greatest share of skill has been lavished. The preceding figures are examples.

In these columns we may notice that sturdiness is the prevailing characteristic. The design has been the support of a great weight, and that without any particular regard to proportion or elegance, either as a whole or in parts. When assembled in rows or groups, the columns had an imposing effect, because, from their height and thickness, they filled the eye and induced the idea of placid and easy endurance. In Fig. 5, which represents the exterior of a temple, this simple and imposing character is conspicuous.

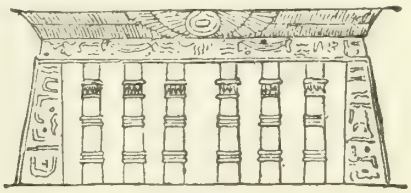


Fig. 5.

GRECIAN STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

From Egypt, the architectural art spread to Greece, where it passed from the gigantic to the chaste and elegant. The period in which it flourished in the greatest perfection was that of Pericles, about 440 before Christ, when some of the finest temples at Athens were erected. After this, it declined with other arts, and was carried to Rome, where, however, it never attained the same high character. Before describing the various orders of Grecian and Roman architecture, it will be advantageous to explain the terms ordinarily employed in reference to the component parts of buildings.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

The *front* or façade of a building, made after the ancient models, or any portion of it, may represent three parts, occupying different heights: The pedestal is the lower part, usually supporting a column; the single pedestal is wanting in most antique structures, and its place supplied by a *stylobate;* the stylobate is either a platform with steps, or a continuous pedestal, supporting a row of columns. The lower part of a finished pedestal is called the *plinth;* the middle part is the *die*, and the upper part the *cornice* of the pedestal, or *surbase.* The *column* is the middle part, situated upon the pedestal or stylobate. It is commonly detached from the wall, but is sometimes buried in it for half its diameter, and is then said to be engaged. *Pilasters* are square or flat columns attached to walls. The lower part of a column, when distinct, is called the base; the middle, or longest part, is the shaft; and the upper or ornamented part, is the capital. The swell of the column is called the *entasis.* The height of columns is measured in diameters of the column itself, taken always at the base. The *entablature* is the horizontal continuous portion which rests upon the top of a row of columns. The lower part

of the entablature is called the *architrave* or *epistylium*. The middle part is the *frieze*, which, from its usually containing sculpture, was called *zophorus* by the ancients. The upper or projecting part is the cornice. A *pediment* is the triangular face produced by the extremity of a roof. The middle or flat portion inclosed by the cornice of the pediment is called the *tympanum*. Pedestals for statues, erected on the summit and extremities of a pediment, are called *acroteria*. An *attic* is an upper part of a building, terminated at top by a horizontal line instead of a pediment. The different mouldings in architecture are described from their sections, or from the profile which they present when cut across. Of these, the *torus* is a convex moulding, the section of which is a semi-circle, or nearly so; the *astragal* is like the torus, but smaller; the *ovalo* is convex, but its outline is only the quarter of a circle; the *echinus* resembles the ovalo, but its outline is spiral, not circular; the *scotia* is a deep concave moulding; the *cavetto* is also a concave, and occupying but a quarter of a circle; the *cymatium* is an undulated moulding, of which the upper part is concave and the lower convex; the *ogee* or *talon* is an inverted cymatium; the *fillet* is a small square or flat moulding. In architectural measurement, a diameter means the width of a column at the base. A module is half a diameter. A minute is a sixtieth part of a diameter.

In representing edifices by drawings, architects make use of the plan, elevation, section, and perspective. The plan is a map or design of a horizontal surface, showing the ichnographic projection, or groundwork, with the relative position of walls, columns, doors, etc. The elevation is the orthographic projection of a front or vertical surface; this being represented, not as it is actually seen in perspective, but as it would appear if seen from an infinite distance. The section shows the interior of a building, supposing the part in front of an intersecting plane to be removed. The perspective shows the building as it actually appears to the eye, subject to the laws of scenographic perspective. The three former are used by architects for purposes of admeasurement; the latter is used also by painters, and is capable of bringing more than one side into the same view, as the eye actually perceives them. As the most approved features in modern architecture are derived from buildings which are more or less ancient, and as many of these buildings are now in too dilapidated a state to be easily copied, recourse is had to such initiative restorations, in drawings and models, as can be made out from the fragments and ruins which remain. In consequence of the known simplicity and regularity of most antique edifices, the task of restoration is less difficult than might be supposed. The groundwork, which is commonly extant, shows the length and breadth of the building, with the position of its walls, doors, and columns. A single column, whether standing or fallen, and a fragment of the entablature, furnish data from which the remainder of the colonnade, and the height of the main body, can be made out.

Grecian temples are well known to have been constructed in the form of an oblong square or parallelogram, having a *colonnade* or row of columns without, and a walled *cell* within. The part of the colonnade which formed the front portico was called the *pronaos*, and that which formed the back part the *posticus*. There were, however, various kinds of temples, the styles of which differed; thus, the *prostyle* had a row of columns at one end only; the *amphiprostyle* had a row at each end; the *peripteral* had a row all round, with two inner ones at each end; and the *dipteral* had a double row all round, with two inner ones at each end, making the front three columns deep.

The theater of the Greeks which was afterward copied by the Romans, was built in the form of a horseshoe, being semicircular on one side and square on the other. The semicircular part, which contained the audience, was filled with concentric seats, ascending from the center to the outside. In the middle or bottom was a semicircular floor, called the *orchestra*. The opposite, or square part, contained the actors. Within this was erected, in front of the audience, a wall, ornamented with columns and sculpture, called the *scena*. The stage or floor between this part and the orchestra was called the *proscenium*. Upon this floor was often erected a movable wooden stage, called by the Romans *pulpitum*. The ancient theater was open to the sky, but a temporary awning was erected to shelter the audience from the sun and rain.

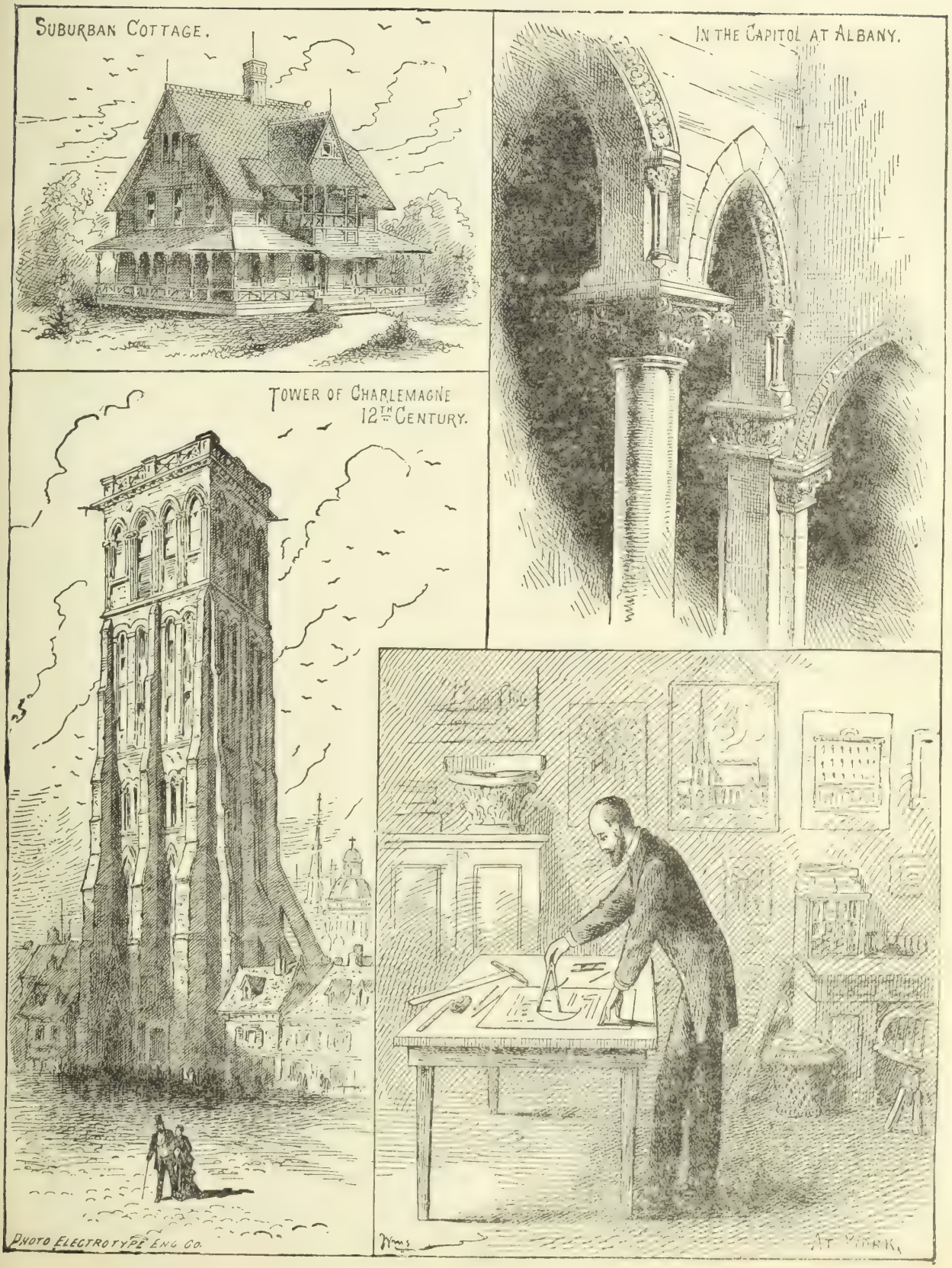
ORDERS.

Aided, doubtless, by the examples of Egyptian art, the Greeks gradually improved the style of architecture, and originated those distinctions which are now called the "Orders of Architecture." By this phrase is understood certain modes of proportioning and decorating the column and its entablature. They were in use during the best days of Greece and Rome, for a period of six or seven centuries. They were lost sight of in the dark ages, and again revived by the Italians at the time of the restoration of letters. The Greeks had three orders, called the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthan. These were adopted and modified by the Romans, who also added two others called the Tuscan and Composite.

The Doric Order.—This is the earliest of the Greek orders, and we see in it a noble simplicity on which subsequent orders were founded. One of the most correct examples is that given in Fig. 6. The shaft of the Doric column had no base, ornamental or otherwise, but rose directly from the smooth pavement or stylobate. It had twenty flutings, which were superficial, and separated by angular edges. The perpendicular outline was nearly straight. The Doric capital was plain, being formed of a few annulets or rings, a large echinus, and a flat stone at top called the *abacus*. The architrave was plain; the frieze was intersected by oblong projections called triglyphs, divided into three parts by vertical furrows, and ornamented beneath by *guttæ*, or drops. The spaces between the triglyphs were called *metopes* and commonly contained sculptures. To have a just idea of the Doric, therefore, we must go back to the pure Grecian era. The finest examples are those of the temple of Theseus and the Parthenon (Fig. 7) at Athens. The Parthenon, which is now a complete ruin, has formed a model in modern architecture. It was built by the architect Ictinus, during the administration of Pericles, and its decorative sculp-



Fig. 6.


SUBURBAN COTTAGE.
IN THE CAPITOL AT ALBANY.
TOWER OF CHARLEMAGNE
12TH CENTURY.
PHOTO ELECTROTYPE ENG CO.
AT WORK.

tures are supposed to have been executed under direction of Phidias. The platform or stylobate consists of three steps, the uppermost of which is 227 feet in length and 101 in breadth. The number of columns is eight in the portico of each front, and seventeen in each flank, besides which there is an inner row of six columns, at each end of the cell.

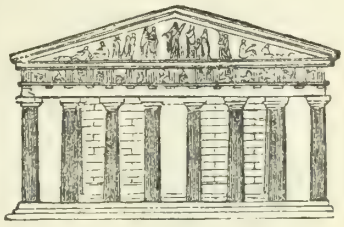


FIG. 7.—Facade of the Parthenon.

The Ionic Order.—In this order the shaft begins to lengthen, and to possess a degree of ornament, but still preserving a great degree of simplicity of outline. In the best examples, as represented in Fig. 8, the column was eight or nine diameters in height. It had a base often composed of a torus, a scotia, and a second torus, with intervening fillets. This is called the Attic base. Others were used in different parts of Greece. The capital of this order consisted of two parallel double scrolls, called volutes, occupying opposite sides, and supporting an abacus, which was nearly square, but moulded at its edges. These volutes have been considered as copied from ringlets of hair, or perhaps from the horns of Jupiter Ammon. The Ionic entablature consisted of an architrave and frieze, which were continuous or unbroken, and a cornice of various successive mouldings, at the lower part of which was often a row of dentels, or square teeth. The examples at Athens of the Ionic order were the temple of Erectheus, and the temple on the Ilissus, both now destroyed. Modern imitations are common in public edifices.



FIG. 8.

The Corinthian order.—This was the lightest and most highly decorated of the Grecian orders. The base of the column resembled that of the Ionic, but was more complicated. The shaft was often ten diameters in height, and was fluted like the Ionic. The capital was shaped like an inverted bell, and covered on the outside with two rows of leaves of the plant acanthus, above which were eight pairs of small volutes. Its abacus was moulded and concave on its sides, and truncated at the corners, with a flower on the center of each side. The entablature of the Corinthian order resembled that of the Ionic, but was more complicated and ornamented, and had, under the cornice, a row of large oblong projections, bearing a leaf or scroll on their under side, and called *modillions*. No vestiges of this order are now found in the remains of Corinth, and the most legitimate example at Athens is in the choragic monument of Lysicrates. The Corinthian order was much employed in the subsequent structures of Rome and its colonies. The finest Roman example of this order is that of three columns in the Campo Vaccina, at Rome, which are commonly considered as the remains of the temple of Jupiter Stator.



FIG. 9.

Caryatides.—The Greeks sometimes departed so far from the strict use of the orders as to introduce statues, in the place of columns, to support the entablature. Statues of slaves, heroes, and gods, appear to have been employed occasionally for this purpose. The principal specimen of this kind of architecture which remains, is in a portico called Pandroseum, attached to the temple of Erectheus at Athens, in which statues of Carian females, called Caryatides, are substituted for columns.

ROMAN STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

Roman architecture possessed no originality of any value; it was founded on copies of the Greek models, and these were modified to suit circumstances and tastes. The number of orders was augmented by the addition of the Tuscan and Composite.

Tuscan order.—This order is not unlike the Doric, and is chaste and elegant. As represented in Fig. 10, the shaft had a simple base, ornamented with one torus, and an astragal below the capital. The proportions were seven diameters in height. Its entablature, somewhat like the Ionic, consisted of plain running surfaces.

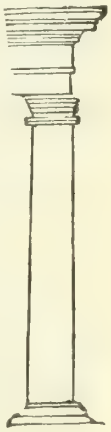


FIG. 10.

The Composite order.—Of this there were various kinds, differing less or more either in the ornaments of the column or in the entablature. The simplest of this hybrid order was that which we represent in Fig. 11, which may be observed to combine parts and proportions of the Doric, the Ionic, and the Tuscan.

The temples of the Romans sometimes resembled those of the Greeks, but often differed from them. The Pantheon, which is the most perfectly preserved temple of the Augustan age, is a circular building, lighted only from an aperture in the dome, and having a Corinthian portico in front. The amphitheater differed from the theater, in being a completely circular or rather elliptical building, filled on all sides with ascending seats for spectators, and leaving only the central space, called the *arena*, for the combatants and public shows. The Coliseum is a stupendous structure of this kind. The aqueducts were stone canals, supported on massive arcades, and conveying large streams of water for the supply of cities. The triumphal arches were commonly solid oblong structures ornamented with sculptures, and open with lofty arches for passengers below. The edifice of this kind most entire in the present day is the triumphal arch of Constantine, at Rome, represented in Fig. 13.

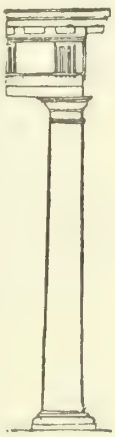


FIG. 11.



FIG. 12.

The *basilica* of the Romans was a hall of justice, used also as an exchange or place of meeting for merchants. It was lined on the inside with colonnades of two stories, or with two tiers of columns, one over the other. The earliest Christian churches at Rome were sometimes called *basilicæ*, from their possessing an internal colonnade. The monumental pillars were towers in the shape of a column on a pedestal, bearing a statue on the summit, which was approached by a spiral staircase within. Sometimes, however, the column was solid. The *thermæ*, or baths, were vast structures, in which multitudes of people could bathe at once. They were supplied with warm and cold water and fitted up with numerous rooms for purposes of exercise and recreation.



FIG. 13.

ITALIAN STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

After the dismemberment of the Roman empire, the arts degenerated so far that a custom became prevalent of erecting new buildings with the fragments of old ones, which were dilapidated and torn down for the purpose. This gave rise to an irregular style of building, which continued to be imitated, especially in Italy, during the dark ages. It consisted of Grecian and Roman details, combined under new forms, and piled up into structures wholly unlike the unique originals. Hence the names Græco-Gothic and Romanesque architecture have been given to it. After this came the *Italian style*, which was professedly a revival of the classic styles of Greece and Rome, but adopted to new manners and wants—a kind of transition from ancient to modern times. Its great master was Andrea Palladio, a Venetian (born 1518—died 1580).

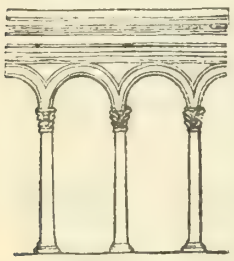


FIG. 14.

There is considerable variety and beauty in the foliate and other enrichments of an architectural character in many structures in Italy, but very little ornament enters into the columnar composition of Italian architecture. Friezes, iustead of being sculptured, are swollen ; the shafts of columns are very seldom fluted, and their capitals are generally poor in the extreme ; mouldings are indeed sometimes carved, but not often ; rustic masonry ill-formed festoons, and gouty balustrades, for the most part supply the place of chaste and classic ornaments.

THE CHINESE STYLE.

The ancient Tartars and wandering shepherds of Asia appear to have lived from time immemorial in tents, a kind of habitation adapted to their erratic life. The Chinese have made the tent the elementary feature of their architecture ; and of their style any one may form an idea, by inspecting the figures which are depicted upon common China ware. Chinese roofs are concave on the upper side, as if made of canvas instead of wood. A Chinese portico is not unlike the awnings spread over shop windows in summer time. The veranda, sometimes copied in dwelling-houses, is a structure of this sort. The Chinese towers and pagodas have concave roofs, like awnings, projecting over their several stories. A representation of this barbaric style of erection is given in Fig. 15. Such structures are built with wood or brick ; stone is seldom employed.

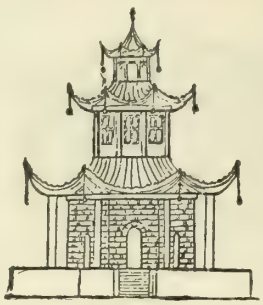


FIG. 15.

THE SARACENIC, MOORISH, AND BYZANTINE STYLES.

The Arabs, or Saracens, as they are more usually called, and the Moors, introduced into Spain certain forms of architecture which differed considerably from the Grecian in appearance, though founded on its remains in Asia and Africa. The chief peculiarity of this architecture was the form of the arch ; the Saracens are understood to have made it of greater depth than width, thus constituting more than half a circle or ellipse, and therefore unphilosophical and comparatively insecure (Fig. 16) ; while the Moorish style was principally distinguished by arches in the form of a horse-shoe or a crescent.

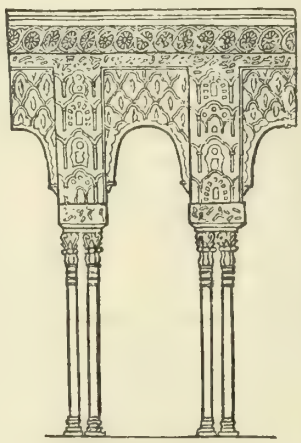


FIG. 16.

We associate with these styles another, which arose at Constantinople, called the Byzantine, likewise formed on the remains of Grecian art, and partaking of a slightly Eastern character. It became known in western Europe along with the Lombard, another degenerate Grecian style, about the ninth and tenth centuries.

SAXON STYLE.

This style commenced at the establishment of Christianity among the Saxons in the sixth century, and is called Saxon, from its having prevailed during the reigns of the Saxon and Norman kings in England.

GOTHIC OR POINTED STYLE.

The term Gothic is a modern error, which, being now impossible to correct, is suffered to remain as the generally distinguishing appellation of the kind of architecture possessing pointed arches. This style originated in Germany about the

middle of the thirteenth century, and was zealously pursued as the leading fashion for ecclesiastical structures all over Europe. Executed by a class of skilled artisans, who wandered from country to country, the finest specimens of the pointed style are the cathedrals of Strasburg, Cologne, and Antwerp, and the splendid abbeys of Melrose and Westminster.

In this fanciful and picturesque style of architecture, the slender columns, always united in groups, rise to a lofty height, resembling the giants of the grove, in whose dark shade the ancient Teuton used to build his altar. In the obscure depth of the dome, the mind is awakened to solemn devotional feelings.

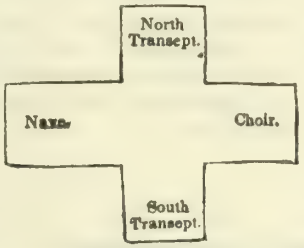
When the circular arch totally disappeared in 1220, the early English style commenced. The windows of this style were at first very narrow in comparison with their height; they were called lancet-shaped, and were considered very elegant; two or three were frequently seen together, connected by dripstones. In a short time, however, the windows became wider, and divisions and ornaments were introduced. Sometimes the same window was divided into several lights, and frequently finished at the top by a light in the form of a lozenge, circle, trefoil, or other ornament.

About the year 1300, the architecture became more ornamental, and from this circumstance received the name of the decorated English style, which is considered the most beautiful for ecclesiastical buildings.

The transition from the decorated to the florid or perpendicular style was very gradual. Ornament after ornament was added, till simplicity disappeared beneath the extravagant additions; and about the year 1380, the architecture became so overloaded and profuse, that it obtained the title of florid, which by some persons is called the perpendicular, because the lines of division run in upright or perpendicular lines from top to bottom, which is not the case in any other style.

DEFINITIONS OF PARTS.

Gothic architecture being for the most part displayed in ecclesiastical edifices, it may be of service to explain the usual plan of construction of these buildings. A church or cathedral is commonly built in the form of a cross, having a tower, lantern, or spire, erected over the place of intersection. The part of the cross situated toward the west is called the *nave*. The opposite or eastward part is called the *choir*, and within this is the *chancel*. The transverse portion, forming the arms of the cross, is called the *transept*, one limb being called the northern and the other the southern transept.



Generally, the nave is larger than the choir. If the nave, choir, and transepts be all of the same dimensions the form is that of a Greek cross. When the nave is longer than the other parts, forming a cross of an ordinary shape, the edifice is said to be in the form of a Latin cross. The different open parts usually receive the name of *ailes* or *aisles* from a word signifying a wing; the nave or largest open space is called the main aisle. Originally, the floors of all such edifices were open and unencumbered with fixed pews or seats, and as the floors were ordinarily of mosaic or tesselated pavement, the effect was exceedingly grand.

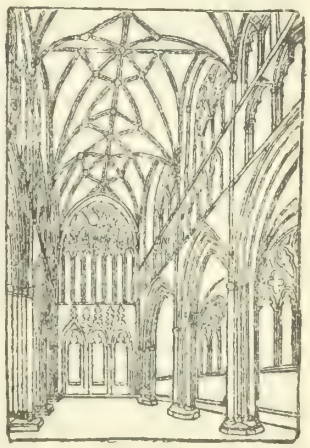


Fig. 17

The roofing of Gothic churches is of stone, in the form of *groins*, in which the arches are poised with intersecting points, and the whole skillfully adjusted so as to bear on the side rows of pillars. Any high building erected above the roof is called a *steeple*; if square topped, it is a *tower*; if long and acute, a *spire*; and if short and light, a *lantern*. Towers of great height in proportion to their diameter are called *turrets*.

The walls of Gothic churches, on which the outer strain of the roof arches ultimately rests, require to be of great strength; and the imparting this necessary degree of resistance without clumsiness is the glory of this style of architecture. The plan adopted is to erect exterior *buttresses* (Fig. 18). These rise by gradations from a broad basis to narrow pointed *pinnacles*, and placed opposite the points of pressure, secure, without the slightest appearance of clumsiness, the general stability of the building. Slanting braces, which spring from the buttresses to the upper part of the roof, are called *flying* buttresses; such, however, are not always required in those modern edifices in which the roof is of wood and lead.

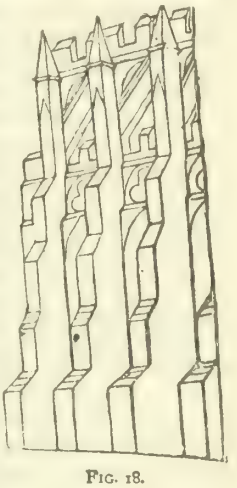


Fig. 18.

The summit or upper edge of the wall, if straight, is called a *parapet*; if indented, a *battlement*. Gothic windows were commonly crowned with an acute arch; they were long and narrow, or, if wide, were divided into perpendicular lights by *mullions*. The lateral spaces on the upper and outer side of the arch are *spandrelles*; and the ornaments in the top, collectively taken, are the *tracery*. An *oriel*, or *bay window*, is a window which projects from the general surface of the wall. A *wheel*, or *rose window*, is large and circular. A *corbel* is a bracket or short projection from a wall, serving to sustain a statue or the springing of an arch. The Gothic term *gable* indicates the erect end of a roof, and answers to the Grecian pediment, but is more acute.

NORMAN, TUDOR, AND MODERN GOTHIC.

Throughout England may be seen many aged castles, some

still in a state of good preservation, but the greater number in ruins, and occupying, with their picturesque remains, the summit of a rising ground or rocky precipice. These castles are of a style which prevailed during the feudal ages in Europe, and was brought to this country by the Normans, who erected them as fastnesses, into which they might retire and oppress the country at pleasure.

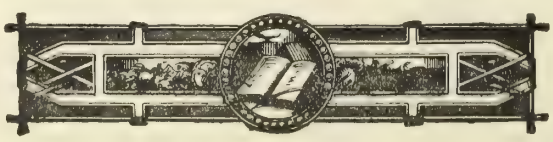
The feudal castles in England, like those on the Rhine, consisted for the most part of a single strong tower or keep, the walls of which were from six to ten feet thick, and the windows only holes of one or two feet square, placed at irregular intervals. The several floors were built on arches, and the roof was flat or battlemented, with notches in the parapet, from which the inhabitants or retainers of the chieftain might defend themselves with instruments of war. The accommodations for living were generally mean, and what would now be called uncomfortable. Around or in front of the main tower there was usually a court-yard, protected by a high wall, and the arched entrance was carefully secured by a falling gate or portcullis. Outside, there was in many cases a regular wet ditch or fosse. Castles of greater magnitude consisted of two or more towers and inner buildings, including a chapel and offices for domestics, and stables for horses and other animals. Some of them were on a great scale, and possessed considerable grandeur of design.

As society advanced and civil tranquillity was established, these military strengths gradually assumed a character of greater elegance and less the appearance of defense. The wet ditch disappeared, and was superseded by a lawn or shrubbery. Instead of the draw-bridge and portcullis, there was a regular approach and gate of ordinary construction. The windows became larger, and were fitted with glass frames, and stone was abandoned for the greater comfort of wooden floors. Instead, also, of a bare region around, in which no foe might lurk, gardens were established, and a long avenue of trees led to the front of the modernized mansion. In some instances, the pepper-box turrets at the upper corners of the building remained. Of the class of structures that sprung up in this period of transition, which we may refer in England to the fifteenth and sixteenth, and in Scotland to the seventeenth centuries, there are several highly interesting remains. These edifices of the nobility and gentry were no longer called castles; they took the name of *halls*, and as such had attained so great a pitch of magnificence in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, as to have subsequently given a name to a new style—the *Tudor* or *Elizabethan*. Latterly, and with no very distinct reference to any particular period, this remarkable fashion of building has been pretty generally called the *old English* style of architecture. One of the best existing specimens of the Tudor era of architecture is Haddon Hall in Derbyshire, the property of the Duke of Rutland.

MODERN BRITISH ARCHITECTURE.

During the sixteenth century, an extraordinary effort was made in Italy to restore the purity of Grecian architecture; and in this attempt Palladio was followed by the not less eminent Michael Angelo Buonarotti, who, at an advanced age, in 1546, undertook the continuation of the building of St. Peter's at Rome, a work on which the greatest splendors of the Italian style are lavished. Into England, this revived taste for the Grecian was introduced at the beginning of the seventeenth century by Inigo Jones, to whose contemptuous observations on the German or pointed style the term *Gothic* has been traced; and after his decease, the Grecian, or more properly the Italianized Grecian, was perpetuated on a scale still more extensive by Sir Christopher Wren. The edifices erected by this great master are characterized by the finest taste, and his spires in particular are models of elegance. The greatest work of Wren was St. Paul's Cathedral in London, in which the Italian is seen in all its glory.

The eighteenth century was an era of decline in architectural taste. Every other style merged in that of a spiritless and often mean Græco-Italian, out of which the architects of the nineteenth century have apparently had a difficulty to emerge. Latterly, there has been a revival in England of a purer kind of Grecian, and also, as we have already said, of old English, and the Gothic or pointed style, and in most instances with good effect. It is only to be lamented that, by the manner in which state patronage is distributed in this branch of the fine arts, some of the largest and most expensive structures—Buckingham Palace and the National Gallery, for example—have been erected on the poorest conceptions of the Grecian style, and with a general effect far from pleasing. In Paris, there now exist some modern structures after correct Grecian models, which cannot be too highly praised; we would, in particular, instance the building called the Madeleine, the Bourse, and the interior of the church of St. Genevieve, which are exceedingly worthy of being visited by young and aspiring architects from Britain. Of the superb buildings springing up on all sides of this vast continent, it is unnecessary to speak. While those already in existence, notably in Washington, are admirable copies of the great Greek and Roman periods, the so-called Queen Anne is now the especial craze.



FRENCH SELF-TAUGHT.

WHY NOT TEACH YOURSELF FRENCH?

Alphabet and Pronunciation.

As many languages as a man knows, so many times is he a man. This system of self-teaching has been devised for the purpose of inducting the beginner methodically. He has but to apply himself, and the language will come to him by delightfully imperceptible degrees. Let him try it at all events!

The French Alphabet consists of twenty-five letters, as follows:

French Alphabet.	Name.	Pronunciation.
A a	ah	is pronounced like *a* in the English word "father."
B b	bay	as in English.
C c	say	*c* before *e* and *i*, is pronounced like *s*; before *a*, *o*, *u*, and before a consonant *c* sounds like *k*.
D d	day	as in English.
E e	ai	*e*, *è*, *ai*, *ei*, are pronounced like *a* in the English word *care*.
F f	eff	as in English.
G g	jay	before *e* and *i* it sounds like *j*.
H h	aash	is generally silent.
I i	ee	pronounced like *e* in the English word *me*.
J j	jee	is pronounced like *s* in the word *pleasure*.
K k	kah	as in English.
L l	el	as in English.
M m	m	as in English.
N n	n	as in English.
O o	o	*o*, *au*, *eau*, are pronounced like *o*.
P p	pay	like the English, but is often mute at the end of words.
Q q	ku	is pronounced like *k*.
R r	air	is like the English *r* in *run*.
S s	ess	sounds like the English *s*, sometimes like *z*.
T t	tay	is like the *t* in the English word *tent*.
U u	eeyu	is pronounced like "*eeyu*;" it must be heard from a Frenchman. *Eu*, *oeu*, are pronounced like *u* in *much*.
V v	vay	is like the English *v*.
X x	eeks	is pronounced as in English.
Y y	egrec	is pronounced like *e* in the English word *me*.
Z z	zed	is pronounced like a soft *s*.

ACCENTS.

The French language has three accents; the acute, thus *é*; the grave, thus *è*; and the circumflex, *ê*. The *circumflex* accent simply denotes the elision of a silent (generally an "*s*") after it, thus *tête*, originally written *teste*; *dépôt* for *depost*, etc. The acute and grave accents belong exclusively to the letter "*e*"; an accented *e* must have the *acute* accent, if at the end of word, as *café*; or followed by a pronounced syllable, as *métal*; a *grave* accent when followed by a silent syllable, as *mère*, *lièvre*.

The grave accent is used on the *a* of the adverb *là* (*there* and its compounds *voilà*, etc.; but it is thus employed merely to distinguish it from the article *la* (*the*), and not for any effect in pronunciation.

VOWELS.

The pronunciation of the following vowels requires most care:

ou, is pronounced like *oo* in the English word *look*.

o, *au*, *eau*, are pronounced like *o*.

a, is pronounced like *a* in the word *father*.

e is pronounced like *e* in the word *better*. Before *mm* or *nn*, it is pronounced like ah; as *femme*, pronounced *fahm*; *solennel*, *solahnell*, etc.

u is the most difficult letter to pronounce, for there is no corresponding sound in the English language; it sounds like the German *ü*, like *eeyu*, and it ought to be carefully imitated from a French person.

eu, *œu*, are pronounced like *u* in the English word *much*.

é, *è*, *ai*, *ei*, are pronounced like *a* in the English word *care*.

i, *y*, are pronounced like *e* in the English word *me*.

The nasal sounds, *am*, *an*, *em*, *en*, *un*, *oin*, are equally difficult to pronounce, and these ought to be heard and imitated from a Frenchman.

RULE.

As every educated person knows French, those who study without a master, ought, when an opportunity occurs, to ask the pronunciation of a difficult word; by such means, the learner will arrive at the correct pronunciation, which no description in words is capable of conveying.

VOCABULARY.

The definite Article is "*le*" before a masculine noun, and "*la*" before a feminine noun; they are both written "*l'*" before a noun commencing with a vowel or silent "*h.*" The indefinite Article is "*un*" masculine, and "*une*" feminine.

The Universe.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
God	*Dieu*	Deeyu
the world	*le monde*	leh maund
the sky	*le ciel*	leh seeyel
the sun	*le soleil*	leh sohleyl
the moon	*la lune*	lah lune
a star	*une étoile*	une aitoahl
the air	*l'air*	l'air
the earth	*la terre*	lah tayr
the water	*l'eau*	l'o
the fire	*le feu*	leh feuh
the sea	*la mer*	lah mare
an island	*une île*	une eel
a lake	*un lac*	ung lahc
a stream	*un fleuve*	ung fleuhv
a river	*une rivière*	une reeveeare
the animals	*les animaux*	laiz aneemo
the metals	*les métaux*	lai maito
the gold	*l'or*	l'orr
the silver	*l'argent*	l'arjang
the iron	*le fer*	leh fayr
the steel	*l'acier*	l'asseay
the copper	*le cuivre*	leh cweevr
the tin	*l'étain*	l'aitang

Man and the Parts of the body.

man	*l'homme*	l'omm
the body	*le corps*	leh cor
the head	*la tête*	lah tait
the face	*le visage*	leh veesaje
the forehead	*le front*	leh frong
the eye	*l'œil*	l'ile
the eyes	*les ⌒yeux*	laiz eeyeu
the nose	*le nez*	leh nay
the ears	*les oreilles*	laiz ohraill
the chin	*le menton*	leh mauntong
the beard	*la barbe*	lah barb
the mouth	*la bouche*	lah boosh
the lips	*les lèvres*	lai layvr
the tooth	*la dent*	lah dong
the tongue	*la langue*	lah laungh
the neck	*le cou*	leh coo
the shoulders	*les ⌒épaules*	laiz aipole
the arm	*le bras*	leh brah
the hand	*la main*	lah mang
the fingers	*les doigts*	lai dcuah
the nails	*les ⌒ongles*	laiz aungl
the chest	*la poitrine*	lah pouahtreen
the heart	*le cœur*	leh keuhr
the knee	*le genou*	leh jenoo
the leg	*la jambe*	lah jahmb
the foot	*le pied*	leh peeay
the bones	*les ⌒os*	laiz o

Food and Drink.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
the bread	*le pain*	leh pang
the flour	*la farine*	lah fareen
meat	*de la viande*	de la veeaund
roast meat	*du rôti*	du rotee
beef	*du bœuf*	du beuhf
veal	*du veau*	du vo
mutton	*du mouton*	du mootong
lamb	*de l'agneau*	deh l'anyo
pork	*du porc*	du pork
bacon	*du lard*	du lar
ham	*du jambon*	du jahmbong
the soup	*la soupe*	lah soop
rice	*du riz*	du ree
eggs	*des ⌒œufs*	daiz euh
salad	*de la salade*	deh lah salade
mustard	*de la moutarde*	deh lah mootard
salt	*du sel*	du sel
oil	*de l'huile*	deh l'weel
vinegar	*du vinaigre*	du veenaigr
pepper	*du poivre*	du pouahvr
butter	*du beurre*	du beuhr
cheese	*du fromage*	du fromahje
the breakfast	*le déjeuner*	leh dayjeuhnai
the dinner	*le dîner*	leh deenai
the supper	*le souper*	leh soopai
hunger	*la faim*	la fahng
thirst	*la soif*	lah souaf
water	*de l'eau*	deh l'o
wine	*du vin*	du vang
beer	*de la bière*	deh lah beeair
milk	*du lait*	du lay
tea	*du thé*	du tay
gin	*du genièvre*	du jenyavr
brandy	*de l'eau de vie*	deh lo deh vee

The Dress.

a coat	*un surtout*	ung syuretoo
a cloak	*un manteau*	ung maunto
a waistcoat	*un gilet*	ung jeelay
the trousers	*la culotte*	la kyulot
the braces	*les bretelles*	lai bretell
the cap	*le bonnet*	leh bonnay
the hat	*le chapeau*	leh shapo
the comb	*le peigne*	leh peine
gloves	*des gants*	dai gang
a ring	*une bague*	une baag
a watch	*une montre*	une mongtre
the stocking	*le bas*	leh bah
the boots	*les bottes*	lai bot
the bootjack	*le tire-botte*	leh teer bot
the slippers	*les pantoufles*	lai pauntoofl
the shoes	*les souliers*	lai soolyai
a shirt	*une chemise*	une shemeeze
a pocket handkerchief	*un mouchoir*	ung mooshouah
the clothes brush	*la brosse*	lah bross
the umbrella	*le parapluie*	leh paraplwee
the parasol	*le parasol*	leh parasol

House Utensils.

a table	*une table*	une tahbl
a chair	*une chaise*	une shayse
an arm-chair	*un fauteuil*	ung fotayle
a looking-glass	*un miroir*	ung meerouahr
a clock	*une horloge*	une orloje
a trunk	*un coffre*	ung cofr
a box	*une boîte*	une bouahr
the bed	*le lit*	leh lee

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
the counterpane	*la couverture*	lah coovairtyure
a pillow	*un oreiller*	un oraylyai
the sheets	*les draps de lit*	lai drah deh lee
the mattress	*le matelas*	leh matlah
the plate	*l'assiette*	l'assyet
the candlestick	*un chandelier*	ung shaundelyai
the lamp	*une lampe*	une laump
a spoon	*une cuiller*	une cweelyair
a fork	*une fourchette*	und forrshet
a knife	*un couteau*	ung cooto
a cup	*une tasse*	une tass
a saucer	*la soucoupe*	lah soocoop
the tablecloth	*la nappe*	lah nap
the towel	*un essuie-main*	ung esswee mang
a glass	*un verre*	ung vair
the tea-pot	*la théière*	lah taiyare

Relations.

the family	*la famille*	lah fameel
the husband	*le mari*	leh maree
the wife	*la femme*	lah fam
the father	*le père*	leh pare
the mother	*la mère*	lah mare
the child	*l'enfant*	l'ongfong
the son	*le fils*	leh feess
the daughter	*la fille*	lah feel
the brother	*le frère*	leh frare
the sister	*la sœur*	lah seuhr
the uncle	*l'oncle*	l'oncle
the aunt	*la tante*	lah taunte
the cousin	*le cousin*	leh coosang
the marriage	*le mariage*	leh mareeahje

Occupations.

an occupation	*un métier*	ung maytyai
a workman	*un artisan*	ung arteesong
a baker	*un boulanger*	ung boolongjai
a miller	*un meunier*	ung meuhnyai
a butcher	*un boucher*	ung booshai
a brewer	*un brasseur*	ung brasseuhr
a tailor	*un tailleur*	ung talyure
a shoemaker	*un cordonnier*	ung cordonyai
a smith	*un forgeron*	ung forjehrong
a saddler	*un sellier*	ung selyai
a carpenter	*un menuisier*	ung mennweesyai
a mason	*un maçon*	ung massong
a bookbinder	*un relieur*	ung relleeuhr

The Town.

the town	*la ville*	lah veel
the bridge	*le pont*	leh pong
the tower	*la tour*	lah toor
the gate	*la porte*	lah port
the street	*la rue*	lah ru
the market	*le marché*	leh marshay
the building	*le bâtiment*	leh bahteemong
the townhouse	*l'hôtel de ville*	l'otel deh veel
the theatre	*le théâtre*	leh tayahtr
the post-office	*la poste*	lah post
the church	*l'église*	l'aygleeze
the cathedral	*la cathédrale*	lah cataydral
the school	*l'école*	l'aycol
the prison	*la prison*	lah preesong
the exchange	*la bourse*	lah boorse
the palace	*le palais*	leh pallay
the hotel	*l'hôtel*	l'otel
the inn	*l'auberge*	l'obayrje
the public house	*le cabaret*	leh cabbaray
the coffee room	*le café*	leh caffay

The House.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
the house	*la maison*	lah maysong
the door	*la porte*	lah port
the lock	*la serrure*	lah serrure
the key	*la clef*	lah clay
the bell	*la sonnette*	lah sonnet
the staircase	*l'escalier*	l'escallyai
the drawing-room	*la salle*	lah sal
the dining-room	*la salle-à-manger*	lah sal-ah-monjai
the room	*la chambre*	lah shaumbr
the bed-room	*la chambre-à-coucher*	lah shaumbr-ah-coo shai
the window	*la fenêtre*	lah fennaitr
the wall	*la paroi*	lah pahrouah
the kitchen	*la cuisine*	lah cweezeen
the roof	*le toit*	leh touah
the cellar	*la cave*	lah caav
the garden	*le jardin*	leh jardang

Animals.

an animal	*un animal*	un aneemal
a horse	*un cheval*	ung sheval
a donkey	*un âne*	ung ahn
the dog	*le chien*	leh sheeang
the cat	*le chat*	leh shah
the rat	*le rat*	leh rah
the mouse	*la souris*	lah sooree
an ox	*un bœuf*	ung beuh
a cow	*une vache*	une vash
a calf	*un veau*	ung vo
a sheep	*une brebis*	une brebbee
a lamb	*un agneau*	un anyo
a pig	*un cochon*	un coshong
the hare	*le lièvre*	leh leeayvr
a monkey	*un singe*	ung sangj
a wolf	*un loup*	ung loo
a bear	*un ours*	un oors
a lion	*un lion*	ung leeong
an elephant	*un éléphant*	un aylayfong
a tiger	*un tigre*	ung teegr

Birds.

a bird	*un oiseau*	un woiso
a cock	*un coq*	un cock
a hen	*une poule*	une pool
a chicken	*un poulet*	ung poolay
a swan	*un cigne*	ung seen
a goose	*une oie*	une ouah
a duck	*un canard*	ung canar
a lark	*une alouette*	une allooet
a nightingale	*un rossignol*	ung rosseenyoi
the swallow	*l'hirondelle*	l'eerongdel
the sparrow	*le moineau*	leh mouano
the raven	*le corbeau*	leh corbo
the crow	*la corneille*	lah cornayl
the parrot	*le perroquet*	leh perrokay
the eagle	*l'aigle*	l'aygl

Fishes and Insects.

a fish	*un poisson*	ung pouassong
a pike	*un brochet*	ung broshay
a salmon	*un saumon*	ung somong
a carp	*une carpe*	une carp
an eel	*une anguille*	une onggheel
a trout	*un truite*	une trweet
a herring	*un hareng*	ung harrong
oysters	*des huîtres*	daiz weetr
a crab	*une écrevisse*	une aycreveece

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
a turtle	*une tortue*	une tortyu
a whale	*une baleine*	une ballayn
a serpent	*un serpent*	ung sairpong
a frog	*une grenouille*	une grenooeel
a worm	*un ver*	un vair
an insect	*un insecte*	un angsect
a spider	*une araignée*	une arraynyai
a moth	*une teigne*	ung taine
a fly	*une mouche*	une moosh
a gnat	*un moucheron*	ung moosherong
a bee	*une abeille*	une abbail
the honey	*le miel*	leh meeyel
a wasp	*une guêpe*	une gape
a butterfly	*un papillon*	ung pappillyong

Vegetables.

beans	*des fèves*	day faive
peas	*des pois*	dai pouah
cabbage	*des choux*	dai shoo
cauliflower	*des choux-fleurs*	dai shoo-fleuhr
carrots	*des betteraves*	dai betrahve
asparagus	*des asperges*	daiz aspairj
spinach	*des épinards*	daiz aipeenar
radishes	*des radis*	dai raddee
celery	*du céleri*	du selree
a melon	*un melon*	ung mellong
cucumber	*des concombres*	dai congcongbr

Trees and Flowers.

a tree	*un arbre*	un arbr
a branch	*une branche*	une braungsh
a leaf	*une feuille*	une file
an apple	*une pomme*	une pomm
a pear	*une poire*	une pouar
a plum	*une prune*	une pryun
a cherry	*une cerise*	une serreeze
a nut	*une noix*	une nouah
a currant	*de la groseille*	de lah grozale
a gooseberry	*de la groseille verte*	deh lah grozale verte
a strawberry	*une fraise*	une fraize
a chestnut	*un marron*	ung marrong
the oak-tree	*le chêne*	leh shane
the fir-tree	*le pin*	leh pang
the birch	*le boulvau*	leh boolo
the willow	*le saule*	leh sole
a flower	*une fleur*	une fleuhr
a rose	*une rose*	une rose
a pink	*un œillet*	un ileyai
a tulip	*une tulipe*	une tyuleep
a lily	*un lis*	ung lee
a violet	*une violette*	une veeolet
a bouquet	*un bouquet*	ung bookay

The School.

a school	*l'école*	l'aycol
the teacher	*le maître*	leh maytr
the book	*le livre*	leh leevr
the paper	*le papier*	leh papyai
a pen	*une plume*	une plyume
an inkstand	*une encrier*	un ongereeai
the ink	*l'encre*	l'ongkr
the pencil	*le crayon*	le crayong
a letter	*une lettre*	une lettr
an envelope	*une enveloppe*	une ongvellope

Time and Seasons.

the time	*le temps*	le tong
a minute	*la minute*	lah meenyute
an hour	*une heure*	une eur
a quarter of an hour	*un quart-d'heure*	ung kar d'eur
half an hour	*une demie-heure*	une demmy eur
the day	*le jour*	leh joor
the morning	*le matin*	leh mattang
noon	*le midi*	leh meedee
the afternoon	*l'après-midi*	l'apray meedee
the evening	*le soir*	leh souahr
the night	*la nuit*	lah nwee
a year	*un an*	un ong
a month	*un mois*	ung mouah
January	*janvier*	jongveeay
February	*février*	fayvreeay
March	*mars*	marse
April	*avril*	avreel
May	*mai*	may
June	*juin*	jyuang
July	*juillet*	jweelyai
August	*août*	oo
September	*septembre*	septaumbr
October	*octobre*	octobr
November	*novembre*	novaumbr
December	*décembre*	daysaumbr
a week	*une semaine*	une semmane
a fortnight	*quinze jours*	kanze joor
Monday	*lundi*	lungdee
Tuesday	*mardi*	mardee
Wednesday	*mercredi*	mayrcredee
Thursday	*jeudi*	jeuhdee
Friday	*vendredi*	vongdredee
Saturday	*samedi*	samdee
Sunday	*dimanche*	deemaunshe
spring	*le printemps*	leh prangtong
summer	*l'été*	l'aytay
autumn	*l'automne*	l'otonn
winter	*l'hiver*	l'eevare

The Country.

the country	*la campagne*	lah caumpaine
the village	*le village*	leh veelaj
the hut	*la cabane*	lah caban
the soil	*le sol*	leh sol
the meadow	*le pré*	leh pray
the barn	*la grange*	leh graunj
the mill	*le moulin*	leh moolang
the cattle	*le bétail*	leh baytale
the herds	*le troupeau*	leh troopo
the shepherd	*le berger*	leh bayrjay
the mountain	*la montagne*	lah montaine
the hill	*la colline*	la colleen
the dale	*la vallée*	lah vallay
the wood	*le bois*	leh bouah
the forest	*la forêt*	lah forray
the road	*le chemin*	leh shemmang
the high-road	*le grand-chemin*	leh grong shemmang
the rail-road	*le chemin de fer*	leh shemmang deh fare
a mile	*une mille*	une meel
the waterfall	*la cascade*	la cascad
the fisherman	*le pêcheur*	leh paysheur
the huntsman	*le chasseur*	leh shasseuhr

Nations.

an American	*un Américain*	un Amayreecang
a German	*un Allemand*	un Almaung
Germany	*l'Allemagne* f.	l'Almaine
a Dutchman	*un Hollandais*	ung Hollaunday
Holland	*la Hollande*	lah Hollaund
a Belgian	*un Belge*	ung Belj
Belgium	*la Belgique*	lah Beljeek

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
a Swiss	*un Suisse*	ung Sweess
Switzerland	*la Suisse*	lah Sweess
an Hungarian	*un Hongrois*	ung Hongrwah
Hungary	*la Hongrie*	la Hongree
an Englishman	*un Anglais*	un Aunglay
England	*l'Angleterre* f.	l'Aungltare
an Irishman	*un Irlandais*	un Eerlaunday
Ireland	*l'Irlande* f.	l'Eerlaund
a Scotchman	*un Ecossais*	un Aycossay
Scotland	*l'Ecosse* f.	l'Aycoss
a Dane	*un Danois*	ung Danouah
Denmark	*le Danemarc*	leh Danmark
a Swede	*un Suédois*	ung Swaydwah
Sweden	*la Suède*	lah Swayde
a Russian	*un Russe*	ung Russe
Russia	*la Russie*	lah Russee
a Spaniard	*un Espagnol*	un Espanyol
Spain	*l'Espagne* f.	l'Espaine
a Frenchman	*un Français*	ung Fraungsay
France	*la France*	lah Fraungse
an Italian	*un Italien*	un Eetalyang
Italy	*l'Italie* f.	l'Eetalee

Adjectives.

poor	*pauvre*	pohvr
rich	*riche*	reesh
clever	*prudent*	prudong
stupid	*stupide*	stupeed
sharp	*aigu*	aygu
blunt	*obtus*	obtu
clean	*propre*	propr
dirty	*sale*	saal
hard	*dur*	dure
soft	*mou*	moo
strong	*fort*	fore
weak	*faible*	fabl
well	*sain*	sang
ill	*malade*	mallad
lean	*maigre*	maygr
thick	*gros*	gro
fat	*gras*	gra
thin	*mince*	mangce
polite	*poli*	polee
impolite	*malhonnête*	mallonnate
false	*faux*	fo
deep	*profond*	profong
wide	*large*	larj
narrow	*étroit*	aytrouah
round	*rond*	rong
square	*carré*	carray
short	*court*	coor
long	*long*	long
flat	*plat*	pla
warm	*chaud*	sho
cold	*froid*	frouah
fresh	*frais*	fray
ripe	*mûr*	mure
dry	*sec*	sec
sour	*aigre*	aygr
sweet	*doux*	doo
bitter	*amer*	amare
hungry	*affamé*	affammay
thirsty	*altéré*	altayray
heavy	*pesant*	pezong
light	*léger*	layjai
wet	*humide*	umeed
content	*content*	congtong
happy	*heureux*	eureu
gay	*gai*	gay
sad	*triste*	treest
useful	*utile*	uteel

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
strange	*étrange*	aytraunj
pretty	*joli*	jolee
ugly	*laid*	lay
dark	*sombre*	sombr
open	*ouvert*	oovare
disagreeable	*désagréable*	dayzagrayabl
proud	*fier*	feeare
arrogant	*arrogant*	arrogong
cowardly	*lâche*	lahsh
courageous	*courageux*	coorrajeu
faithless	*perfide*	pairfeed
innocent	*innocent*	innosong

Verbs.

to eat	*manger*	maunjai
to drink	*boire*	bouahr
to be thirsty	*avoir soif*	avouahr souaf
to be hungry	*avoir faim*	avouahr fang
to breakfast	*déjeûner*	dayjeunai
to dine	*dîner*	deenai
to sup	*souper*	soopai
to lay the tablecloth	*mettre le couvert*	metr leh coovare
to serve	*servir*	sareveer
to carve	*trancher*	traunshai
to smoke	*fumer*	fumai
to sneeze	*éternuer*	aytairnuai
to cough	*tousser*	toossai
to think	*penser*	paungsai
to reflect	*réfléchir*	rayflaysheer
to speak	*parler*	parlai
to say	*dire*	deer
to repeat	*répéter*	raypaytai
to explain	*déclarer*	dayclarrai
to be quiet	*se taire*	seh tare
to chat	*causer*	cosay
to tell	*raconter*	raccongtai
to ask	*demander*	demaundai
to answer	*répondre*	raypongdr
to reply	*répliquer*	raypleekai
to be mistaken	*se tromper*	seh trompai
to object	*objecter*	objectai
to doubt	*douter*	dootai
to affirm	*affirmer*	affeermai
to prove	*prouver*	proovai
to assure	*assurer*	assurai
to deny	*nier*	neeai
to maintain	*soutenir*	sooteneer
to dispute	*disputer*	disputai
to consent	*consentir*	congsaunteer
to approve	*approuver*	approovai
to praise	*louer*	looai
to admire	*admirer*	admeerai
to blame	*blâmer*	blahmai
to believe	*croire*	crouahr
to know	*savoir*	savouahr
not to know	*ignorer*	eenyorai
to imagine	*imaginer*	eemajeenai
to compare	*comparer*	compahrai
to imitate	*imiter*	eemeetai
to forget	*oublier*	oobleeai
to remember	*se souvenir*	seh soovenneer
to wish, to will	*vouloir*	voulouahr
to desire	*désirer*	dayseerai
to wish	*souhaiter*	sooaytai
to love	*aimer*	aimai
to flatter	*flatter*	flattai
to embrace	*embrasser*	aumbrassai
to hope	*espérer*	espayrai
to rejoice	*réjouir*	rayjooeer

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
to give	*donner*	donnai
to thank	*remercier*	remmairceeai
to esteem	*estimer*	esteemai
to honor	*honorer*	onorai
to despise	*mépriser*	maypreezai
to hate	*haïr*	haheer
to offend	*offenser*	offongsai
to insult	*insulter*	angsuhltai
to quarrel	*quereller*	kerrellai
to swear	*jurer*	jurai
to punish	*punir*	puneer
to beat	*battre*	batre
to weep	*pleurer*	pleuhrai
to sigh	*soupirer*	sooperai
to regret	*regretter*	regrettai
to repent	*se repentir*	seh repaunteer
to excuse	*excuser*	excusai
to pardon	*pardonner*	pardonnai
to revenge	*venger*	vaungjai
to joke	*railler*	raeellyai
to laugh	*rire*	reer
to live	*vivre*	veevr
to feel	*sentir*	saunteer
to touch	*toucher*	tooshai
to taste	*goûter*	gootai
to see	*voir*	vouahr
to hear	*entendre*	auntaundr
to grow	*croître*	crouahtr
to go	*aller*	allai
to go out	*sortir*	sorteer
to return	*retourner*	retoornai
to meet	*rencontrer*	rauncongtrai
to follow	*suivre*	sweevr
to run	*courir*	cooreer
to jump	*sauter*	sotai
to fall	*tomber*	tombai
to dance	*danser*	daungsai
to play	*jouer*	jooai
to ascend	*monter*	mongtai
to descend	*descendre*	dessaundr
to sit down	*s'asseoir*	sassouahr
to lie down	*se coucher*	seh cooshai
to rest	*se reposer*	seh repozai
to sleep	*dormir*	dormeer
to dream	*rêver*	rayvai
to awake	*s'éveiller*	sayvailyai
to get up	*se lever*	seh levvai
to dress	*s'habiller*	s'abbeelyai
to draw	*tirer*	teerai
to show	*montrer*	mongtrai
to present	*présenter*	praysauntai
to take	*prendre*	praundr
to accept	*accepter*	acceptai
to refuse	*refuser*	reffusai
to receive	*recevoir*	ressevouahr
to spoil	*gâter*	gahtai
to throw	*jeter*	jettai
to lose	*perdre*	pairdr
to look for	*chercher*	shairshai
to find	*trouver*	troovai
to hide	*cacher*	cashai
to cover	*couvrir*	coovreer
to uncover	*découvrir*	daycoovreer
to carry	*porter*	portai
to bring	*apporter*	apportai
to travel	*voyager*	vwoiajai
to depart	*partir*	parteer
to arrive	*arriver*	arreevai
to ring the bell	*sonner*	sonnai

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
to open	*ouvrir*	oovreer
to go in	*entrer*	auntrai
to buy	*acheter*	ashtai
to sell	*vendre*	vaundr
to pay	*payer*	paiyai
to lend	*prêter*	praytai
to borrow	*emprunter*	aumpruntai
to return	*rendre*	raundr
to repay	*rembourser*	raumboorsai
to exchange	*changer*	chaungjai
to pack up	*empaqueter*	aumpacktai
to unpack	*dépaqueter*	daypacktai
to steal	*voler*	volai
to study	*étudier*	aytudeeai
to learn	*apprendre*	appraundr
to read	*lire*	leer
to calculate	*compter*	congtai
to write	*écrire*	aycreer
to sign	*signer*	seenyai
to seal	*cacheter*	cashtai
to explain	*expliquer*	expleekai
to translate	*traduire*	tradweer
to begin	*commencer*	commaunsai
to continue	*continuer*	congteenuai
to finish	*finir*	feeneer
to work	*travailler*	travvaeelyai
to paint	*peindre*	pahndr
to draw	*dessiner*	desseenai
to stitch	*coudre*	coodr
to spin	*filer*	feelai
to wash	*laver*	lavai
to cook	*cuire*	cweer
to roast	*rôtir*	roteer
to boil	*bouillir*	booeelyeer
to weigh	*peser*	pezai
to build	*bâtir*	bahteer
to sow	*semer*	semmai
to pluck	*cueillir*	kileyeer
to plant	*planter*	plauntai
to reap	*moissonner*	mouahssonnai

Adverbs.

at first	*d'abord*	d'abor
previously	*auparavant*	oparravang
afterwards	*ensuite*	aunsweet
together	*ensemble*	aunsaumbl
at last	*enfin*	aunfang
where	*où*	oo
here	*ici*	eesee
there	*là*	lah
elsewhere	*ailleurs*	aeellyure
above	*dessus*	dessu
below	*dessous*	dessoo
within	*dedans*	deddong
without	*dehors*	dehor
everywhere	*partout*	partoo
nowhere	*nulle part*	nule par
up	*en haut*	aung ho
down	*en bas*	aung bah
anywhere	*quelque part*	kelkeh par
already	*déjà*	dayjah
often	*souvent*	souvong
sometimes	*quelquefois*	kelkehfouah
in future	*à l'avenir*	ah l'avneer
always	*toujours*	toojoor
never	*jamais*	jammay
soon	*bientôt*	beeangto

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
immediately	*aussitôt*	osito
late	*tard*	tar
early	*tôt*	to
at present	*à présent*	ah praysong
quickly	*vite*	veet
at once	*tout de suite*	too deh sweet
afterwards	*puis*	pwee
yesterday	*hier*	yare
yesterday evening	*hier au soir*	yare o souahr
to-day	*aujourd'hui*	ojoordwee
to-morrow	*demain*	demmang
to-morrow morning	*demain matin*	demmang mattang
to-morrow evening	*demain soir*	demmang souahr
the day after to-morrow	*après-demain*	appray demmang
enough	*assez*	assay
too much	*trop*	tro
little	*peu*	peuh
much	*beaucoup*	bocoo
very	*très, fort*	tray, fore
more	*plus*	plu
less	*moins*	mouang
at least	*au moins*	o mouang
thus	*si*	see
nearly	*presque*	pressk
about	*environ*	aungveerong
all	*tout*	too
altogether	*tout-à-fait*	toot-ah-fay
only	*seulement*	seuhlmong
well	*bien*	beeang
better	*mieux*	meeyw
so much the better	*tant-mieux*	tong meeyw
bad	*mal*	mal
worse	*pis*	pee
rather	*plutôt*	pluto
without doubt	*sans doute*	song doot
indeed	*en effet*	aun effay
on the contrary	*au contraire*	o congtrare
scarcely	*à peine*	ah pane
perhaps	*peut-être*	put-aitr
all at once	*tout-à-coup*	toot-ah-coo
not at all	*point du tout*	pouang du too
not yet	*pas encore*	paz auncore
nothing	*rien*	reeang
nothing at all	*rien du tout*	reeang dee too
with, near	*chez, auprès*	shay, opray
near	*près*	pray
in, within	*dans, en*	dong, aung
before	*avant*	avvong
behind	*derrière*	derreeare
below	*sous*	soo
over	*sur*	sure
against	*vers*	vare
far from	*loin de*	louang deh
on the side of	*à côté de*	ah cotay deh
opposite	*vis-à-vis*	veez-ah-vee
round about	*autour de*	otoor deh
instead of	*au lieu de*	o leeyu deh
in the midst of	*au milieu de*	o millyu de
on this side	*en deçà de*	aung-dessah de
on the opposite side	*au-delà de*	o-dellah-deh
out of	*hors*	hor
after	*après*	appray
with	*avec*	avvec
since	*depuis*	deppwee
between	*entre, parmi*	aungtr, parmee
without	*sans*	song
for	*pour*	poor
through, by	*par*	par
against	*contre*	congtr
during	*pendant*	paundong

Conjunctions.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
or	*ou*	oo
either—or	*ou—ou*	oo—oo
neither—nor	*ni—ni*	nee—nee
also	*aussi*	ossi
but	*mais*	may
however	*cependant*	seppaundong
yet	*pourtant*	poortong
if	*si*	see
if not	*si non*	see nong
if only	*pourvu que*	poorvu keh
even if	*quand même*	kaung meym
although	*quoique*	couak
that is	*c'est-à-dire*	sait-ah-deer
as	*comme*	comm
except that	*outre que*	ootr keh
for	*car*	car
because	*parceque*	parsk
why	*pourquoi*	poorkouah
and	*et*	ai
therefore	*ainsi*	angsee
consequently	*par conséquent*	par congsaycong

DECLENSIONS.

The definite Article is rendered by "*le*" before a masculine noun, and by "*la*" before a feminine noun, as *le père*, the father; *la mère*, the mother. The plural for both genders is "*les*," as: *les pères*, the fathers; *les mères*, the mothers.

MASCULINE.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	*le* (leh) *père*,	the father	*les* (lay) *pères*,	the fathers
Gen.	*du* (du) *père*,	of the father	*des* (day) *pères*,	of the fathers
Dat.	*au* (o) *père*,	to the father	*aux* (o) *pères*,	to the fathers
Acc.	*le* (leh) *père*,	the father	*les* (lay) *pères*,	the fathers

FEMININE.

Nom.	*la mère*,	the mother	*les mères*,	the mothers
Gen.	*de la mère*,	of the mother	*des mères*,	of the mothers
Dat.	*à la mère*,	to the mother	*aux mères*,	to the mothers
Acc.	*la mère*,	the mother	*les mères*,	the mothers

Declension

of a word beginning with a vowel or a silent "*h*."

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	*l'homme*,	the man	*les hommes*,	the men
Gen.	*de l'homme*,	of the man	*des hommes*,	of the men
Dat.	*à l'homme*,	to the man	*aux hommes*,	to the men
Acc.	*l'homme*,	the man	*les hommes*,	the men

Indefinite Article.

	Masculine.		*Feminine.*	
Nom.	*un jardin,*	a garden	*une ville,*	a town
Gen.	*d'un jardin,*	of a garden	*d'une ville,*	of a town
Dat.	*à un jardin,*	to a garden	*à une ville,*	to a town
Acc.	*un jardin,*	a garden	*une ville,*	a town

Declension of Proper Names.

Nom.	*Paris,*	Paris	*Louise,*	Louisa
Gen.	*de Paris,*	of Paris	*de Louise,*	of Louisa
Dat.	*à Paris,*	to Paris	*à Louise,*	to Louisa
Acc.	*Paris,*	Paris	*Louise,*	Louisa

Adjectives.

The French adjectives are placed either before or after the noun, as:

le bon père, the good father —*la bonne mère*, the good mother
un bon garçon, a good boy —*une jeune fille*, a young girl
une table ronde, a round table—*du lait chaud*, warm milk

Comparison of Adjectives.

grand, great —*plus grand*, greater—*le plus grand*, the greatest
petit, small —*plus petit*, smaller —*le plus petit*, the smallest
bon, good —*meilleur*, better —*le meilleur*, the best
mauvais, bad —*pire*, worse —*le pire*, the worst
petit, little —*moindre*, less —*le moindre*, the least

Obs. "Than" following the comparative is always translated by "*que*:"

Il est plus poli que son frère—he is more polite than his brother

Numeral Adjectives.

	Pronunciation.		Pronunciation.
one, *un*	ung	29 *vingt-neuf*	
two, *deux*	deuh	30 *trente*	traunt
3 *trois*	trouah	40 *quarante*	karaunt
4 *quatre*	kahtr	50 *cinquante*	sahnkaunt
5 *cinq*	sahnk	60 *soixante*	soassaunt
6 *six*	seece	70 *soixante-dix*	
7 *sept*	set	71 *soixante-et-onze*	
8 *huit*	wheet	72 *soixante-douze*	
9 *neuf*	neuf	73 *soixante-treize*	
10 *dix*	deece	74 *soixante-quatorze*	
11 *onze*	ongz	75 *soixante-quinze*	
12 *douze*	dooze	76 *soixante-seize*	
13 *treize*	trayz	77 *soixante-dix-sept*	
14 *quatorze*	katorz	78 *soixante-dix-huit*	
15 *quinze*	kangz	79 *soixante-dix-neuf*	
16 *seize*	sayz	80 *quatre-vingt*	katr-vahng
17 *dix-sept*	dee-set	81 *quatre-vingt-un*	
18 *dix-huit*	deez-wheet		katr-vahntung
19 *dix-neuf*	deez-neuf	82 *quatre-vingt-deux*	
20 *vingt*	vahng	83 *quatre-vingt-trois*	
21 *vingt-et-un*	vahnt-eh-ung	84 *quatre-vingt-quatre*	
22 *vingt-deux*		85 *quatre-vingt-cinq*	
23 *vingt-trois*		86 *quatre-vingt-six*	
24 *vingt-quatre*		87 *quatre-vingt-sept*	
25 *vingt-cinq*		88 *quatre-vingt-huit*	
26 *vingt-six*		89 *quatre-vingt-neuf*	
27 *vingt-sept*		90 *quatre-vingt-dix*	
28 *vingt-huit*		91 *quatre-vingt-onze*	

	Pronunciation.		Pronunciation.
92 *quatre-vingt-douze*		300 *trois cents*	
93 *quatre-vingt-treize*		400 *quatre cents*	
94 *quatre-vingt-quatorze*		500 *cinq cents*	
95 *quatre-vingt-quinze*		600 *six cents*	
96 *quatre-vingt-seize*		700 *sept cents*	
97 *quatre-vingt-dix-sept*		800 *huit cents*	
98 *quatre-vingt-dix-huit*		900 *neuf cents*	
99 *quatre-vingt-dix-neuf*		1000 *mille*	meel
100 *cent*	saung	2000 *deux mille*	
101 *cent-et-un*	saunt-eh-ung	3000 *trois mille*	
110 *cent dix*	saung-deece	10,000 *dix mille*	
120 *cent vingt*	saung-vahng	20,000 *vingt mille*	
130 *cent trent*		a million, *un million*	
200 *deux cents*			ung meelyong

Ordinal Numbers.

the first,	*le premier*	leh premyai
" second,	*le second*	leh zeggong
" third,	*le troisième*	leh trouazzeeame
" fourth,	*le quatrième*	leh kattreeame
" 5th,	*le cinquième*	leh sahnkeeame
" 6th,	*le sixième*	leh seeceeame
" 7th,	*le septième*	leh setteeame
" 8th,	*le huitième*	leh wheeteeame
" 9th,	*le neuvième*	leh neuveeame
" 10th,	*le dixième*	leh deezeeame
" 11th,	*le onzième*	leh ongzeeame
" 12th,	*le douzième*	leh doozeeame
" 13th,	*le treizième*	leh trayzeeame
" 14th,	*le quatorzième*	leh kattorzeeame
" 15th,	*le quinzième*	leh kahngzeeame
" 16th,	*le seizième*	leh sayzeeame
" 17th,	*le dix-septième*	leh deessettiame
" 18th,	*le dix-huitième*	leh deez-wheeteeame
" 19th,	*le dix-neuvième*	leh deezneuveeame
" 20th,	*le vingtième*	leh vahnteeame
" 21st,	*le vingt-et-unième*	leh vahng-eh-uneeame
" 30th,	*le trentième*	leh traunteeame
" 40th,	*le quarantième*	leh karaunteeame
" 50th,	*le cinquantième*	leh sahnkaunteeame
" 60th,	*le soixantième*	leh souahssaunteeame
" 70th,	*le soixante-dixième*	leh souahssaunt-deezeeame
" 80th,	*le quatre-vingtième*	leh kattr-vaunteeame
" 90th,	*le quatre-vingt-dixième*	
" 100th,	*le centième*	leh saunteeame
" 1000th,	*le millième*	leh milleeame
the last,	*le dernier*	leh dareneeay

Pronouns.

Je	(jeh)	I	*Nous*	(noo)	we
tu	(tu)	thou	*vous*	(voo)	you
te	(teh)	thee	*vous*	(voo)	you
il	(eel)	he	*ils*	(eel)	they
elle	(el)	she	*elles*	(el)	they

	moi	(mouah)	me		*nous*	(noo) us
	toi	(touah)	thee		*lui*	(lwee) him
Mas.	*mon*	(mong)	my	*Plural*	*mes*	(may) my
Fem.	*ma*	(mah)	my			
Mas.	*ton*	(tong)	thy	"	*tes*	(tay) thy
Fem	*ta*	(tah)				
	son	(song)	his	"	*ses*	(say) his, her
	sa	(sah)	her			
	notre	(notr)	our	"	*nos*	(no) our
	votre	(votr)	your	"	*vos*	(vo) your
	leur	(leur)	their	"	*leurs*	(leur) their

qui (kee) who, which, that
quoi (couah) what, that
quel (kel), *le quel?* which? *que* (keh) what

avoir—to have

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*	
Avoir,	to have ;	*avoir eu*	to have had.

PARTICIPLES.

Ayant,	having ;	*eu,*	had
		ayant eu,	having had

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I have	*J'ai*	Jay
thou hast	*tu as*	tu ah
he has	*il a*	eel ah
she has	*elle a*	el ah
we have	*nous avons*	nooz avong
you have	*vous avez*	vooz avai
they have	*ils (elles) ont*	eels ont

Imperfect.

I had	*J'avais*	Javay
thou hadst	*tu avais*	tu avay
he had	*il avait*	eel avay
we had	*nous avions*	nooz aveeong
you had	*vous aviez*	vooz aveeay
they had	*ils avaient*	eels avay

Past definite.

I had	*J'eus*	Jew
thou hadst	*tu eus*	tu ew
he had	*il eut*	eel ew
we had	*nous eûmes*	nooz eum
you had	*vous eûtes*	vooz eut
they had	*ils eurent*	eels eur

Perfect.

I have had	*J'ai eu*	Jay ew
thou hast had	*tu as eu*	tu ahz ew
he has had	*il a eu*	eel ah ew
she has had	*elle a eu*	el ah ew
we have had	*nous avons eu*	nooz avongz ew
you have had	*vous avez eu*	vooz avayze ew
they have had	*ils (elles) ont eu*	eels ont ew

Pluperfect.

I had had	*J'avais eu*	Javayz ew
thou hadst had	*tu avais eu*	tu avayz ew
he had had	*il avait eu*	eel avait ew
we had had	*nous avions eu*	nooz aveeongz ew
you had had	*vous aviez eu*	vooz aveeayze ew
they had had	*ils avaient eu*	eels avait ew

Past anterior.

I had had	*J'eus eu*	Jeus ew
thou hadst had	*tu eus eu*	tu eus ew
he had had	*il eut eu*	eel eut ew
we had had	*nous eûmes eu*	nooz eums ew
you had had	*vous eûtes eu*	vooz euts ew
they had had	*ils eurent eu*	eels eurt ew

Future.

I shall have	*J'aurai*	Joray
thou shalt have	*tu auras*	tu orah
he shall have	*il aura*	eel orah
we shall have	*nous aurons*	nooz orong
you shall have	*vous aurez*	vooz oray
they shall have	*ils auront*	eels orong

Future anterior.

I shall have had	*J'aurai eu*	Joray ew
thou shalt have had	*tu auras eu*	tu orahs ew
he shall have had	*it aura eu*	eel orah ew
we shall have had	*nous aurons eu*	nooz orongz ew
you shall have had	*vous aurez eu*	vooz orayze ew
they shall have had	*ils auront eu*	eels oront ew

Conditional. Present.

I should have	*J'aurais*	Joray
thou shouldst have	*tu aurais*	tu oray
he should have	*il aurait*	eel oray
we should have	*nous aurions*	nooz oreeong
you should have	*vous auriez*	vooz oreeay
they should have	*ils auraient*	eels oray

Conditional. Past.

I should have had	*J'aurais eu*	Jorays ew
thou shouldst have had	*tu aurais eu*	tu orays ew
he should have had	*il aurait eu*	eel orait ew
we should have had	*nous aurions eu*	nooz areeongz ew
you should have had	*vous auriez eu*	vooz oreeayze ew
they should have had	*ils auraient eu*	eels orait ew

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Have	*aie*	ay
let us have	*ayons*	ayong
have (ye)	*ayez*	ayay

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

That I may have	*Que j'aie*	keh jai
that thou mayst have	*que tu aies*	keh tu ai
that he may have	*qu'il ait*	keel ai
that we may have	*que nous ayons*	keh nooz ayong
that you may have	*que vous ayez*	keh vooz ayay
that they may have	*qu'ils aient*	keels ai

Imperfect.

That I might have	*Que j'eusse*	keh jeuss
that thou mightst have	*que tu eusses*	keh tu euss
that he might have	*qu'il eût*	keel eu
that we might have	*que nous eussions*	keh nooz eussyong
that you might have	*que vous eussiez*	keh vooz eussyay
that they might have	*qu'ils eussent*	keels euss

Perfect.

That I may have had	*Que j'aie eu*	keh jai ew
that thou mayst have had	*que tu aies eu*	keh tu aiz ew
that he may have had	*qu'il ait eu*	keel ait ew
that we may have had	*que nous ayons eu*	keh nooz ayongz ew
that you may have had	*que vous ayez eu*	keh vooz ayayz ew
that they may have had	*qu'ils aient eu*	keels ait ew

Pluperfect.

That I might have had	*Que j'eusse eu*	keh jeuss ew
that thou mightst have had	*que tu eusses eu*	keh tu euss ew
that he might have had	*qu'il eût eu*	keel eut ew
that we might have had	*que nous eussions eu*	keh nooz eussyongs ew
that you might have had	*que vous eussiez eu*	keh vooz eusseyaz ew
that they might have had	*qu'ils eussent eu*	keels eusst ew

The Auxiliary Verb "etre," to be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. *Past.*

être (aitr) —to be; *avoir été* (avoahr ettay)—to have been

Participles.

étant (ettang)—being; *été* (ettay) —been

ayant été (ayaunt ettay)—having been

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I am	*Je suis*	Jeh swee
thou art	*tu es*	tu ay
he is	*il est*	eel ay
she is	*elle est*	el ay
we are	*nous sommes*	noo som
you are	*vous êtes*	vooz ait
they are	*ils (elles) sont*	eel song

Imperfect.

I was	*J'étais*	Jettay
thou wast	*tu étais*	tu ettay
he was	*il était*	il ettay
we were	*nous étions*	nooz ettyong
you were	*vous étiez*	vooz ettyay
they were	*ils étaient*	eels ettay

Past definite.

I was	*Je fus*	Je fu
thou wast	*tu fus*	tu fu
he was	*il fut*	eel fu
we were	*nous fûmes*	noo fume
you were	*vous fûtes*	voo fute
they were	*ils furent*	eel fure

Perfect.

I have been	*J'ai été*	Jai ettay
thou hast been	*tu as été*	tu ah ettay
he has been	*il a été*	eel ah ettay
she has been	*elle a été*	el ah ettay
we have been	*nous avons été*	nooz avongz ettay
you have been	*vous avez été*	vous avayze ettay
they have been	*ils (elles) ont été*	eels ont ettay

Pluperfect.

I had been	*J'avais été*	Javayz ettay
thou hadst been	*tu avais été*	tu avayz ettay
he had been	*il avait été*	eel avait ettay
we had been	*nous avions été*	nooz avyons ettay
you had been	*vous aviez été*	vooz avyayz ettay
they had been	*ils avaient été*	eels avait ettay

Past anterior.

I had been	*J'eus été*	Jeuz ettay
thou hadst been	*tu eus été*	tu euz ettay
he had been	*il eut été*	eel eut ettay
we had been	*nous eûmes été*	nooz eums ettay
you had been	*vous eûtes été*	vooz eutes ettay
they had been	*ils eurent été*	eels eurt etay

Future.

I shall be	*Je serai*	Je serray
thou shalt be	*tu seras*	tu serrah
he shall be	*il sera*	eel serrah
we shall be	*nous serons*	noo serrong
you shall be	*vous serez*	voo serray
they shall be	*ils seront*	eel serong

Future anterior.

I shall have been	*J'aurai été*	Joray ettay
thou shalt have been	*tu auras été*	tu orahs ettay
he shall have been	*il aura été*	eel orah ettay
we shall have been	*nous aurons été*	nooz orongz ettay
you shall have been	*vous aurez été*	vooz orayz ettay
they shall have been	*ils auront été*	eels oront ettay

Conditional. Present.

I should be	*Je serais*	Je serray
thou shouldst be	*tu serais*	tu serray
he should be	*il serait*	eel serray
we should be	*nous serions*	noo serreeong
you should be	*vous seriez*	voo serreeay
they should be	*ils seraient*	eel serray

Conditional. Past.

I should have been	*J'aurais été*	Jorays ettay
thou shouldst have been	*tu aurais été*	tu orays ettay
he should have been	*il aurait été*	eel orait ettay
we should have been	*nous aurions été*	nooz oreeongz ettay
you should have been	*vous auriez été*	vooz oreeayz ettay
they should have been	*ils auraient été*	eels orait ettay

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be	—*sois*	souah
let us be	—*soyons*	swoiyong
be (ye)	—*soyez*	swoiyay

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

That I may be	*Que je sois*	Keh jeh souah
that thou mayst be	*que tu sois*	keh tu souah
that he may be	*qu'il soit*	keel souah
that we may be	*que nous soyons*	keh noo swoiyong
that you may be	*que vous soyez*	keh voo swoiyay
that they may be	*qu'ils soient*	keel souah

Imperfect.

That I might be	*Que je fusse*	Keh jeh fusse
that thou mightst be	*que tu fusses*	keh tu fusse
that he might be	*qu'il fût*	keel fu
that we might be	*que nous fussions*	keh noo fussyong
that you might be	*que vous fussiez*	keh voo fussyay
that they might be	*qu'ils fussent*	keel fusse

Perfect.

That I may have been	*Que j'aie été*	Keh j'ai ettay
that thou mayst have been	*que tu aies été*	keh tu aiz ettay
that he may have been	*qu'il ait été*	keel ait ettay
that we may have been	*que nous ayons été*	keh noo zayongz ettay
that you may have been	*que vous ayez été*	keh voo ayayz ettay
that they may have been	*qu'ils aient été*	keels ait ettay

Pluperfect.

That I might have been	*Que j'eusse été*	Keh jeuss ettay
that thou mightst have been	*que tu eusses été*	keh tu euss ettay
that he might have been	*qu'il eût été*	keel eut ettay
that we might have been	*que nous eussions été*	keh nooz eussyons ettay
that you might have been	*que vous eussiez été*	keh vooz eussyaze ettay
that they might have been	*qu'ils eussent été*	keels eussent ettay

Regular Verbs.

The Infinitives of verbs in the French language have the four following terminations:

er —as in: *donner*, to give,
ir —as in: *finir*, to finish,
oir —as in: *recevoir*, to receive,
re —as in: *vendre*, to sell.

All that precedes this infinitive termination is called the "*root*" of the verb.

Verbs which only change their terminations and not their roots are called "*regular Verbs*," those which change their roots "*irregular Verbs*."

The Verbs ending in "*oir*" are all irregular, and the French language, therefore, has in reality only three regular Conjugations.

The first Conjugation ends in "*er*."
The second Conjugation ends in "*ir*."
The third Conjugation ends in "*oir*."
The fourth Conjugation ends in "*re*."

The past Participle is formed by adding to the root of the first Conjugation an "*é*," to that of the second an "*i*," to the fourth an "*u*, as:

Donn-er, to give —*donné*, given.
Fin-ir, to finish —*fini*, finished.
Vend-re, to sell —*vendu*, sold.

The Four Conjugations.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present.	*Past.*
Donner (donnay), to give	*avoir donné*, to have given

Participles.

Donnant (donnong), giving — *donné*, given
ayant donné, having given

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

SIMPLE TENSES.		COMPOUND TENSES.
Absolu.		*Antérieur.*
I give		I have given
Je donne	Jeh don	*J'ai donné*
tu donnes	tu don	*tu as donné*
il donne	eel don	*il a donné*
nous donnons	noo donnong	*nous avons donné*
vous donnez	voo donnay	*vous avez donné*
ils donnent	eel don	*ils ont donné*

Descriptive.

Imperfect.		*Pluperfect.*
I gave		I had given.
Je donnais	Jeh donnay	*J'avais donné*
tu donnais	tu donnay	*tu avais donné*
il donnait	eel donnay	*il avait donné*
nous donnions	noo donnyong	*nous avions donné*
vous donniez	voo donnyay	*vous aviez donné*
ils donnaient	eel donnay	*ils avaient donne*

Narrative.

Past definite.		*Past anterior*
I gave		I had given
Je donnai	Jeh donnay	*J'eus donné*
tu donnas	tu donna	*tu eus donné*
il donna	eel donna	*il eut donné*
nous donnâmes	noo donnahme	*nous eûmes donne*
vous donnâtes	voo donnahte	*vous eûtes donné*
ils donnèrent	eel donnaire	*ils eurent donné*

Future.

Future.		*Future anterior.*
I shall give		I shall have given
Je donnerai	Jeh donnerai	*J'aurai donné*
tu donneras	tu donnera	*tu auras donné*
il donnera	eel donnera	*il aura donné*
nous donnerons	noo donnerong	*nous aurons donné*
vous donnerez	voo donneray	*vous aurez donné*
ils donneront	eel donnerong	*ils auront donné*

Conditional.

Present.		*Past.*
I should give		I should have given
Je donnerais	Jeh donneray	*J'aurais donné*
tu donnerais	tu donneray	*tu aurais donné*
il donnerait	eel donneray	*il aurait donné*
nous donnerions	noo donnereeong	*nous aurions donne*
vous donneriez	voo donnereeay	*vous auriez donné*
ils donneraient	eel donneray	*ils auraient donne*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*
That I may give		That I may have given.
Que je donne	Keh jeh don	*Que j'aie donne*
que tu donnes	keh tu don	*que tu aies donné*
qu'il donne	keel don	*qu'il ait donné*
que nous donnions	keh noo donnyong	*que nous ayons donné*
que vous donniez	keh voo donnyay	*que vous ayez donné*
qu'ils donnent	keel don	*qu'ils ayent donné*

Imperfect.
That I might give

Pluperfect.
That I might have given

Que je donnasse	Keh jeh donnass	*Que j'eusse donné*
que tu donnasses	keh tu donnass	*que tu eusses donné*
qu'il donnât	keel donnah	*qu'il eût donné*
que nous donnassions	keh noo donnassyong	*que nous eussions donné*
que vous donnassiez	keh voo donnassyay	*que vous eussiez donné*
qu'ils donnassent	keel donnass	*qu'ils eussent donné*

IMERATIVE MOOD.

Donne (don) give thou — *donnons* (donnong) let us give
donnez (donnay), give ye
qu'il donne (keel don), let him give — *qu'ils donnent* (keel don), let them give

SECOND CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. — *Past.*

finir (feeneer), to finish — *avoir fini* (feenee), to have finished

Participles.

finissant (feeneesong), finishing *fini*, finished
ayant fini, having finished

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

SIMPLE TENSES. *Absolu.*
I finish

COMPOUND TENSES. *Antérieur.*
I have finished

Je finis	Je feenee	*J'ai fini*
tu finis	tu feenee	*tu as fini*
il finit	eel feenee	*il a fini*
nous finissons	noo feeneessong	*nous avons fini*
vous finissez	voo feeneessay	*vous avez fini*
ils finissent	eel feeneess	*ils ont fini*

Descriptive.

Imperfect.
I finished

Pluperfect.
I had finished

Je finissais	Jeh feeneessay	*J'avais fini*
tu finissais	tu feeneessay	*tu avais fini*
il finissait	eel feeneessay	*il avait fini*
nous finissions	noo feeneessyong	*nous avions fini*
vous finissiez	voo feeneessyay	*vous aviez fini*
ils finissaient	eel feeneessay	*ils avaient fini*

Narrative.

Past definite.
I finished

Past anterior.
I had finished

Je finis	Jeh feenee	*J'eus fini*
tu finis	tu feenee	*tu eus fini*
il finit	eel feenee	*il eut fini*
nous finîmes	noo feeneem	*nous eûmes fini*
vous finîtes	voo feeneet	*vous eûtes fini*
ils finirent	eel feeneer	*ils eurent fini*

Future.

Future.
I shall finish

Future anterior.
I shall have finished

Je finirai	Jeh feeneeray	*J'aurai fini*
tu finiras	tu feeneera	*tu auras fini*
il finira	eel feeneera	*il aura fini*
nous finirons	noo feeneerong	*nous aurons fini*
vous finirez	voo feeneeray	*vous aurez fini*
ils finiront	eel feeneerong	*ils auront fini*

Conditional.

Present.
I should finish

Past.
I should have finished

Je finirais	Jeh feeneeray	*J'aurais fini*
tu finirais	tu feeneeray	*tu aurais fini*
il finirait	eel feeneeray	*il aurait fini*
nous finirions	noo feeneereeong	*nous aurions fini*
vous finiriez	voo feeneereeay	*vous auriez fini*
ils finiraient	eel feeneeray	*ils auraient fini*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.
That I may finish

Past.
That I may have finished.

Que je finisse	Keh jeh feeneess	*Que j'aie fini*
que tu finisses	keh tu feeneess	*que tu aies fini*
qu'il finisse	keel feeneess	*qu'il ait fini*
que nous finissions	keh noo feeneesseeong	*que nous ayons fini*
que vous finissiez	keh voo feeneesseeay	*que vous ayez fini*
qu'ils finissent	keel feeneess	*qu'ils aient fini*

Imperfect.
That I might finish

Pluperfect.
That I might have finished

Que je finisse	Keh jeh feeneess	*Que j'eusse fini*
que tu finisses	keh tu feeneess	*que tu eusses fini*
qu'il finît	keel feenee	*qu'il eût fini*
que nous finissions	keh noo feeneessyong	*que nous eussions fini*
que vous finissiez	keh voo feeneessyay	*que vous eussiez fini*
qu'ils finissent	keel feeneess	*qu'ils eussent fini*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Finis (feenee), finish — *finissons* (feeneessong), let us finish
qu'il finisse (keel feeneess), let him finish — *finissez* (feeneessay), finish ye
qu'ils finissent (keel feeneess), let them finish

THIRD CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. — *Past.*

Recevoir (ressevouahr), to receive — *avoir reçu*, to have received

Participle.

Recevant (ressevong), receiving — *reçu* (ressu), received
ayant reçu, having received

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

SIMPLE TENSES. *Absolu.* I receive		COMPOUND TENSES. *Antérieur.* I have received
Je reçois	Jeh ressouah	*J'ai reçu*
tu reçois	tu ressouah	*tu as reçu*
il reçoit	eel ressouah	*il a reçu*
nous recevons	noo ressevong	*nous avons reçu*
vous recevez	voo ressevay	*vous avez reçu*
ils reçoivent	eel ressouahve	*ils ont reçu*

Descriptive.

Imperfect. I received		*Pluperfect.* I had received
Je recevais	Jeh ressevay	*J'avais reçu*
tu recevais	tu ressevay	*tu avais reçu*
il recevait	eel ressevay	*il avait reçu*
nous recevions	noo ressevyong	*nous avions reçu*
vous receviez	voo ressevayy	*vous aviez reçu*
ils recevaient	eel ressevay	*ils avaient reçu*

Narrative.

Past definite. I received		*Past anterior.* I had received
Je reçus	Jeh ressu	*J'eus reçu*
tu reçus	tu ressu	*tu eus reçu*
il reçut	eel ressu	*il eut reçu*
nous reçûmes	noo ressume	*nous eûmes reçu*
vous reçûtes	voo ressute	*vous eûtes reçu*
ils reçurent	eel ressure	*ils eurent reçu*

Future.

Future. I shall receive		*Future anterior.* I shall have received
Je recevrai	Jeh ressvray	*J'aurai reçu*
tu recevras	tu ressvrah	*tu auras reçu*
il recevra	eel ressvrah	*il aura reçu*
nous recevrons	noo ressvrong	*nous aurons reçu*
vous recevrez	voo ressvray	*vous aurez reçu*
ils recevront	eel ressvrong	*ils auront reçu*

Conditional.

Present. I should receive		*Past.* I should have received
Je recevrais	Jeh ressvray	*J'aurais reçu*
tu recevrais	tu ressvray	*tu aurais reçu*
il recevrait	eel ressvray	*il aurait reçu*
nous recevrions	noo ressvreeong	*nous aurions reçu*
vous recevriez	voo ressvreeay	*vous auriez reçu*
ils recevraient	eel ressvray	*ils auraient reçu*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. That I may receive		*Past.* That I might have received
Que je reçoive	Keh jeh ressouahve	*Que j'aie reçu*
que tu reçoives	keh tu ressouahve	*que tu aies reçu*
qu'il reçoive	keel ressouahve	*qu'il ait reçu*
que nous recevions	keh noo ressvyong	*que nous ayons reçu*
que vous receviez	keh voo ressvyay	*que vous ayez reçu*
qu'ils reçoivent	keel ressouahve	*qu'ils aient reçu*

Imperfect. That I might receive		*Pluperfect.* That I might have received
Que je reçusse	Keh jeh ressuce	*Que j'eusse reçu*
que tu reçusses	keh tu ressuce	*que tu eusses reçu*
qu'il reçût	keel ressu	*qu'il eût reçu*
que nous reçussions	keh noo ressussyong	*que nous eussions reçu*
que vous reçussiez	keh voo ressussyay	*que vous eussiez reçu*
qu'ils reçussent	keel ressusse	*qu'ils eussent reçu*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Reçois (ressouah), receive thou *Recevons* (ressevong), let us receive
recevez (ressevay), receive ye
qu'il reçoive (keel ressouahve), let him receive *qu'ils reçoivent* (keel ressouahve), let them receive

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*
Vendre (vaundr),	to sell.	*Avoir vendu,* to have sold

Participle.

Vendant (vaundong) selling *Vendu* (vaundu), sold
ayant vendu, having sold

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

SIMPLE TENSES. *Absolu.* I sell		COMPOUND TENSES. *Antérieur.* I have sold
Je vends	Je vong	*J'ai vendu*
tu vends	tu vong	*tu as vendu*
il vend	eel vong	*il a vendu*
nous vendons	noo vaundong	*nous avons vendu*
vous vendez	voo vaunday	*vous avez vendu*
ils vendent	eel vaund	*ils ont vendu*

Descriptive.

Imperfect. I sold		*Pluperfect.* I had sold
Je vendais	Jeh vaunday	*J'avais vendu*
tu vendais	tu vaunday	*tu avais vendu*
il vendait	eel vaunday	*il avait vendu*
nous vendions	noo vaundyong	*nous avions vendu*
vous vendiez	voo vaundyai	*vous aviez vendu*
ils vendaient	eel vaunday	*ils avaient vendu*

Narrative.

Past definite. I sold		*Past anterior.* I had sold
Je vendis	Jeh vaundee	*J'eus vendu*
tu vendis	tu vaundee	*tu eus vendu*
il vendit	eel vaundee	*il eut vendu*
nous vendîmes	noo vaundeem	*nous eûmes vendu*
vous vendîtes	voo vaundeet	*vous eûtes vendu*
ils vendirent	eel vaundeer	*ils eurent vendu*

Future.

Future.		*Past.*
I shall sell		I should have sold
Je vendrai	Jeh vaundray	*J'aurai vendu*
tu vendras	tu vaundrah	*tu auras vendu*
il vendra	eel vaundrah	*il aura vendu*
nous vendrons	noo vaundrong	*nous aurons vendu*
vous vendrez	voo vaundray	*vous aurez vendu*
ils vendront	eel vaundrong	*ils auront vendu*

Conditional.

Present.		*Past.*
I should sell		I should have sold
Je vendrais	Jeh vaundray	*J'aurais vendu*
tu vendrais	tu vaundrah	*tu aurais vendu*
il vendrait	eel vaundrah	*il aurait vendu*
nous vendrions	noo vaundrong	*nous aurions vendu*
vous vendriez	voo vaundreeay	*vous auriez vendu*
ils vendraient	eel vaundray	*ils auraient vendu*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*
That I may sell		That I may have sold
Que je vende	Keh jeh vaund	*Que j'aie vendu*
que tu vendes	keh tu vaund	*que tu aies vendu*
qu'il vende	keel vaund	*qu'il ait vendu*
que nous vendions	keh noo vaundyong	*que nous ayons vendu*
que vous vendiez	keh voo vaundyay	*que vous ayez vendu*
qu'ils vendent	keel vaund	*qu'ils aient vendu*

Imperfect.		*Pluperfect.*
That I might sell		That I might have sold
Que je vendisse	Keh jeh vaundeess	*Que j'eusse vendu*
que tu vendisses	keh tu vaundeess	*que tu eusses vendu*
qu'il vendît	keel vaundee	*qu'il eût vendu*
que nous vendissions	keh noo vaundeess-yong	*que nous eussions vendu*
que vous vendissiez	keh voo vaundeess-yay	*que vous eussiez vendu*
qu'ils vendissent	keel vauneess	*qu'ils eussent vendu*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Vends (vong), sell thou — *vendons* (vaundong), let us sell
vendez (vaunday), sell ye
qu'il vende (keel vaunde), let him sell — *qu'ils vendent* (keel vaund), let them sell

Easy Expressions.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
Tell me	*Dites-moi*	Deet mouah
If you please	*S'il vous plaît*	See voo play
Have the goodness	*Ayez la bonté*	Aiyai lah bongtai
Yes, Sir	*Oui, Monsieur*	Wee, Mosseeu
Yes, Madam	*Oui, Madame*	Wee, Madamm
Yes, Miss	*Oui, Mademoiselle*	Wee, Madmouazel
No, Sir	*Non, Monsieur*	Nong, Mosseeu
No, Madam	*Non, Madame*	Nong, Madamm
No, Miss	*Non, Mademoiselle*	Nong, Madmouazel
Will you tell me	*Voulez-vous me dire*	Voolai voo meh deer
I thank you	*Je vous remercie*	Jeh voo remmairsee
Do you speak English?	*Parlez-vous anglais?*	Parlai-voo aunglai?
French?	*français?*	fraunsai?
I do not speak French	*Je ne parle pas français*	Jeh neh parl pah fraunsai
I speak it a little	*Je le parle un peu*	Jeh leh parl ung peuh
I understand	*Je comprends*	Jeh comprong
I do not understand	*Je ne comprends pas*	Jeh neh comprong pah
Do you understand?	*Comprenez-vous?*	Comprenez-voo
Give me	*Donnez-moi*	Donnai-moi
some bread	*du pain*	du pan
some meat	*de la viande*	de lah veeaund
some wine	*du vin*	du vang
some beer	*de la bière*	de la beeare
Bring me	*Apportez-moi*	Apportai-mouah
some coffee	*du café*	du caffay
some tea	*du thé*	du tay
some milk	*du lait*	du lay
some butter	*du beurre*	du beur
some cheese	*du fromage*	du fromaje
Thank you	*Merci*	Mairsee

Meeting.

Good morning	*Bon jour*	Bong joor
How do you do?	*Comment vous portez-vous?*	Commong voo portaivoo
Very well	*Très-bien*	Tray beeang
I am very well	*Je me porte fort bien*	Jeh meh port fore beeang
How is your father?	*Comment se porte Monsieur votre père?*	Commong seh port mosseeu votr pare?
How is your mother?	*Comment se porte Madame votre mère?*	Commong seh port Maddam votr mare?
She is not well	*Elle ne se porte pas bien*	El neh seh port pah beeang
She is ill	*Elle est malade*	El ai mallad
He is very ill	*Il est bien malade*	Eel ai beeang mallad
She has a cold	*Elle est enrhumée*	El ai taunreemay
I must go	*Il faut partir*	Eel fo parteer
Good bye	*Au plaisir*	O playzeer
Farewell	*Adieu*	Adieu
Your servant	*Votre serviteur*	Votr sairveeture
I wish you a good morning	*Je vous souhaite le bon jour*	Jeh voo sooate leh bong joor
Good evening	*Bon soir*	Bong souar
Good night	*Bonne nuit*	Bon nwee
I wish you good night.	*Je vous souhaite une bonne nuit*	Jeh voo sooate une bon nwee
My compliments to your father	*Saluez Monsieur votre père de ma part*	Salluai mosseeu votr pare deh mah par
I will not fail	*Je n'y manquerai pas*	Jeh nee maunkrai pah

Visits.

There is a knock	*On frappe*	Ong frap
It is Mrs B.	*C'est Madame B.*	Sai Maddam B.
I am very glad to see you	*Je suis charmé de vous voir*	Je swee sharmai deh voo vouahr

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
Pray, be seated	*Asseyez-vous, je vous prie*	Assayai voo jeh voo pree
What news is there?	*Que dit-on de nouveau?*	Keh deet-ong deh noovo?
Good news	*De bonnes nouvelles*	Deh bon noovel
Do you believe it?	*Le croyez-vous?*	Leh crwoyai voo?
I believe it	*Je le crois*	Jeh leh croua
I don't believe a word of it	*Je n'en crois pas un mot*	Jeh nong croua paz ung mo
I think so	*Je crois que oui*	Je croua queh wee
I think not	*Je crois que non*	Je croua queh nong
Who told you?	*Qui vous l'a dit?*	Kee voo lah dee?
It is no such thing	*Il n'en est rien*	Eel non ai reeang
Have you heard from home?	*Avez-vous reçu des nouvelles de chez-vous?*	Avai voo ressu dai noovel deh shai voo?
The postman brought me a letter this morning	*Le facteur m'apporta une lettre ce matin*	Leh facter mapportah une lettr seh mattang
They write sad news	*On m'écrit de mauvaises nouvelles*	Ong maycree deh movaze noovel
Will you stay and dine with us?	*Voulez-vous rester à dîner avec nous?*	Voolai voo restai ah deenai avec noo?
No, thank you	*Merci*	Mairsee
I cannot stay	*Je ne peux pas rester*	Jeh neh peuh pah restai
I must go	*Il faut que je m'en aille*	Eel fo keh jeh mon aheel
You are in great hurry	*Vous êtes bien pressé*	Vooz ait beeang pressai
I have a great deal to do.	*J'ai bien des choses à faire*	Jay beeang dai shoez ah fare

Expressions of Surprise.

What!	*Comment!*	Commong!
Is it possible?	*Serait-il possible?*	Serrait-eel posseebl?
Who would have believed it!	*Qui l'aurait cru!*	Kee loray cru!
Indeed	*En vérité*	Ong vereetay
It is impossible	*Cela est impossible*	Slah ait amposseebl
That cannot be	*Cela ne se peut pas*	Slah neh seh peu pah
I am astonished at it	*J'en suis bien étonné*	Jong swee beean aitonnai
You surprise me	*Vous me surprenez*	Voo meh surepreennay
It is incredible	*C'est incroyable*	Sait angcrwoyable
It is unheard of	*Cela est inoui*	Slah ait inwee
I am sorry for it	*J'en suis fâché*	Jong swee fashai
I am quite vexed about it	*J'en suis désolé*	Jong swee daizolai
What a pity!	*Quel dommage!*	Kel dommaje
It is a great pity	*C'est bien dommage*	Say beeang dommaje
It is a sad thing	*Cela est bien fâcheux*	Slah ah beeang fasheu
It is a great misfortune	*C'est un grand malheur*	Sait ung grong malleer
I am very glad	*Je suis bien aise*	Je swee beean aze
I am very glad of it	*J'en suis fort aise*	Jong swee fort aze
It gives me great joy	*J'en ai bien de la joie*	Jon ay beeang deh lah jouah
How happy I am	*Que je suis heureux*	Keh jeh sweeze heureu
I wish you joy	*Je vous félicite*	Jeh voo faileeseet
I congratulate you on it	*Je vous en fais mon compliment*	Jeh vooze ong fay mong compleemong

Anger and Blame.

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
He is very angry	*Il est bien en colère*	Eel ai beean ong colare
I am in a bad temper	*Je suis de mauvaise humeur*	Jeh swee deh mov humeure
She is furious about it	*Elle en est furieuse*	El on ai fureeuze
Hold your tongue	*Taisez-vous*	Taizay voo
You are very wrong	*Vous avez bien tort*	Vooze avai beeang tor
What a shame!	*Quelle honte!*	Kel haunt!
How could you do so?	*Comment avez-vous pu faire cela?*	Commont avai voo pu fare sla?
I am ashamed of you	*Vous me faites honte*	Voo meh fate haunt
For shame!	*Fi donc!*	Fee don!
You are very much to blame	*Vous êtes bien à blâmer*	Vooze ait beean ah blahmai
His patience is tired out	*La patience lui échappe*	Lah passyaunce lwee aishap
Don't answer	*Ne répliquez pas*	Neh raipleekai pah

Age.

How old are you?	*Quel âge avez-vous?*	Kel ahje avai voo?
I am twenty-two	*J'ai vingt-deux ans*	Jay vahng-deuh ong
I shall soon be thirty	*J'ai bientôt trente ans*	Jay beeangto traunt ong
He looks older	*Il paraît plus âgé*	Eel paray pluze ahjai
I did not think you were so old	*Je ne vous croyais pas si âge*	Jeh neh voo crwoyai pah see ahjai
She is at least sixty	*Elle a au moins soixante ans*	El a o mooang sooassaunt ong
How old is your uncle?	*Quel âge peut avoir Monsieur votre oncle?*	Kel ahje peut avouar Mosseeu votr auncl
He is nearly eighty	*Il a à peu près quatre-vingt ans*	Eel ah ah peu pray kahtr vangs ong
Is he so old?	*Est-il si âgé que cela?*	Ait eel see ahjai keh sla
It is a great age	*C'est un grand âge*	Sait ung graund ahje
He begins to grow old	*Il commence à vieillir*	Eel commaunce ah veeailyeer

To ask Questions.

What do you say?	*Que dites-vous?*	Ke deet voo?
Do you hear me?	*M'entendez-vous?*	Mauntaundai-voo?
I don't speak to you	*Ce n'est pas à vous que je parle*	Snay paz ah voo keh jeh parl
Do you understand me?	*Me comprenez-vous?*	Meh comprenay voo?
Listen	*Ecoutez*	Aicootai
Come here	*Approchez — venez ici*	Aproshai—Vennayzeesee
What is that?	*Qu'est-ce que cela?*	Case keh sla?
Why don't you answer?	*Pourquoi ne répondez-vous pas?*	Poorcouah neh raipondai voo pah?
What do you mean?	*Que voulez-vous dire?*	Keh voolai voo deer!
Don't you speak French?	*Ne parlez-vous pas français?*	Neh parlai voo pah Fraunsay?
Very little, sir	*Bien peu, Monsieur*	Beeang peuh, mosseeu

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
Do you know Mr. H?	*Connaissez-vous Monsieur H.?*	Connaissai voo mosseeu H.
I know him by sight	*Je le connais de vue*	Jeh leh connay deh vu
I know him by name	*Je le connais de nom*	Jeh leh connay deh nong
What do you call that?	*Comment appelez vous cela?*	Commont applai voo sla?
What does that mean?	*Qu'est-ce que cela veut dire?*	Case keh sla veuh deer?
What is that good for?	*A quoi cela est-il bon?*	Ah couah sla ait eel bong?

Morning.

What o'clock is it?	*Quelle heure est-il?*	Kel eur ait-eel?
It is near eight	*Il est près de huit heures*	Eel ai pray deh weet eur
Light the fire	*Faites du feu*	Fate du feuh
I am going to get up	*Je vais me lever*	Jeh vay meh levvay
Get me some hot water	*Allez me chercher de l'eau chaude*	Allai meh shairshai de lo shode
Make haste	*Ne soyez pas longtemps*	Neh swoyai pah longtong
How have you slept?	*Comment avez-vous dormi?*	Commont avai-voo dormee?
Did you sleep well?	*Avez vous bien dormi?*	Avay-voo beeang dormee
Very well, thank you	*Très-bien, je vous remercie*	Tray beeang, jeh voo remmairsee
Not very well	*Pas très-bien*	Pah tray beeang
I never woke all night	*J'ai dormi tout d'un somme*	Jay dormee too dong som
I could not sleep	*Je n'ai pas pu dormir*	Jeh nai pah pu dormeer
I never closed my eyes	*Je n'ai pas fermé l'œil*	Jeh nai pah fairmay lile
I have been up this hour	*Il y a une heure que je me suis levé*	Eel ee ah une eur keh jeh meh swee levai
You are an early riser	*Vous êtes matinal*	Vooz ait matteenal
I generally rise early	*Je me lève ordinairement de bonne heure*	Jeh meh lave ordeenaremong deh bon eur

Breakfast.

Breakfast is ready	*Le dejeûner est prêt*	Leh daijeunay ai pray
Is breakfast ready?	*Le déjeûner est-il prêt?*	Lehd aijeunay ait eel pray?
Come to breakfast	*Venez déjeûner*	Vennay daijeunay
Does the water boil?	*L'eau bout-elle*	Lo boot-el?
This water has not boiled	*Cette eau n'a pas bouilli*	Set o na pas booeellee
Is the tea made?	*Le thé est-il fait?*	Leh tay ait-eel fay?
Shall I put some green tea in the tea-pot	*Mettrai-je du thé vert dans la théière?*	Mettray-je du tay vair dong lah taiyare
Very little	*N'en mettez que très-peu*	Nong mettay keh tray peu
That is enough	*Cela est assez*	Sla ait assay
Some rolls	*Des petits pains*	Day pettee pang
Do you drink tea or coffee?	*Prenez-vous du thé ou du café?*	Prennay-voo du tay oo du caffay?
This cream is sour	*Cette crême s'est agrie*	Set crame sait agree
Will you take an egg?	*Voulez-vous manger un œuf?*	Voolay-voo maunjay un uf?
These eggs are hard	*Ces œufs sont durs*	Saze euf son dure
We want another egg-cup	*Il nous faut un autre coquetier*	Eel noo fote un otr coktyai
Give me the salt	*Donnez-moi le sel*	Donnay mouah leh sel
Pass me the butter	*Passez-moi le beurre*	Passay mouah leh beur
This butter is not fresh	*Ce beurre n'est pas frais*	Seh beur nai pa frai
Bring some more	*Allez-nous en chercher d'autre*	Allay-nooz ong shairshai dotr
Give me a spoon	*Donnez-moi une cuiller*	Donnay mouah une cweelyare
Is the coffee strong enough?	*Le café est-il assez fort?*	Leh caffay ait eel assay fore?
We want more cups	*Il nous manque des tasses*	Eel noo maunk day tass
Take some more sugar	*Prenez encore du sucre*	Prenaze auncore du sucr
A piece of toast	*Une rôtie*	Une rotee
Cold meat	*De la viande froide*	De lah veeaund frouad
The table cloth	*La nappe*	Lah nap
The sugar basin	*Le sucrier*	Leh sucreeay
Chocolate	*Du chocolat*	Du shocolah
A knife	*Un couteau*	Ung cooto
This knife is blunt	*Ce couteau ne coupe pas*	Seh cooto ne coop pas
We have done breakfast	*Nous avons fini de déjeûner*	Nooz avong feenee deh daijeunay
You can take away the things	*Vous pouvez desservir*	Voo poovai dessairveer

Ordering Dinner.

Have you ordered diner?	*Avez-vous commande le dîner?*	Avai-voo commaun dai leh deenai?
Show me the bill of fare	*Montrez-moi la carte*	Mongtray mouah lah carte
What soup will you have?	*Quelle soupe vous servirai-je?*	Kel soup voo sairveeraije?
Maccaroni soup	*De la soupe au macaroni*	Deh lah soup o maccaroni
Have you any roast-beef?	*...vez-vous du bœuf rôti?*	Avay-voo du beuf rotee?
Not to-day	*Pas aujourd'hui*	Paz ojoordwee
We have very fine fish	*Nous avons de très-bon poisson*	Nooz avong deh tray bong pouahssong
Fried soles	*Des soles frites*	Day sole freet
A dozen of prawns	*Une douzaine de salicoques*	Une doozane deh salleecok
What wines will you have?	*Quel vins Monsieur désire-t-il?*	Kel vang Mossees dayzeer-t-eel?
Let us see	*Voyons*	Vwoiyong
Have you the best wines?	*Avez-vous des vins fins?*	Avai-voo day vang fang?
Here is the list	*En voici la liste*	Ong vwoysee lah leest
We shall dine at six o'clock	*Nous dinerons à six heures*	Noo deenerongs ah seece eur
Be punctual	*Soyez exacte*	Swoyaiz exact
What shall I help you to?	*Que vous servirai-je?*	Keh voo sairveeraije?

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
Will you take some soup?	*Voulez-vous un peu de soupe?*	Voolai-vooz ung peu deh soup?
No, thank you	*Merci bien*	Mairsee beeang
Willingly	*Très-volontiers*	Tray volontyai
Help yourself	*Servez-vous*	Sairvai voo
Well done, if you please	*Bien cuit, s'il vous plaît*	Beeang cwee, see voo play
It is excellent	*Il est excellent*	Eel ait exeellong
Do you take pepper?	*Mangez-vous le poivre?*	Maunjai voo leh pouahvr
Cayenne pepper	*Le poivre rouge*	Leh pouahvr rouge
Here are spinach and brocoli	*Voici des épinards et des brocolis*	Vouasee daiz aipeenar ai day brocolee
Peas	*Des petits pois*	Day pettee pouah
Cauliflower	*Du choufleur*	Du shoofleur
Artichokes	*Des artichauts*	Daiz arteesho
Potatoes	*Des pommes de terre*	Dayz pom deh tare
The mustard pot	*Le moutardier*	Leh mootardyai
Change the plates	*Changez les assiettes*	Shaunjai laiz assyett
Give me a clean fork	*Donnez-moi une fourchette propre*	Donnay mouah une foorshet propr
Are you hungry?	*Avez-vous faim?*	Avay-voo fang?
I am hungry	*J'ai faim*	Jay fang
You don't eat	*Vous ne mangez pas*	Voo neh maunjay pa
Are you thirsty?	*Avez-vous soif?*	Avay voo souaf?
I am very thirsty	*J'ai bien soif*	Jay beeang souaf
I am dying of thirst	*Je meurs de soif*	Je meur deh souaf
Take a glass of wine	*Prenez un verre de vin*	Prennaze ung vair de vang
Bring me a glass of water	*Apportez-moi un verre d'eau fraîche*	Apportay-mouah ung vair do frashe
Give me something to drink	*Donnez-moi à boire*	Donnay mouah ah bouahr
This wine tastes of the cork	*Ce vin sent le bouchon*	Seh vang song leh booshong
It is flat	*Il est éventé*	Eel ait aivauntai
A cork-screw	*Un tire-bouchon*	Ung teer booshong

Tea.

Tea is quite ready	*Le thé est tout prêt*	Leh tay ai too pray
They are waiting for you	*On vous attend*	On vous attong
I am coming	*Me voici*	Meh vwoysee
The tea is verystrong	*Le thé est très-fort*	Leh tay ai tray fore
Pour out the tea	*Versez le thé*	Vairsay leh tay
Bring a saucer	*Apportez une soucoupe*	Apportaze une soocoop
Where are the sugar-tongs?	*Où sont les pinces?*	Ou song lay pangce?
Ring, if you please	*Sonnez, s'il vous plaît*	Sonnay, see voo play
A little more milk	*Encore un peu de lait*	Auncore ung peu deh lay
What will you take?	*Que prendrez-vous?*	Keh praundray voo?

English.	French.	Pronunciation.
A slice of bread and butter	*Une beurrée. — une tartine de beurre*	Une beurray.—Une tarteen deh beur
Hand the plate	*Passez l'assiette*	Passay lassyett
Will you take some cake?	*Voulez-vous du gâteau?*	Voolay voo du gahto?
A small piece	*Un petit morceau*	Ung pettee morso
Make more toast	*Faites encore des rôties*	Fates auncore day rotee
Make haste	*Dépêchez-vous*	Daypayshay voo
This is excellent tea	*Voilà d'excellent thé*	Vwoyla dexcellong tay
The tea-tray	*Le cabaret*	Leh cabbaray
The milk-jug	*Le pot au lait*	Leh pote o lay
A set of tea-things	*Un service*	Ung sairveece
Have you finished?	*Avez-vous déjà fini?*	Avay voo dayja fe nee
Take another cup	*Prenez encore une tasse*	Prennaze auncore une tass
No, thank you	*Merci bien*	Mairsee beeang
Brown bread	*Du pain bis*	Du pang bee
White bread	*Du pain blanc*	Du pang blong
Stale bread	*Du pain rassis*	Du pang rassee
New bread	*Du pain frais*	Dupang fray

Evening.

It is late	*Il est tard*	Eel ay tar
It is not late	*Il n'est pas tard*	Eel nay pa tar
What o'clock is it?	*Quelle heure est-il?*	Kel eur ait-eel?
It is still early	*Il est encore de bonne heure*	Eel ait auncore deh bon eur
Are you tired?	*Etes-vous fatigué?*	Ait voo fateegay?
Not at all	*Point du tout*	Pouang du too
Not much	*Pas beaucoup*	Pa bocoo
It is only ten	*Il n'est que dix heures*	Eel nay keh deeze eur
It is time to go to bed	*Il est l'heure de se coucher*	Eel ai leur deh seh cooshay
Is my room ready?	*Ma chambre est-elle prêt?*	Ma shaumbr ai'-el prate?
Go and see	*Allez-voir*	Allay vouahr
Draw the curtain	*Fermez ce rideau*	Fairmay seh reedo
A blanket	*Une couverture de laine*	Une coovairture deh lane
Good night	*Bon soir*	Bong souahr
I wish you a good night	*Je vous souhaite une bonne nuit*	Jeh voo sooate une bon nwee
I am sleepy	*J'ai sommeil*	J'ay sommail
Are you sleepy?	*Avez-vous sommeil?*	Avay voo sommail?

A good vocabulary will now enable the student to progress, and this, with the writing and exercises, will make the diligent student master of the language.

German Self-Taught.

Alphabet and Pronunciation.

The German Alphabet consists of the following 26 letters:

English Character.	German Character.	Name of the letter.	Pronunciation.
A a	𝔄 𝔞	ah	as a in "pārt," "fār."
B b	𝔅 𝔟	bay	as in English.
C c	ℭ 𝔠	tsay	as c in "cure" if before a, o, u, a consonant or when final. "Ch" is pron. like the "ch" in the Scotch word "loch."
D d	𝔇 𝔡	day	as in English.
E e	𝔈 𝔢	ay	as a in "nāme" when long, as e in "tĕll" when short.
F f ff	𝔉 𝔣 𝔣𝔣	ef	as in English.
G g	𝔊 𝔤	gay	as g in "go."
H h	ℌ 𝔥	hah	like h in "horse."
I i	ℑ 𝔦	e	as i in "fit."
J j	𝔍 𝔧	yot	as y in "yes."
K k	𝔎 𝔨	kah	
L l	𝔏 𝔩	el	
M m	𝔐 𝔪	em	
N n	𝔑 𝔫	en	
O o	𝔒 𝔬	o	as in English.
P p	𝔓 𝔭	pay	
Q q	𝔔 𝔮	koo	
R r	ℜ 𝔯	err	
S s	𝔖 𝔰 ſ	es	as s in "sin"—sch is pron. like sh in "ship."
T t	𝔗 𝔱	tay	as t in "table."
St	(St)	s-tay	
U u	𝔘 𝔲	oo	as oo in "stool."
V v	𝔙 𝔳	fow	as f in "far."
W w	𝔚 𝔴	vay	as v in "very."
X x	𝔛 𝔵	iks	as x in "fox."
Y y	𝔜 𝔶	ypsilon	as y in "system."
Z z	ℨ 𝔷	tset	as ts in "fits."

Simple Vowels are:

a, e, i, o, u.

Compound Vowels:

æ pronounced as a in "fate."

œ " like eu in the French word "feu," or u in "much."

ui " "eeyu," or like u in the French word "sure."

The last two have no exact corresponding sound in the English language—Let a native pronounce it for you, and you will easily catch the sound.

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	
der	die	das	is the German Article.
dār	dee	das	

Every German substantive is written with a capital letter.

Golden Rule:

Always learn the Gender of the Substantive.

Observation.

In the first part of this book, the German has been printed in the English characters to facilitate its reading, but as most German books are printed in the German characters, that type has been adopted for the second part, and must there be studied.

The Saxon Words.

The Earth.

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
The earth	die Erde	dee airday
the fire	das Feuer	das feuer
the water	das Wasser	das vasser
the rainwater	das Regenwasser	das regenvasser
the stream	der Strom	dār storm
the sea	die See	dee say
the weather	das Wetter	das vetter
the summer weather	das Sommerwetter	das sommervetter
the winter weather	das Winterwetter	das vintervetter
the wind	der Wind	dār vind
the rain	der Regen	dār regen
the storm	der Sturm	dār stoorm
the hail	der Hagel	dār hahgel
the frost	der Frost	dār frost
the summer	der Sommer	dār sommer
the winter	der Winter	dār vinter
the snow	der Schnee	dār shnā
the ice	das Eis	das ice
the thunder	der Donner	dār donner
the morning	der Morgen	dār morgen
the day	der Tag	dār tāg

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the midday	der Mittag	dār mittāg
the night	die Nacht	dee nacht
the moon	der Mond	dār mond
the sun	die Sonne	dee sonnā
the star	der Stern	dār stārn
the light	das Licht	das licht
the year	das Jahr	das yahr

The Human Body.

The arm	der Arm	dār arm
the beard	der Bart	dār bart
the blood	das Blut	das bloot
the bosom	der Busen	dār boosen
the breast (chest)	die Brust	dee broost
the eye	das Auge	das owgay
the ear	das Ohr	das ore
the chin	das Kinn	das kin
the eyebrows	die Augenbrauen	dee owgenbrowen
the elbows	der Elbogen	dār elbogen
the fist	die Faust	dee fowst
the finger	der Finger	dār finger
the flesh	das Fleisch	das flyshe
the foot	der Fuss	dār foos
the hair	das Haar	das har
the hand	die Hand	dee hand
the right hand	die rechte Hand	dee rechtāy hand
the left hand	die linke Hand	dee linkāy hand
the heart	das Herz	das hārz
the hip	die Hüfte	dee heeyuftay
the knee	das Knie	das knee
the lip	die Lippe	dee lippay
the underlip	die Unterlippe	dee oonterlippay
the upperlip	die Oberlippe	dee oberlippay
the neck	der Nacken	dār nacken
the nose	die Nase	dee nazay
the mouth	der Mund	dār moond

Relations.

The father	der Vater	dār fater
the grand-father	der Grossvater	dār grosfater
the step-father	der Stiefvater	dār steeffater
the fatherland	das Vaterland	das faterland
the mother	die Mutter	dee mootter
the brother	der Bruder	dār brooder
the sister	die Schwester	dee shwester
the uncle	der Onkel	dār onkel
the aunt	die Tante	dee tantay
the nephew	der Neffe	dār neffay
the niece	die Nichte	dee nichtay
the girl (maiden)	das Mädchen	das mädchen
the man	der Mann	dār man
the young man	der junge Mann	dār joongay man
the old man	der alte Mann	dār altay man
the wife (woman)	das Weib	das vyb
the bride	die Braut	dee browt
the widow	die Wittwe	dee vitvay
the widower	der Wittwer	dār vitver
the guest	der Gast	dār gast
the neighbor	der Nachbar	dār nachbar
the friend	der Freund	der froind

Nutriments.

The beer	das Bier	das beer
the glass	das Glas	das glas
the flask (bottle)	die Flasche	dee flashay
the bread	das Brod	das brod

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
fresh bread	frisches Brod	frishes brod
the butter	die Butter	dee bootter
fresh butter	frische Butter	frishay bootter
the cheese	der Käse	dār casay
the honey	der Honig	dār honig
the milk	die Milch	dee milch
the buttermilk	die Buttermilch	dee boottermilch
the oil	das Oel	das eul
the fish	der Fisch	dār fish
the flesh (meat)	das Fleisch	das flyshe
the wine	der Wein	dār vine
old wine	alter Wein	alter vine
the punch	der Punsch	dār poonch
the rum	der Rum	dār room
the water	das Wasser	das vasser
the salt	das Salz	das saltz
the pepper	der Pfeffer	dār pfeffer
the salad	der Salat	dār salat
the soup	die Suppe	dee sooppay
the beefsteak	das Beefsteak	das beefsteak
the pudding	der Pudding	dār poodding
the coffee	der Kaffee	dār kaffay
the tea	der Thee	dār tay
the chocolate	die Chokolade	dee chocoladay
the lemonade	die Limonade	dee limonadday

Town and Country. House and Garden.

The house	das Haus	das house
the garden	der Garten	dār garten
the land	das Land	das land
the market	der Markt	dār markt
the street	die Strasse	dee strassay
the church	die Kirche	dee keerchay
the post	die Post	dee post
the bank	die Bank	dee bank
the theater	das Theater	das tayater
the hospital	das Hospital	das hospital
the coffeehouse	das Kaffeehaus	das kaffayhouse
the palace	der Palast	dār palast
the haven (harbor)	der Hafen	dār hafen
the door	die Thür	dee teeyur
the bed	das Bett	das bet
the mattress	die Matratze	dee matratzay
the oven	der Ofen	dār ofen
the glass	das Glas	das glass
the beerglass	das Bierglas	das beerglass
the wineglass	das Weinglas	das vineglass
the stool (chair)	der Stuhl	dār stool
the field	das Feld	das feld
the dale (valley)	das Thal	das taal
the wood (forest)	der Wald	dār vald
the bush	der Busch	dār boosh
the heath	die Haide	dee hiday
the hill	der Hügel	dār heeyugel
the mill	die Mühle	dee meeyullay
the corn	das Korn	das korn
the straw	das Stroh	das shtro.

The Professions and Trades.

The baker	der Bäcker	dār becker
the bookbinder	der Buchbinder	dār boochbinder
the book	das Buch	das booch
the doctor	der Doktor	dār doktor
the hat	der Hut	dār hoot
the hatter	der Hutmacher	dār hootmacher
the shoe	der Schuh	dār shoe

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the shoemaker	der Schuhmacher	dār shoemacher
the beard	der Bart	dār bart
the barber	der Barbier	dār barbeer
the glass	das Glas	das glass
the glazier	der Glaser	dār glaser
the nail	der Nagel	dār nagel
the saddle	der Sattel	dār sattel
the saddler	der Sattler	dār sattler
the mill	die Mühle	dee meeyullay
the miller	der Müller	dār meeyuller
the master	der Meister	dār miceter
dancing	tanzen	tanzen
the dancingmaster	der Tanzmeister	dār tanzmiceter
the post	die Post	dee post
the postmaster	der Postmeister	dār posmiceter
to ride	reiten	riten
the ridingmaster	der Reitmeister	dār ritemiceter
the school	die Schule	dee shoolay
the schoolmaster	der Schulmeister	dār shoolmiceter
the smith	der Schmid	dār shmit
the smithy	die Schmiede	dee shmiday
the nailsmith (nail-maker)	der Nagelschmid	dār nagelshmit
the goldsmith	der Goldschmid	dār goldshmit
the coppersmith	der Kupferschmid	dār koopfershmit
the weaver	der Weber	dār vayber
the king	der König	dār keunig
the prince	der Prinz	dār prints
the baron	der Baron	dār baron
the officer	der Officier	dār offeezeer
the soldier	der Soldat	dār soldat
the pope	der Papst	dār papst
the archbishop	der Erzbischof	dār erzbishof
the bishop	der Bischof	dār bishof

The Clothing.

The jacket	die Jacke	dee yackay
the shoe	der Schuh	dār shoe
the hat	der Hut	dār hoot
the brush	die Bürste	dee beeyurstay
the hairbrush	die Haarbürste	dee harbeeyurstay
the frock (coat)	der Frack	dār frak
the wool	die Wolle	dee vollay
the stick	der Stock	dār stock
the cravat	die Cravatte	dee cravate
the purse	die Börse	dee beursay
the cap	die Kappe	dee kappay
the ring	der Ring	dār ring

The Quadrupeds.

The hound (dog)	der Hund	dār hoond
the cat	die Katze	dee katzay
the rat	die Ratte	dee rattay
the mouse	die Maus	dee mouse
the swine (pig)	das Schwein	das shvine
the hare	der Hase	dār hazay
the roe	das Reh	das ray
the ox	der Ochse	dār ocksay
the bull	der Bulle	dār boollay
the cow	die Kuh	dee koo
the calf	das Kalb	das kalb
the sheep	das Schaf	das shaf
the lamb	das Lamm	das lam
the fox	der Fuchs	dār fooks
the wolf	der Wolf	dār volf
the bear	der Bär	dār bear
the elephant	der Elephant	dār elefant
the camel	das Kameel	das camale

Birds, Fishes, and Insects.

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
The swan	der Schwan	dār shvan
the falcon	der Falke	dār falkay
the goose	die Gans	dee gans
the stork	der Storch	dār storch
the snipe	die Schnepfe	dee shnepfay
the raven	der Rabe	dār rabay
the lark	die Lerche	dee lerchay
the crow	die Krähe	dee krayay
the nightingale	die Nachtigal	dee nachtigal
the cuckoo	der Kuckuck	dār kookook
the swallow	die Schwalbe	dee shvalbay
the finch	der Finke	dār finkay
the sparrow	der Sperling	dār sperling
the fish	der Fisch	dār fish
the carp	der Karpfen	dār carpfen
the herring	der Hering	dār hering
the eel	der Aal	dār aale
the frog	der Frosch	dār frosh
the worm	der Wurm	dār voorm
the spider	die Spinne	dee spinnay
the oyster	die Auster	dee ouster
the crab	der Krebs	dār kreps
the flea	der Floh	dār flo
the fly	die Fliege	dee fleegay
the bee	die Biene	dee beenay
the wasp	die Wespe	dee vespay
the snail	die Schnecke	dee shneckay

Minerals and Metals, etc.

The gold	das Gold	das gold
the silver	das Silber	das silber
the copper	das Kupfer	das koopfer
the iron	das Eisen	das isen
the tin	das Zinn	das zin
the steel	der Stahl	dār staal
the zinc	das Zink	das zinc
the bronze	die Bronze	dee bronze
the diamond	der Diamant	dār deeamant
the pearl	die Perle	dee parelay
the coral	die Koralle	dee corallay
the marble	der Marmor	dār marmor
the gypsum	der Gyps	dār gyps
the lime (clay)	der Lehm	dār lame
the chalk	der Kalk	dār calk
the coal	die Kohle	die coalay
the earth	die Erde	dee airday
the sand	der Sand	dār sand
the stone	der Stein	dār stine

Ships and Shipping.

The ship	das Schiff	das shiff
the boat	das Boot	das boat
the ship of the line	das Linienschiff	das leenee-enshiff
the fisherboat	das Fischerboot	das fisherboat
the anchor	der Anker	dār anker
the deck	das Deck	das deck
the flag	die Flagge	dee flaggay
the mast	der Mast	dār mast
the foremast	der Vordermast	dār forderman
the sail	das Segel	das saygel
the strand	der Strand	dār strand
the rudder	das Ruder	das rooder
the net	das Netz	das nets
the lading (freight)	die Ladung	dee ladung

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the freight	die Fracht	dee fracht
the coast	die Küste	dee keeyustay
the cliff	die Klippe	dee klippay
the downs	die Dünen	dee deeyunen
the haven	der Hafen	dār hafen
the ground	der Grund	dār groond
the storm	der Sturm	dār stoorm
the fleet	die Flotte	dee flottay
the frigate	die Fregatte	dee fregatay

Colors.

White	weiss	vise
red	roth	rote
blue	blau	blou
brown	braun	brouwn
gray	grau	grou
green	grün	greeyun
yellow	gelb	gelb
orange	orange	orange
purple	purpur	poorpoor
violet	violett	veeolet

Adjectives.

Old	alt	alt
young	jung	joong
new	neu	noi
great	gross	gross
good	gut	goot
rich	reich	riche
cold	kalt	kalt
warm	warm	varm
long	lang	lang
high	hoch	hoch
full	voll	fol
cool	kühl	keeyul
near	nahe	naay
hard	hart	hart
light	leicht	licht
wild	wild	vild
fat	fett	fett
fine	fein	fine
mild	mild	mild
deep	tief	teef
fresh	frisch	frish
ripe	reif	rife
unripe	unreif	oonrife
bitter	bitter	bitter
small	schmal	shmal
wide	weit	vite
open	offen	offen
loud	laut	lout
right	recht	recht
wise	weise	visay
blind	blind	blind
unwell	unwohl	oonvole
hot	heiss	hise
thick	dick	dick
neat	nett	net
thin	dünn	deeyunn
broad	breit	brite
round	rund	roond
false	falsch	falsh
sour	sauer	sour
hollow	hohl	hole
sharp	scharf	sharf
flat	flach	flach

Verbs.

English.	German.	Pronunciation
To eat	essen	essen
to drink	trinken	trinken
to dream	träumen	troymen
to wash	waschen	vashen
to comb	kämmen	kammen
to go	gehen	gayen
to speak	sprechen	shprechen
to laugh	lachen	lachen
to think	denken	denken
to learn	lernen	lernen
to bathe	baden	baden
to break	brechen	brechen
to bite	beissen	bisen
to cost	kosten	costen
to hear	hören	heuren
to help	helfen	helfen
to give	geben	gayben
to make (do)	machen	machen
to do	thun	toon
to ride	reiten	riten
to say	sagen	sagen
to send	senden	senden
to seek	suchen	soochen

The most Necessary Words which Deviate from the English.

The World and its Elements.

God	Gott	got
the Creator	der Schöpfer	dār sheupfer
Nature	die Natur	dee natoor
the sky	der Himmel	dār himmel
the world	die Welt	dee velt
the air	die Luft	dee looft
the cloud	die Wolke	dee volkay
the storm	das Gewitter	das gevitter
the lightning	der Blitz	dār blitz
the rainbow	der Regenbogen	dār raygenbogen
the fog	der Nebel	dār naybel
the river	der Fluss	dār floos
the brook	der Bach	dār bach
the lake	der See	dār zay
the sea	das Meer	das mare
the tide	die Fluth	dee floot
the ebb	die Ebbe	dee ebbay
the shore	das Ufer	das oofer
the mountain	der Berg	dār berg
the meadow	die Wiese	dee veesay
the forest	der Wald	dār vald

The Human Body.

The body	der Körper	dār kurper
the skin	die Haut	dee hout
the face	das Gesicht	das gesicht
the head	der Kopf	dār kopf
the forehead	die Stirn	dee steern
the tongue	die Zunge	dee zoongay
the tooth	der Zahn	dār zaan

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the stomach	der Magen	dār maagen
the voice	die Stimme	dee stimmay
the hearing	das Gehör	das geheure
the sight	das Gesicht	das gesicht
the taste	der Geschmack	dār geshmack
the feeling	das Gefühl	das gefeeyul
the smell	der Geruch	dār gerooch
the neck	der Hals	dār hals
the back	der Rücken	der reeyucken
the leg	das Bein	das bine

Relations.

The woman	die Frau	dee frou
the boy	der Knabe	dār knabay
the girl	das Mädchen	das madchen
the child	das Kind	das kind
the old man	der Greis	dār grice
the parents	die Eltern	dee eltern
the father-in-law	der Schwiegervater	dār shveegayrfater
the mother-in-law	die Schwiegermutter	dee schveegayrmootter
the brother-in-law	der Schwager	dār shvaager
the cousin	der Vetter	dār fetter
the aunt	die Tante	dee tantay
the marriage	die Heirath	dee hirath
the wedding	die Hochzeit	dee hochzite

Nutriments.

The meal	die Mahlzeit	dee malzite
breakfast	das Frühstück	das freeyuhsteeyuck
dinner	das Mittagessen	das mittagessen
the refreshment	die Erfrischung	dee erfrischoong
supper	das Abendbrod	das abendbrode
boiled meat	gekochtes Fleisch	gekochtes flishe
roast meat	Braten	braaten
beef	Rindsfleisch	rindsflishe
roast-beef	Rinderbraten	rinderbraaten
veal	Kalbfleisch	kalbflishe
calves-liver	Kalbsleber	kalbslayber
veal-cutlets	Kalbscoteletten	kalbscotlett
mutton	Hammelfleisch	hamelflishe
a leg of mutton	eine Hammelkeule	inay hamelskoylay
pork	Schweinefleisch	shvinayflishe
ham	Schinken	shinken
bacon	Speck	speck
a sausage	eine Wurst	inay voorst
vegetables	Gemüse	gemeeyusay
a pie	eine Pastete	inay pastatay
an omelet	ein Eierkuchen	ine eyerkoochen
cake	Kuchen	koochen
cheese	Käse	casay
eggs	Eier	eyer
Hock	Rheinwein	rhinevine
Port-wine	Portwein	portvine
Sherry	Xereswein	xeresvine

Eating Utensils.

The eating	das Essen	das essen
the drinking	das Trinken	das trinken
the table-cloth	das Tischtuch	das tischtooch
the napkin	die Serviette	dee serviette
the plate	der Teller	dār teller
the knife	das Messer	das messer

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the fork	die Gabel	dee gaabel
the spoon	der Löffel	dār leuffel
the vinegar	der Essig	dār essig
the mustard	der Mostrich	dār mostrich
the cup	die Tasse	dee tassay
the dish	die Schüssel	dee sheeyussel

The Sea.

The Ocean	der Ocean	dār oatsayan
the Baltic	die Ostsee	dee ostsay
the North-Sea	die Nordsee	dee nordsay
the channel	der Kanal	dār canal
the island	die Insel	dee insel
the shore	die Küste	dee keeyustay
the waves	die Wellen	dee vellen
the tide	die Fluth	dee floot
the rock	der Fels	dār fels
the beach	die Seeküste	dee saykeeyustay
the navy	die Marine	dee mareenay
the vessel	das Schiff	das shiff
the steamer	das Dampfboot	das dampfboat
the man-of-war	das Kriegsschiff	das kreegsshiff
the merchant vessel	der Kauffahrer	dār kowffaarer
the rudder	das Ruder	das rooder
the rigging	das Takelwerk	das tackleverk
the cabin	die Kajüte	dee cayutay
the stern	das Hintertheil	das hintertile
the bow	der Bug	dār boog
the main-top	der Mastkorb	dār mastkorb
the oar	das Ruder	das rooder
the rope	das Tau	das tou
the captain	der Kapitän	dār capiten
the boatswain	der Bootsmann	dār boatsman
the sailor	der Matrose	dār matrosay
the cabin-boy	der Schiffsjunge	dār schiffsyunge
the pilot	der Lootse	dār loatsay
the light-house	der Leuchtthurm	dār loychtoorm
the harbor	der Hafen	dār hafen

Time and Seasons.

A century	ein Jahrhundert	ine yarhoondert
the year	das Jahr	das yar
the month	der Monat	dār monat
the week	die Woche	dee wochay
the day	der Tag	dār tag
the hour	die Stunde	dee stoondav
half-an-hour	eine halbe Stunde	inay halbay stoonday
the minute	die Minute	dee minutay
the second	die Sekunde	dee secoonde
the seasons	die Jahreszeiten	dee yaresziten
spring	Frühling	freeyuling
summer	Sommer	sommer
autumn	Herbst	harebst
winter	Winter	vinter
January	Januar	yanooar
February	Februar	febrooar
March	März	mayrz
April	April	apreel
May	Mai	my
June	Juni	yoonee
July	Juli	yoolee
August	August	owgoost
September	September	september
October	October	october
November	November	november
December	December	detzember

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the days of the week	die Wochentage	dee vochentagay
Sunday	Sonntag	sontag
Monday	Montag	monetag
Tuesday	Dienstag	deenstag
Wednesday	Mittwoch	mittvoch
Thursday	Donnerstag	donnerstag
Friday	Freitag	fritag
Saturday	Sonnabend	sonabend
a holyday	ein Feiertag	ine firetag
Christmas	Weihnachten	vinachten
Easter	Ostern	ostern
Whitsuntide	Pfingsten	pfingsten
the morning	der Morgen	dār morgen
noon	Mittag	mittag
the afternoon	der Nachmittag	dār nachmittag
the evening	der Abend	dār abend
the night	die Nacht	dee nacht
midnight	Mitternacht	mitternacht
sunrise	Sonnenaufgang	sonnenowfgang
sunset	Sonnenuntergang	sonnenoontergang

The Town.

The city	die Stadt	dee stadt
the suburb	die Vorstadt	dee forstadt
the gates	die Thore	dee toray
the edifice	das Gebäude	das geboiday
the tower	der Thurm	dār toorm
the cathedral	der Dom	dār dome
the church-yard	der Kirchhof	dār keerchhof
the town hall	das Rathhaus	das raathouse
the arsenal	das Zeughaus	das zoyghouse
the mint	die Münze	dee meeyunzay
the custom house	das Zollhaus	das zollhouse
the library	die Bibliothek	dee bibleeotake
the university	die Universität	dee ooniversitate
the exchange	die Börse	dee beursay
the prison	das Gefängniss	das gefengniss
the square	der Platz	dār platz
the lane	die Gasse	dee gassay
the bridge	die Brücke	dee breeyuckay
the monument	das Monument	das monooment
the dining-room	das Speisehaus	das spysayhouse
the public house	das Bierhaus	das beerhouse
the shop	der Laden	dār laaden

The House.

The bell	die Glocke	dee glockay
the knocker	der Klopfer	dār klopfer
to open	öffnen	eufnen
the servant	die Magd	dee magd
the staircase	die Treppe	dee treppay
the room	das Zimmer	das tzimmer
the drawing-room	das Putzzimmer	das pootstzimmer
the sitting-room	das Wohnzimmer	das vohntzimmer
the dining-room	das Esszimmer	das estzimmer
the sleeping-room	das Schlafzimmer	das shlaftzimmer
the kitchen	die Küche	dee keeyuchay
the cellar	der Keller	dār keller
the window	das Fenster	das fenster
the stove	der Ofen	dār ofen
the chimney	der Kamin	dār kameen
the looking-glass	der Spiegel	dār speegel
the table	der Tisch	dār tish
the chair	der Stuhl	dār stool
the armchair	der Armstuhl	dār armstool
the carpet	der Teppich	dār teppich
the chest of drawers	die Kommode	dee commoday
the sofa	das Sopha	das sofa
the candlestick	der Leuchter	dār loychter
the candle	das Licht	das licht
the lamp	die Lampe	dee lampay
the wick	der Docht	dar docht
the oil	das Oel	das eul
to light	anzünden	anzeeyuenden
the bed	das Bett	das bet
the counterpane	die Bettdecke	dee bettdeckay
the sheets	die Bettücher	dee betteeyucher
the pillow	das kopfkissen	das kopfkissen
the basin	das waschbecken	das vashbecken
the soap	die Seife	dee sifay
the towel	das Handtuch	das handtooch
warm water	warmes Wasser	varmes vasser
cold water	kaltes Wasser	kaltes vasser
hot water	heisses Wasser	heyses vasser
to wash	waschen	vashen
the comb	der Kamm	dār kam
to comb	kämmen	kemmen

Fruits, Trees, and Flowers.

The apple	der Apfel	dār apfel
the apple-tree	der Apfelbaum	dār apfelbowm
the pear	die Birne	dee beernay
the pear-tree	der Birnbaum	dār beernbowm
the plum	die Pflaume	dee pflowmay
the plum-tree	der Pflaumenbaum	dār pflowmenbowm
the cherry	die Kirsche	dee keershay
the chestnut	die Kastanie	dee kastanyay
the peach	der Pfirsich	dār pfeersich
the apricot	die Apricose	dee apreecosay
the orange	die Apfelsine	dee apfelseenay
the lemon	die Citrone	dee citronay
the grape	die Weintraube	dee vinetrowbay
the nut	die Nuss	dee nooss
the walnut	die Wallnuss	dee valnooss
the currant	die Johannisbeere	dee yohanisbaray
the gooseberry	die Stachelbeere	dee stachelbaray
the raspberry	die Himbeere	dee himbaray
the blackberry	die Brombeere	dee brombaray
the strawberry	die Erdbeere	dee erdbaray
the oak	die Eiche	dee ichay
the beech	die Buche	dee boochay
the poplar	die Pappel	dee papel
the lime	die Linde	dee linday
the ash	die Eshe	dee eshay
the fir	die Tanne	dee tannay
the willow	die Weide	dee viday
the rose	die Rose	dee rosay
the pink	die Nelke	dee nelkay
the tulip	die Tulpe	dee toolpay
the lily	die Lilie	dee leeleeay
the violet	das Veilchen	das filechen
the lilac	der Flieder	dār fleeder
the lily of the valley	das Maiblümchen	das mybleeyumchen

Animals, Birds, Fishes, and Insects.

The horse	das Pferd	das pfayrd
the colt	das Füllen	das feeyullen
the donkey	der Esel	dār aysel
the goat	die Ziege	dee tzeegay
the dog	der Hund	dār Hoond
the pig	das Schwein	das shvine

English	German.	Pronunciation.
the duck	die Ente	dee entay
the pigeon	die Taube	dee towbay
the cock	der Hahn	dār haan
the chicken	das Hühnchen	das heeyunchen
the wild boar	der Eber	dār ayber
the stag	der Hirsch	dār heersch
the chamois	die Gemse	dee gemsay
the rabbit	das Kaninchen	das caneenchen
the eagle	der Adler	dār adler
the hawk	der Habicht	dār habicht
the pheasant	der Fasan	dār fasan
the bat	die Fledermaus	dee flaydermouse
the partridge	das Rebhuhn	das rebhoon
the peacock	der Pfau	dār pfow
the lobster	der Hummer	dār hoommer
the pike	der Hecht	dār hecht
the perch	der Barsch	dār barsh
the salmon	der Lachs	dār lacks
the trout	die Forelle	dee forellay
the snake	die Schlange	dee shlangay
the ant	die Ameise	dee amisay
the butterfly	der Schmetterling	dār shmetterling

The Dress.

The clothes	die Kleider	dee klider
the coat	der Rock	dār rock
the trowsers	die Hosen	dee hozen
the pocket	die Tasche	dee tashay
the buttons	die Knöpfe	dee kneupfay
the dressing-gown	der Schlafrock	dār shlafrock
the slippers	die Pantoffeln	dee pantofeln
the drawers	die Unterhosen	dee oonterhosen
the stockings	die Strümpfe	dee streeyumpfay
the shirt	das Hemd	das hemd
the braces	die Hosenträger	dee hozentrayger
the waistcoat	die Weste	dee vestay
the boot	der Stiefel	dār steefel
the boot-jack	der Stiefelknecht	dār steefelknecht
the cap	die Mütze	dee meeyutzay
the gloves	die Handschuhe	dee handshooay
the handkerchief	das Taschentuch	das tashentooch
the watch	die Uhr	dee oor
the umbrella	der Regenschirm	dār raygensheerm
the purse	die Börse	dee borsay
the brush	die Bürste	dee beeyurstay
the comb	der Kamm	dār kam
the apron	die Schürze	dee sheeyurzay
the fan	der Fächer	dār fecher
the dress	das Kleid	das klide
the petticoat	der Unterrock	dār oonterrock
the stays	der Schnürleib	dār shneeyurlibe
the veil	der Schleier	dār shlier
the powder	der Puder	dār pooder
the soap	die Seife	dee zifay
the tooth-powder	das Zahnpulver	das tzaanpoolver

Traveling.

The voyage	die Seereise	dee zayreyzay
the traveler	der Reisende	dār reyzenday
the road	die Landstrasse	dee landstrassay
the rail-road	die Eisenbahn	dee isenbaan
the station	die Station	dee statzion
the train	der Zug	dār tzoog
the engine	die Maschine	dee masheenay
the carriage	der Wagen	dār vaagen
the departure	die Abreise	dee abreyzay
the arrival	die Ankunft	dee ankoonft
the passport	der Pass	dār pass
the inn (hotel)	der Gasthof	dār gasthof
the landlord	der Wirth	dār veert
the waiter	der Kellner	dār kelner
the bill	die Rechnung	dee rechnoong
the interpreter	der Dolmetscher	dār dolmetsher
the luggage	das Gepäck	das gepeck
the trunk	der Koffer	dār coffer
the carpet-bag	der Reisesack	dār rizayzack

Of Writing.

The paper	das Papier	das papier
the writing-paper	das Schreibpapier	das shribepapeer
the writing	die Schrift	dee shrift
the sheet	der Bogen	dār bogen
the pen	die Feder	dee fayder
the steel pen	die Stahlfeder	dee staalfayder
the penknife	das Federmesser	das faydermesser
the inkstand	das Tintenfass	das tintenfas
the ink	die Tinte	dee tintay
the pencil	der Bleistift	dār blystift
the scissors	die Scheere	dee shayray
the seal	das Petschaft	das petshaft
the sealing-wax	der Siegellack	dār seegellack
the wafer	die Oblate	dee oblaatay
the ruler	das Lineal	das leenayal
the letter	der Brief	dār breef
the note	das Billet	das bilget
the envelope	das Couvert	das coovayrt
the date	das Datum	das datoom
the direction	die Adresse	dee adressay
the post	die Post	dee post

Countries and Nations.

The country	das Land	das land
the native land	das Vaterland	das faterland
the state	der Staat	dār staat
the empire	das Reich	das riche
the kingdom	das Königreich	das keunigriche
Europe	Europa	Europa
the European	der Europäer	dār Europayer
America	Amerika	America
the American	der Amerikaner	dār Amerikaaner
Asia	Asien	Azien
Africa	Afrika	Afrika
the East Indies	Ostindien	Ostindien
the West Indies	Westindien	Vestindien
the United States	die Vereinigten Staaten	dee vereinigten staaten
Brazil	Brasilien	Brazilien
England	England	England
the Englishman	der Engländer	dār Englender
Ireland	Irland	Eerland
the Irishman	der Irländer	dār Eerlender
Scotland	Schottland	Shotland
the Scotchman	der Schotte	dār Shottay
France	Frankreich	Frankrich
the Frenchman	der Franzose	dār Frantzosay
Germany	Deutschland	Doytshland
the German	der Deutsche	dār Doytshay
Holland	Holland	Holland
the Dutchman	der Holländer	dār Hollender
Austria	Oesterreich	Osterrich
the Austrian	der Oesterreicher	dār Osterricher
Prussia	Preussen	Proyssen

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
the Prussian	der Preusse	dār Proyssay
Russia	Russland	Roossland
the Russian	der Russe	dār Roossay
Sweden	Schweden	Shvayden
the Swede	der Schwede	dār Shvayday
Denmark	Dänemark	Danemark
the Dane	der Däne	dār Daynay
Switzerland	die Schweiz	die Shvitze
the Swiss	der Schweizer	dār Shvitzer
Italy	Italien	Italyen
the Italian	der Italiener	dār Italiayner
Spain	Spanien	Spanyen
the Spaniard	der Spanier	dār Spaneeare
Greece	Griechenland	Greechenland
the Greek	der Grieche	dār Greechay
Turkey	die Türkei	dee Teeyurki
the Turk	der Türke	dār Teeyurkay
the Jew	der Jude	dār Yooday
the Persian	der Perser	dār Perzer

Trade.

The merchant	der Kaufmann	dār kowfman
the shop	der Laden	dār laaden
the counting-house	das Comptoir	das congtwor
the merchandise	die Waare	dee vaaray
the wholesale merchant	der Grosshändler	dār grosshendler
the retailer	der Kleinhändler	dār klinehendler
the correspondent	der Correspondent	dār correspondent
the stock	das Lager	das laager
the daybook	das Journal	das joornal
the ledger	das Hauptbuch	das howptbooch
the cash-book	das Kassabuch	das cassabooch
the invoice	die Factur	dee factoor
the bill of exchange	der Wechsel	dār vechsel
the remittance	die Rimesse	dee rimessay
the acceptance	das Accept	das accept
the payment	die Bezahlung	dee betzaaloong
the receipt	die Quittung	dee quittoong
the buyer	der Käufer	dār koyfer
the seller	der Verkäufer	dār ferkoyfer
the debtor	der Debitor	dār daybeetor
the creditor	der Creditor	dār credeetor

Cardinal Numbers.

One	ein, eins	ine, ines
two	zwei	tsvi
three	drei	dri
four	vier	feer
five	fünf	feeyunf
six	sechs	zex
seven	sieben	zeeben
eight	acht	acht
nine	neun	noyn
ten	zehn	tsane
eleven	elf	elf
twelve	zwölf	tsvelf
thirteen	dreizehn	dreytsane
fourteen	vierzehn	feertsane
fifteen	fünfzehn	feeyunftsane
sixteen	sechszehn	zexstsane
seventeen	siebenzehn	zeebentsane
eighteen	achtzehn	achttsane
nineteen	neunzehn	noyntsane
twenty	zwanzig	tsvantzig

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
21	ein und zwanzig	ine oond tsvantzig
22	zwei und zwanzig	tsvi oond tsvantzig
23	drei und zwanzig	dri oond tsvantzig
30	dreissig	dritzig
40	vierzig	feertzig
50	fünfzig	feeyunftzig
60	sechszig	zechstzig
70	siebenzig	zeebentzig
80	achtzig	achtzig
90	neunzig	noyntzig
100	hundert	hoondert
101	hundert und eins	hoondert oond ines
102	hundert und zwei	hoondert oond tsvi
200	zwei hundert	tsvi hoondert
300	drei hundert	dri hoondert
400	vier hundert	feer hoondert
500	fünf hundert	feeyunf hoondert
600	sechs hundert	zex hoondert
700	sieben hundert	zeeben hoondert
800	acht hundert,	acht hoondert
900	neun hundert	noyn hoondert
1000	tausend	towzend
2000	zwei tausend	tsvi towzend
3000	drei tausend	dri towzend
10000	zehn tausend	tsane towzend
a million	eine Million	inay milleeown
1859	ein Tausend, acht Hundert neun und fünfzig	ine towzend acht hoondert noyn oond feeyunftzig

Ordinal Numbers.

the first	der Erste	dār ayrste
" 2d	" Zweite	" tsvitay
" 3d	" Dritte	" drittay
" 4th	" Vierte	" feertay
" 5th	" Fünfte	" feeyunftay
" 6th	" Sechste	" zexte
" 7th	" Siebente	" zeebentay
" 8th	" Achte	" achtay
" 9th	" Neunte	" noyntay
" 10th	" Zehnte	" tsanetay
" 11th	" Eilfte	" elftay
" 12th	" Zwölfte	" tsvelftay
" 13th	" Dreizehnte	" dreytsanetay
" 14th	" Vierzehnte	" feertsanetay
" 15th	" Fünfzehnte	" feeyunftsanetay
" 16th	" Sechszehnte	" zechtsanetay
" 17th	" Siebenzehnte	" zeebentsanetay
" 18th	" Achtzehnte	" achtsanetay
" 19th	" Neunzehnte	" noyntsanetay
" 20th	" Zwanzigste	" tsvanzigstay
" 21st	" Ein und Zwanzigste	" ine oond tsvantsigstay
" 22d	" Zwei und Zwanzigste	" tsvi oond tsvantsigstay
" 23d	" Drei und Zwanzigste	" dri oond tsvantsigstay
" 30th	" Dreissigste	" drysigstay
" 40th	" Vierzigste	" feertsigstay
" 50th	" Fünftzigste	" feeyunftsigstay
" 60th	" Sechszigste	" zechtsigstay
" 70th	" Siebenzigste	" zeebentsigstay
" 80th	" Achtzigste	" achtsigstay
" 90th	" Neunzigste	" noyntsigstay
" 100th	" Hundertste	" hoondertstay
" 101st	" Hundert und erste	" hoondert oond ayrstay
" 200th	" Zweihundertste	" tsvi hoondertstay
" 300th	" Dreihundertste	" dri hoondertstay
" 1000th	" Tausendste	" towzendstay

Collective Numbers.

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
A pair	ein Paar	ine paar
a dozen	ein Dutzend	ine dootsend
a score	Zwanzig	tsvantsig
firstly	erstens	ayrstens
secondly	zweitens	tsvitens
thirdly	drittens	drittens
the first time	das Erstemal	das ayrstaymal
the second time	das Zweitemal	das tsvitaymal
once	einmal	inemal
twice	zweimal	tsvimal
three times	dreimal	drymal
singly	einfach	inefach
double	doppelt	doppelt
threefold	dreifach	dryfach
fourfold	vierfach	feerfach
one sort	einerlei	inerlye
two sorts	zweierlei	tsvierlye
ten sorts	zehnerlei	tzanerly

Adjectives.

Small	klein	kline
narrow	enge	engay
low	niedrig	needrig
beautiful	schön	sheun
handsome	hübsch	heeyubsh
ugly	hässlich	hesslich
bad	schlecht	shlecht
easy	leicht	leicht
heavy	schwer	schvare
soft	weich	veich
true	wahr	vaar
short	kurz	koorts
far	weit	vite
sweet	süss	seeyuss
hollow	hohl	hole
blunt	stumpf	stoompf
delicious	köstlich	keustlich
disagreeable	unangenehm	oonangenaym
honest	ehrlich	ayrlich
polite	höflich	heuflich
obliging	gefällig	gefellig
kind	gütig	geeyutig
prudent	klug	kloog
stupid	dumm	doom
ridiculous	lächerlich	lecherlich
reasonable	vernünftig	ferneeyunftig
happy	glücklich	gleeyucklich
unhappy	unglücklich	oongleeyucklich
glad	froh	fro
satisfied	zufrieden	tsoofreeden
active	thätig	tätig
rude	grob	grobe
proud	stoltz	stolts
bold	kühn	keeyuhn
strong	stark	stark
weak	schwach	shvach
attentive	aufmerksam	owfmerksam
clever	geschickt	geshickt
mild	gelind	gelind
sick	krank	krank
pale	blass	blass
healthy	gesund	gezoond
poor	arm	arm
empty	leer	lare
light	hell	hell
dark	dunkel	doonkel

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
dry	trocken	trocken
wet	nass	nass
dirty	schmutzig	shmootsig
cheap	billig	billig
clean	rein	rine
tired	müde	meeyuday
angry	böse	beusay
merry	lustig	loostig

Verbs.

To breakfast	frühstücken	freeyusteeyucken
to dine	speisen	speyzen
to sup	zu Abend essen	tsoo abend essen
to arrive	ankommen	ankommen
to depart	abreisen	abreizen
to meet	treffen	treffen
to be tired	müde sein	meeyude seyn
to be sleepy	schläfrig sein	shlafrig seyn
to excuse	entschuldigen	entshooldigen
to understand	verstehen	fārstayen
to believe	glauben	glowben
to know	wissen	vissen
to write	schreiben	shriben
to read	lesen	layzen
to pronounce	aussprechen	owssprechen
to pronounce well	gut aussprechen	goot owssprechen
to translate	übersetzen	eeyubersetsen
to recollect	sich errinnern	sich erinnern
to forget	vergessen	fārgessen
to promise	versprechen	fārsprechen
to expect	erwarten	ārvarten
to converse	unterhalten	oonterhalten
to express	ausdrücken	owsdreeyuken
to explain	erklären	ārklayren
to tell	sagen	zaagen
to call	rufen	roofen
to weep	weinen	vinen
to recommend	empfehlen	empfaylen
to receive	empfangen	empfangen
to send	schicken	shicken
to buy	kaufen	kowfen
to pay	bezahlen	betsaalen
to order	bestellen	bestellen
to furnish	liefern	leefern
to sell	verkaufen	fārkowfen
to reply	antworten	antvorten

Adverbs.

Yes	ja	yah
	ja wohl	yah vole
indeed	in der That	in dār tate
truly	wahrlich	vaarlich
certainly	gewiss	gayviss
surely	sicherlich	zicherlich
only	nur	noor
some	etwas	etvas
nothing	nichts	nichts
much	viel	feel
quite	gänzlich	gehntzlich
very	sehr	zare
so	so	zo
thus	also	alzo
how?	wie?	vee?
no	nein	nine
not	nicht	nicht
but	nur	noor

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
enough	genug	genooch
scarcely	kaum	kowm
all	ganz	gants
almost	beinahe	bynaey
here	hier	heer
there	da	da
where	wo	vo
in	herein	herine
out	heraus	herows
then	denn	den
now	jetzt	yetst
soon	bald	bald
till	bis	bis
seldom	selten	zelten
since	seit	zite
ever	immer	immer
never	nie	nee
oft	oft	oft
already	schon	schone
to-day	heute	hoytay
yesterday	gestern	gestern
late	spät	spate
why?	warum?	varoom?
because	weil	vile
if	wenn	ven
perhaps	vielleicht	feelleycht

Prepositions.

above	über	eeyuber
about	um	oom
after	nach	nach
against	gegen	gaegen
before	vor	for
of	von	fon
over	über	eeyuber
since	seit	zite
for	für	feeyur
from	von	fon
in	in	in
near	nahe	nahay
under	unter	oonter
up	auf	owf
with	mit	mit

Conjunctions.

and	und	oond
also	auch	ouch
even	sogar	sogar
or	oder	oder
nor	noch	noch
yet	doch	doch
because	weil	vile
that	dass	das
therefore	daher	dahär

NECESSARY PHRASES.

Affirmative Phrases.

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
It is true	Es ist wahr	Es ist var
It is so	Es ist so	Es ist zo
I believe it	Ich glaube es	Ich glowbay es
I think so	Ich denke es	Ich denkay es
I say yes	Ich sage ja	Ich zaagay yah
I say it is	Ich sage es ist	Ich zaagay es ist
I am certain	Ich bin gewiss	Ich bin gayviss
I am certain of it	Ich bin dessen gewiss	Ich bin dessen gayviss
You are right	Sie haben Recht	See haaben recht
You are quite right	Sie haben ganz Recht	See haaben gants recht
I know it	Ich weiss es	Ich vice es
I know it well	Ich weiss es genau	Ich vice es genow
I know him	Ich kenne ihn	Ich kennay een
I know it positively	Ich weiss es sicher	Ich vice es sicher
I promise it	Ich verspreche es	Ich versprechay es
I promise it to you	Ich versichere es Ihnen	Ich versprechay es eenen
I give it	Ich gebe es	Ich gaybay es
I give it to you	Ich gebe es Ihnen	Ich gaybay es eenen
I will give it to you	Ich will es Ihnen geben	Ich vill es eenen gayben
You are wrong	Sie haben Unrecht	See haben oonrecht
He is wrong	Er hat Unrecht	Air hat oonrecht
I believe him	Ich glaube ihm	Ich glowbay eem
Very well	Sehr wohl! / Sehr gut	Zare vole / Zare goot

Negative Phrases.

No	Nein	Nine
I say no	Ich sage nein	Ich zaagay nine
I say it is not	Ich sage es ist nicht	Ich zaagay es ist nicht
It is not so	Es ist nicht so	Es ist nicht so
It is not true	Es ist nicht wahr	Es ist nicht var
I say nothing	Ich sage nichts	Ich zaagay nichts
I will say nothing	Ich will nichts sagen	Ich vill nichts zaagen
I have nothing	Ich habe nichts	Ich haabay nichts
He is not here	Er ist nicht hier	Air ist nicht heer
I have it not	Ich habe es nicht	Ich haabay es nicht
He has it not	Er hat es nicht	Air hat es nicht
We have it not	Wir haben es nicht	Veer haaben es nicht
You have it not	Ihr habt es nicht	Eer habt es nicht
He said no	Er sagte nein	Air zaagtay nine
Has he said no?	Hat er nein gesagt?	Hat air nine gezaagt?
Has he said nothing?	Hat er nichts gesagt?	Hat air nichts gezaagt?
I did not hear	Ich habe nicht gehört	Ich haabay nicht geheurt
I have not heard it	Ich habe es nicht gehört	Ich haabay es nicht geheurt
You are quite wrong	Sie haben durchaus Unrecht	Zee haaben doorchaus oonrecht

Interrogative Phrases.

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
Who?	Wer?	Vare?
Who was it?	Wer war es?	Vare var es?
What is it?	Was iſt es?	Vas ist es?
Who is it?	Wer iſt es?	Vare ist es?
Did you say it?	Sagten Sie es?	Zaagten zee es?
What are you doing?	Was thun Sie?	Vas toon zee?
What is he doing?	Was thut er?	Vas toot air?
Tell me	Sagen Sie mir	Zaagen zee meer
Will you tell me?	Wollen Sie mir ſagen?	Vollen zee meer zaagen?
How are you?	Wie gehts?	Vee gates?
How is he?	Wie gehts ihm?	Vee gates eem?
What for?	Wofür?	Vofeeyur?
Why?	Warum?	Varoom?
Why do you ask?	Warum fragen Sie?	Varoom fraagen zee?
Why shall I go?	Warum ſoll ich gehen?	Varoom zoll ich gayen?
Why do you speak?	Warum ſprechen Sie?	Varoom shprechen zee?
Why are you silent?	Warum ſchweigen Sie?	Varoom shvigen zee?
Why did you go?	Warum gingen Sie?	Varoom gingen zee?
Is it ready?	Iſt es fertig?	Ist es färtig?
Have you heard?	Haben Sie gehört?	Haaben zee geheurt?
Do you hear?	Hören Sie?	Heuren zee?
Where?	Wo?	Vo?
Where is it?	Wo iſt es?	Vo ist es?
Where is he?	Wo iſt er?	Vo ist air?
Where is she?	Wo iſt ſie?	Vo ist zee?
Where are you?	Wo ſind Sie?	Vo zind zee?
Where are you going?	Wo gehen Sie hin?	Vo gayen zeen hin?
Where do you come from?	Wo kommen Sie her?	Vo commen zee hare?
Where were you?	Wo waren Sie?	Vo varen zee?
What?	Was?	Vas?
What is it?	Was iſt es?	Vas ist es?
What is that?	Was iſt das?	Vas ist das?
What time is it?	Was iſt die Zeit?	Vas ist dee tsite?
What o'clock is it?	Wieviel Uhr iſt es?	Veefeel oor ist es?
What have you?	Was haben Sie?	Vas haaben zee?
What do you say?	Was ſagen Sie?	Vas zaagen zee?
What did you say?	Was ſagten Sie?	Vas zaagten zee?
What do you mean?	Was meinen Sie?	Vas minen zee?
What do you want?	Was wollen Sie?	Vas vollen zee?
What will you do?	Was wollen Sie thun?	Vas vollen zee toon?

Imperative Phrases.

Come away!	Kommen Sie fort!	Kommen zee fort!
Come here!	Kommen Sie hierher!	Kommen zee heerhare?
Go there!	Gehen Sie dorthin!	Gayen zee dorthin!
Come back!	Kommen Sie zurück!	Kommen zee tsooreeyuck!
Go on!	Gehen Sie weiter!	Gayen zee viter!
Sit down!	Setzen Sie ſich!	Setsen zee zich!
Stand still!	Stehen Sie ſtill!	Stayen zee still!
Wait	Warten Sie	Varten zee
Wait for me	Warten Sie auf mich	Varten zee owf mich
Wait a little	Warten Sie ein wenig	Varten zee ine vaynig
Make haste	Machen Sie ſchnell	Machen zee shnel
Be quick	Beeilen Sie ſich	Bayilen zee zich
Follow me	Folgen Sie mir	Folgen zee meer
Follow him	Folgen Sie ihm	Folgen zee eem
Tell him	Sagen Sie ihm	Zaagen zee eem
Call him	Rufen Sie ihn	Roofen zee een
Speak	Sprechen Sie	Shprechen zee
Eat	Eſſen Sie	Essen zee
Drink	Trinken Sie	Trinken zee
Hear	Hören Sie	Heuren zee
Hear me	Hören Sie mich	Heuren zee mich
Look at me	Sehen Sie mich an	Zayen zee mich an
Look at him	Sehen Sie ihn an	Zayen zee een an
Begin	Fangen Sie an	Fangen zee an
Continue	Fahren Sie fort	Faaren zee fort
Stop	Halt	Halt
Tell me	Sagen Sie mir	Zaagen zee meer
Tell it him	Sagen Sie es ihm	Zaagen zee es eem
Speak to me	Sprechen Sie mit mir	Shprechen zee mit meer
Speak to him	Sprechen Sie mit ihm	Shprechen zee mit eem
Be quiet	Seien Sie ruhig	Zyen zee rooig
Go	Gehen Sie	Gayen zee
Go to him	Gehen Sie zu ihm	Gayen zee tsoo eem
Go to bed	Gehen Sie zu Bette	Gayen zee tsoo bettay?
Fetch	Holen	Holen
Fetch it	Holen Sie es	Holen zee es
Bring it	Bringen Sie es	Bringen zee es
Bring it to me	Bringen Sie es mir	Bringen zee es meer
Let it be	Laſſen Sie es ſein	Lassen zee es zeyn
Let me have it	Laſſen Sie es mich haben	Lassen zee es mich haaben

EASY EXPRESSIONS.

Tell me	Sagen Sie mir	Zaagen zee meer
If you please	güttigſt — gefälligſt	geeyutigst--gefelligst
Have the goodness	Haben Sie . e Güte	Haaben zee dee geeyutay
Yes, Sir	Ja, mein Herr	Yah, mine här
Yes, Madam	Ja, Madam	Yah, madam
No, Sir	Nein, mein Herr	Nine, mine här
No, Madam	Nein, Madam	Nine, Madame
No, Miss	Nein, mein Fräulein	Nine mine froyline
Do you speak German?	Sprechen Sie deutſch?	Shprechen zee doytsh?
English?	engliſch?	english?
or French?	oder franzöſiſch?	oder frantseuzish
I do not speak German	Ich ſpreche nicht deutſch	Ich shprechay nicht doytsh
I speak it a little	Ich ſpreche etwas	Ich sprechay etvas
I understand	Ich verſtehe	Ich ferstaye
I understand it but	Ich verſtehe es aber	Ich ferstaye es aber
I do not speak it	Ich ſpreche es nicht	Ich shprechay es nicht
I speak English	Ich ſpreche Engliſch	Ich shprechay English
I am an Englishman	Ich bin ein Engländer	Ich bin ine Englender
I speak French a little	Ich ſpreche ein wenig franzöſiſch	Ich shprechay ine vaynig frantseuzish
I am not a Frenchman	Ich bin kein Franzoſe	Ich bin kine Frantsozay
Do you understand?	Verſtehen Sie?	Ferstayen zee?
Can you understand?	Können Sie verſtehen?	Keunnen zee ferstayen?

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
Speak slower	Sprechen Sie langſamer	Shprechen zee langzaamer
You speak too fast	Sie ſprechen zu ſchnell	Zee shprechen tsoo shnel
Give me	Geben Sie mir	Gayben zee meer
some bread	Brod	Brode
some butter	Butter	Bootter
some water	Waſſer	Vasser
some tea	Thee	Tay
some wine	Wein	Vine
some meat	Fleiſch	Flishe
something	etwas	etvas
to eat	zu eſſen	tsoo essen
to drink	zu trinken	tsoo trinken
Bring me	Bringen Sie mir	Bringen zee meer
some coffee	Kaffee	Kaffay
some milk	Milch	Milch
some cheese	Käſe	Kaysay
I thank you	Ich danke Ihnen	Ich dankay eenen

Meeting.

Good morning	Guten Morgen	Gooten morgen
Good day	Guten Tag	Gooten tag
Good afternoon	Guten Nachmittag	Gooten nachmittag
How do you do?	Wie geht's?	Vee gaytes
How are you?	Wie befinden Sie ſich?	Vee befinden zee zich?
Very well	Sehr wohl	Zare vole
I am very well	Ich befinde mich ſehr wohl	Ich befinday mich zare vole
Pretty well	Ziemlich wohl	Tseemlich vole
Tolerably	So ziemlich	Zo tseemlich
How is your father?	Wie befindet ſich Ihr Herr Vater?	Vee befindet zich eer här fater?
How is your mother?	Wie befindet ſich Ihre Frau Mutter?	Vee befindet zich eere frow mootter?
I am not well	Ich bin nicht wohl	Ich bin nicht vole
I am unwell	Ich bin unwohl	Ich bin oonvole
She is not well	Sie iſt nicht wohl	Zee ist nicht vole
He is not well	Er iſt nicht wohl	Air ist nicht vole
She is ill	Sie iſt krank	Zee ist krank
He is very ill	Er iſt ſehr krank	Air ist zare krank
She has a cold	Sie hat ſich erkältet	Zee hat zich airkeltet
I have the toothache	Ich habe Zahnweh	Ich haabay tsaanvay
I must go	Ich muß gehen	Ich moos gayen
I am going now	Ich gehe jetzt	Ich gayay yetst
It is time to go	Es iſt Zeit zu gehen	Es ist tsite tsoo gayen
Good bye	Leben Sie wohl	Laybén zee vole
Farewell	Adieu	Adeeu
I wish you a good morning	Ich wünſche Ihnen einen guten Morgen	Ich veeyunshe eenen inen gooten morgen
Good evening	Guten Abend	Gooten abend
Good night	Gute Nacht	Gootay nacht
I wish you good night	Ich wünſche Ihnen gute Nacht	Ich veeyunshe eenen gootay nacht
My compliments at home	Meine Empfehlungen den Ihrigen	Minay empfayloongen dän eeregen

A Visit.

There is a knock	Es klopft	Es klopft
It is Mr. A.	Es iſt Herr A.	Es ist här A.
It is Mrs. B.	Es iſt Madam B.	Es ist madam B.
I am glad to see you	Ich freue mich Sie zu ſehen	Ich froyay mich zee tsoo zayen
Pray be seated	Bitte ſetzen ſie ſich	Bittay zetsen zee zich
What news is there?	Was giebts Neues?	Vas geebts noyes?
Good news	Gute Nachrichten	Gootay nachrichten
Do you believe it?	Glauben Sie es?	Glowben zee es?
I don't believe a word of it	Ich glaube kein Wort davon	Ich glowbay kine vort dafon
I think so	Ich denke (glaube) ſo	Ich denke (glowbay) zo
I think not	Ich denke nicht	Ich denke nicht
Who told you?	Wer hat es Ihnen geſagt?	Vär hat es eenen gezaagt?
It is true	Es iſt wahr	Es ist var
It is not true	Es iſt nicht wahr	Es ist nicht var
I doubt it	Ich bezweifle es	Ich betsviflay es
Have you heard from home?	Haben Sie von Hauſe gehört?	Haaben zee von howsay geheurt?
The postman brought me a letter to-day	Der Briefträger brachte mir heute einen Brief	Där breeftrayger brachtay meer hoy tay inen breef
Sad news	Schlechte Nachrichten	Shlechtay nachrichten
Will you dine with us?	Wollen Sie mit uns ſpeiſen?	Vollen zee mit oons spizen?
No, thank you	Nein, ich danke Ihnen	Nine, ich dankay eenen
I cannot stay	Ich kann nicht bleiben	Ich kann nicht bliben
I must go	Ich muß gehen	Ich moos gayen
You are in a great hurry	Sie ſind in großer Eile	Zee zind in grosser ilay
I have a great deal to do	Ich habe viel zu thun.	Ich haabay feel tzoo toon

Expressions of Joy.

What!	Was!	Vas!
Is it possible!	Iſt es möglich!	Ist es meuglich!
Can it be!	Kann es ſein!	Kan es zine!
How can it be possible!	Wie kann es möglich ſein!	Vee kan es meuglich zine!
Who would have believed it!	Wer würde das geglaubt haben!	Vär veeyurday das geglowbt haaben!
Indeed!	Wirklich!	Virklich!
It is impossible	Es iſt unmöglich	Es ist oonmeuglich
That cannot be	Es kann nicht ſein	Es kann nicht zine
I am astonished at it	Ich wundere mich darüber	Ich voonderay mich dareeyuber
You surprise me	Sie überraſchen mich	Zee eeyuberrashen mich
It is incredible	Es iſt unglaublich	Es ist oonglowblich

Of Sorrow and Joy.

I am sorry	Es thut mir leid	Es toot meer lide
I am very sorry	Es thut mir ſehr leid	Es toot meer zare lide
What a pity	Wie ſchade	Vee shaday
It is a great pity	Es iſt ſehr ſchade	Es ist zare shaday
It is a sad thing	Es eine traurige Sache	Es ist inay trowrigay zachay
It is a misfortune	Es iſt ein Unglück	Es ist ine oongleeyuck
It is a great misfortune	Es iſt ein großes Unglück	Es ist ine grosses oongleeyuck
I am glad	Es iſt mir lieb	Es ist meer leeb
I am glad of it	Ich freue mich darüber	Ich froyay mich dar eeyuber
I am very glad	Es iſt mir ſehr lieb	Es ist meer zare leeb
It gives me pleasure	Es macht mir Vergnügen	Es macht meer fergneeyugen

English.	German.	Pronunciation.
It gives me great joy	Es macht mir große Freude	Es macht meer grossay froyday
I am happy	Ich bin glücklich	Ich bin gleeyucklich
How happy I am !	Wie glücklich ich bin	Vee gleeyucklich ich bin
I wish you joy	Ich wünsche Ihnen Glück	Ich veeyunshe eenen gleeyuck
I congratulate you	Ich gratulire Ihnen	Ich gratooleeray eenen

Of Anger and Blame.

I am angry	Ich bin ärgerlich	Ich bin ärgerlich
He is angry	Er iſt ärgerlich	Air ist ärgerlich
He is very angry	Er iſt ſehr ärgerlich	Air ist zare ärgerlich
Don't be angry	Seien Sie nicht ärgerlich	Zyen zee nicht ärgerlich
You are wrong	Sie haben Unrecht	Zee haaben oonrecht
You are right	Sie haben Recht	Zee haaben recht
Why don't you do it?	Warum thun Sie es nicht?	Varoom toon zee es nicht?
Be quiet	Seien Sie ruhig	Zyen zee rooig
What a shame !	Welche Schande!	Velchay shanday !
How could you do it?	Wie konnten Sie es thun?	Vee konten zee es toon?
I am ashamed of you	Ich ſchäme mich Ihrer	Ich shāmay mich eerer
You are very much to blame	Sie ſind ſehr zu tadeln	Zee sind zare tsoo tadeln
Don't answer	Antworten Sie nicht	Antvorten zee nicht
Be patient	Gedulden Sie ſich	Gedoolden zee zich
I will improve	Ich werde mich beſſern	Ich vārday mich bessern

Age.

How old are you?	Wie alt ſind Sie?	Vee alt zind zee?
I am twenty	Ich bin zwanzig Jahr alt	Ich bin tsvantsig yaar alt
I shall soon be thirty	Ich werde bald dreißig ſein	Ich vārday bald dryſig zine
He looks older	Er ſieht älter aus	Er zeet elter ows
She is younger	Sie iſt jünger	Zee ist yeeyunger
She cannot be so young	Sie kann nicht ſo jung ſein	Zee kan nicht zo yoong zine
He must be older	Er muß älter ſein	Air moos elter zine
I did not think you were so old	Ich glaubte nicht daß Sie ſo alt ſein	Ich glowbtay nicht das zee zo alt zyen
He is at least sixty	Er iſt wenigſtens ſechzig	Air ist venigstens zechtsig
She must be forty	Sie muß vierzig Jahr alt ſein	Zee moos feertsig yaar alt zine
How old is your father?	Wie alt iſt Ihr Vater?	Vee alt ist eer faater?
He is nearly eighty	Er iſt nahe achtzig	Air ist nahay achtsig
Is he so old?	Iſt er ſo alt?	Ist ār zo alt?
How old is your sister?	Wie alt iſt ihre Schweſter?	Vee alt ist eeray shvester?
She is fifteen	Sie iſt fünfzehn	Zee ist feeyunftsane
Is she so young?	Iſt ſie ſo jung?	Ist zee zo yoong?
How old is your aunt?	Wie alt iſt Ihre Tante?	Vee alt ist eeray tantay?
She is nearly ninety	Sie iſt faſt neunzig	Zee ist fast noyntsig
It is a great age	Es iſt ein hohes Alter	Es ist ine hohes alter
He begins to grow old	Er fängt an alt zu werden	Air fengt an alt tsoo vayrden

To ask Questions.

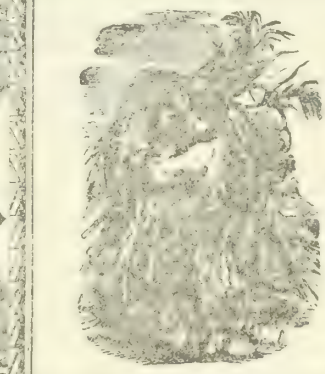
English.	German.	Pronunciation.
What do you say?	Was ſagen Sie?	Vas zaagen zee?
Do you hear?	Hören Sie?	Heuren zee?
Do you hear me?	Hören Sie mich?	Heuren zee mich?
I don't speak to you	Ich ſpreche mit Ihnen nicht	Ich sprechay mit eenen nicht
Do you understand me?	Verſtehen Sie mich?	Fershtayen zee mich?
Listen	Hören Sie	Heuren zee
Come here	Kommen Sie hierher	Kommen zee heer hare
What is that?	Was iſt das?	Vas ist das?
Answer	Antworten Sie	Antvorten zee
Why don't you answer?	Warum antworten Sie nicht?	Varoom antvorten zee nicht?
What do you mean?	Was meinen Sie?	Vas minen zee?
What do you mean by that?	Was meinen Sie damit?	Vas minen zee damit?
You speak German I suppose	Ich vermuthe Sie ſprechen deutſch	Ich fermootay zee shprechen doytsh
Very little, Sir	Sehr wenig, mein Herr	Zare vanig mine hare
Do you know me?	Kennen Sie mich?	Kennen zee mich?
Do you know Mr. H?	Kennen Sie Herrn H?	Kennen zee härn H?
I know him	Ich kenne ihn	Ich kennay een
I do not know him	Ich kenne ihn nicht	Ich kennay een nicht
I know you	Ich kenne Sie	Ich kennay zee
I know him by sight	Ich kenne ihn von Anſehen	Ich kennay een von anzane
I know him by name	Ich kenne ihn bei Namen	Ich kennay een by naamen
I know him well	Er iſt mir wohl bekannt	Air ist meer vole bekant
What do you call that?	Wie nennen Sie das?	Vee nennen zee das?
What is that in German?	Wie heißt das auf Deutſch?	Vee histe das owf Doytsh?
What do you call that in English?	Wie heißt das auf Engliſch?	Vee histe das owf English?
What does that mean?	Was heißt das?	Vas histe das?
What is it good for?	Wozu iſt es gut?	Votsoo ist es goot?
It is good for nothing	Es iſt zu nichts gut	Es ist tsoo nichts goot
Is it good?	Iſt es gut?	Ist es goot?
Is it bad?	Iſt es ſchlecht?	Ist es shlecht?
Is it eatable?	Iſt es eßbar?	Ist es esbar?
Is it drinkable?	Iſt es trinkbar?	Ist es trinkbar?
Is it nice?	Iſt es ſchön?	Ist es sheun?
Is it fresh?	Iſt es friſch?	Ist es frish?

Morning.

An early morning	Ein früher Morgen	Ine freeyuer morgen
Early	Früh	Freeyu
It is a fine morning	Es iſt ein ſchöner Morgen	Es ist ine sheuner morgen
What o'clock is it?	Was iſt die Uhr?	Vas ist dee oor?
It is nearly eight	Es iſt nahe acht Uhr	Es ist naay acht oor
Light the fire	Zünden Sie das Feuer an	Tseeyunden zee das foyer an
Light a candle	Zünden Sie ein Licht an	Tseeyunden zee ine licht an
I am going to get up	Ich will aufſtehen	Ich vill owfstayen
Get me some hot water	Bringen Sie mir etwas heißes Waſſer	Bringen zee meer etvas hises vasser
Some cold water	Etwas kaltes Waſſer	Etvas kaltes vasser
Some spring-water	Etwas Trinkwaſſer	Etvas trinkvasser
Make haste	Machen Sie ſchnell	Machen zee shnel



Agriculture.



AGRICULTURE is the art of cultivating the ground, and of obtaining from it the product necessary to sustain animal life.

The change from a state of nature, in which the human race must have first lived, to the pastoral, or to any high mode of living, must have been gradual, the work, perhaps, of ages. The race was doomed to toil, and necessity soon sharpened the power of invention. The agriculture of a people must be influenced by the climate and natural features of the country. Formerly its progress largely depended on the density of the population, but now, the iron horse and the giant steamer bear away the product of the farm, and the results of the labor of a few are reaped by the many, hundreds and thousands of miles away. This vast continent has been justly called the granary of the world. We shall now see how an infinitesimally small portion of it should be worked so as o enable the toiler to become the bread-winner, how the farm may be managed so as to produce the all-mighty dollar.

In selecting a farm, or entering upon the cultivation of one already in possession, the farmer should, first of all, turn his attention to an investigation of the various soils of which its surface is composed.

All soils adapted to agricultural purposes are composed of two classes of substances—organic and inorganic. The inorganic parts are derived from the decay of animal and vegetable matter. The organic part of the soil is generally called vegetable mold, but scientific writers designate it as *humus*. To be fertile, a soil must contain a considerable portion of this organic matter. More than fifty per cent. of *humus*, however, in a moist soil has an injurious effect, rendering it what is called *sour*.

Of the various soils several distinct classifications may be made. It will be well, at the outset, to consider them all as embraced in two grand classes—*heavy* or *light*. The distinction indicated by these terms is familiar to every farmer. He knows, too, that it is a predominance of clay which constitutes a soil heavy, and that an excess of sand or gravel makes a soil what is called light.

Heavy soils, also often denominated cold and wet, are distinguished for their affinity for water, their tenacity, their softness when wet, and their hardness when dry. They are admirably adapted to wheat, oats, Indian corn, and the various grasses; hence they are sometimes styled *grass lands*, and are generally susceptible of being made highly productive.

Light soils are easily cultivated, friable, dry, and warm; but their porousness renders them liable to drouth and exhaustion. They are particularly adapted to rye, barley, buckwheat, and the tap-rooted plants.

Soils are chiefly made up of what are sometimes called the three primitive earths—silex (including sand and gravel), clay, and lime. As either of these predominates, it gives its peculiar character to the soil, whence we have the arrangement into three grand classes—sandy, clayey, and limy soils.

1. *Sandy Soils.*—A soil containing not less than seventy per cent. of sand may be considered sandy, in the sense in which the term is here used.

2. *Clayey Soils.*—Clay with a mixture of not more than twenty per cent. of sand forms a clayey soil.

3. *Limy Soils.*—Limy or calcareous soils are those in which lime, exceeding twenty per cent., becomes the distinguishing characteristic. Calcareous soils may be either calcareous clays, calcareous sands, or calcareous loams, according to the proportions of clay or sand that may be present in them.

4. *Loamy Soils.*—Loamy soils are intermediate between those denominated sandy and those with predominant clayey characteristics. There are sandy loams, clayey loams, calcareous loams, and vegetable loams.

5. *Marly Soils.*—Soils containing lime, but in which the proportion does not exceed twenty per cent., are sometimes called marly.

6. *Alluvial Soils.*—Soils made up of the washings of streams are called alluvial. They contain portions of every kind of soil existing in the surrounding country, and are generally loamy and very fertile.

7. *Vegetable Molds.*—When decayed vegetable and animal matter or *humus* exists in so great a proportion as to give the predominant character to a soil, it sometimes receives the name of vegetable mold.

8. *Subsoils.*—The stratum or bed on which a soil immediately rests is called the subsoil. Subsoils, like soils, may be either silicious, argillaceous, or calcareous.

ANALYSIS OF SOILS.

Chemical analysis shows that the organic parts of a soil are composed or *carbon*, *oxygen*, *nitrogen*, and *hydrogen*. The inorganic parts of a fertile soil, in addition to the silex, clay, and lime, of which we have already spoken, contain smaller quantities of magnesia, potash, soda, sulphur, phosphorus, chlorine, oxyd of iron, and oxyd of manganese. All these are essential to independent fertility.

To ascertain the percentage of sand which a soil may contain, dry a quantity thoroughly; weigh it; boil it in water; stir it in a convenient vessel, and when the sand has settled pour off the liquid, which will hold the fine clay, etc., in suspension; after doing this a few times, nothing will remain in the bottom of the vessel but nearly pure sand, which may be dried and weighed, and the quantity will show whether the soil be sandy, loamy, or clayey.

Any considerable quantity of lime in a soil is readily detected by pouring upon it a little muriatic acid, which may be obtained at any apothecary shop. So soon as this acid comes in contact with lime, if there be any, a brisk effervescence will take place, owing to the bubbling up and escape of carbonic acid gas.

1. *Texture of Soils.*—Considered in reference to texture, a soil may be described as essentially a mixture of an impalpable powder with a greater or smaller quantity of visible particles of all sizes and shapes. Now, although the visible particles are absolutely essential, their effects are, as it were, indirect; the impalpable powder alone exerting a direct influence upon vegetation, by entering into solution with the water and acids with which it comes in contact; for *plants are incapable of taking in solid matter, however minutely divided;* and it is in a liquid or gaseous form only that their food can be received. From this it will be readily understood how a soil may possess all the elements of fertility and yet be barren on account of some of these elements being locked up in it, as it were, in an insoluble condition. The stones and smaller visible portions of the soil are gradually but constantly crumbling down under the action of air, moisture, and other chemical agents, thus adding, from year to year, new impalpable matter to the soil. The greater the proportion of this impalpable matter, all other things being equal, the greater will be the fertility of the soil.

Soils must also be examined in reference to their consistency or tenacity, which is nothing more than the strength with which their molecules or particles are bound to each other by what is called, in the language of natural philosophy, the attraction of cohesion. Clayey soils have the greatest degree of consistency, and sandy soils the least. Both extremes are unfavorable, a medium in this respect agreeing best with vegetation.

2. *Depth of Soil.*—A deep soil has not only the advantage of giving the roots of plants a wider range and a greater mass of food, but it retains moisture better in seasons of drouth, and is not so readily saturated in rainy weather. For the tap-rooted plants, such as beets, carrots, parsnips, etc., depth of soil is particularly important.

3. *Colors of Soils.*—The brown and red soils are generally the best. They are termed warm, and are mostly loamy and fertile. Yellow and gray indicate clayey soils, which are cold in their nature. Black generally indicates peat or deep vegetable mold. Dark-colored earths absorb heat more rapidly than others, but they also allow it to escape with equal readiness.

4. *Humidity of Soils.*—Too great moisture is not less injurious to a soil than extreme dryness. The proper medium should be sought, and where land is too wet, thorough underdraining should be practiced.

5. *Influence of Subsoils.*—A subsoil of clay beneath a clayey soil is unfavorable; but beneath a sandy soil it is beneficial, especially if deep plowing and subsoiling be resorted to for the purpose of improving the latter. On the same principle a sandy or gravelly subsoil is desirable under clayey soils. A calcareous or limy subsoil is beneficial to both clayey and sandy soils.

6. *Position and Form of Surface.*—Sandy soils are most fertile when flat and situated lower than the surrounding country. On the declivities of hills, such soil is of less value, as it is liable to become parched by drouths and washed away by rains. Clayey soils, on the contrary, especially where the subsoil is impermeable, are favorably situated when on a hillside. Southern and eastern exposures are favorable to early vegetation, and in a cold climate or with a clayey soil are very desirable for many crops.

1. *Improving Clayey Soils.*—One of the principal defects of clayey soils, especially where they rest upon a subsoil of the same nature, is the excess of water which is held in them. The only effectual way, in a majority of cases, to get rid of this is by thorough underdraining. Open drains or ditches, though less effectual, are useful. In some cases "water furrows," terminating in some ravine or ditch, serve a very good purpose.

Lime is exceedingly useful as an ameliorator of clayey soils. Gypsum or plaster of Paris, ashes, coarse vegetable manures, straw, leaves, chips, etc., are also very useful, adding new materials to the soil, and tending to separate its particles and destroy their strong cohesion. In cold climates, plowing clayey lands in the fall, and thus exposing them to the action of the frosts and snows, has a beneficial effect. At the South, where there is little frost, and frequent and heavy rains occur during the winter, the effect of fall plowing is very injurious. Clayey lands must never be plowed when wet.

Where a clayey soil rests upon a sandy subsoil, its improvement is easier, as deep plowing, by which a portion of the subsoil is turned up and mixed with the soil, soon modifies it very sensibly.

2. *Improving Sandy Soils.*—Sandy soils require a treatment in most respects the reverse of that applied to clayey soils.

Lime and gypsum, which render clayey soils more friable, increase the adhesiveness of sandy soils, and when cheaply obtained furnish a profitable dressing. Ashes may also be applied with great benefit, as may vegetable manures and vegetable mold. Sandy soils are plowed to the greatest advantage when wet, and are improved by the frequent use of a heavy roller. Pasturing sheep upon them is very beneficial.

Gravelly soils (except calcareous gravels) are more difficult of improvement than sandy soils, and are most profitably appropriated to pasturage. Sheep will keep them in the most useful condition of which they are capable.

3. *Improvement of Vegetable Soils.*—Soils composed mainly of *humus* or vegetable mold, should be drained from all excess of water. Then the hommocks, if any, must be cut off, dried, and burned, and the ashes spread over the surface; after which sand, fine gravel, ashes, air-slaked lime, and barn-yard manure should be liberally added.

4. *Management of Subsoils.*—In subsoil plowing a common plow goes first and is followed in the same furrow by the subsoil plow, which thoroughly breaks up the subsoil to the depth of from twelve to sixteen inches, without displacing it. At subsequent plowings portions of this subsoil are turned up by allowing the common plow to run more deeply than before; but care should be taken not to bring it up too rapidly or in too large quantities.

Subsoil plowing should be repeated once in five or six years; going each time a little deeper than before, till the greatest practical depth is attained.

Subsoil plowing is not applicable, however, to all lands. Where the subsoil is loose and leachy, consisting of an excess of sand or gravel, it is not only unnecessary but positively injurious.

The gradual mixing of the subsoil with the soil which results from subsoil plowing is especially beneficial to lands which have been for a long time under cultivation, and have become partially exhausted.

Where underdraining is required, it should precede the subsoiling, and the surface of the drains should be sufficiently below the surface not to be disturbed by the subsoil plow.

With the exception we have noted, where the subsoil is loose and leachy, subsoil plowing, though expensive, will most certainly "pay," as experience has amply proved.

MANURES.

THE productive power of soils subjected to cultivation is gradually exhausted by the process. Some of the alluvial lands of Virginia produced large annual crops of corn and tobacco for more than a century, without any return being made to them for the elements of fertility abstracted, but these lands are now nearly valueless.

The average yield, per acre, of the cultivated lands of the State of New York has decreased considerably since 1844, when the records on which these tables are founded were commenced. In corn the decrease is nearly four bushels per acre; in wheat nearly two bushels; and in potatoes, partly owing to the rot, no doubt, twenty-two and a half bushels.

These are instructive facts, and should cause the farmer to pause and reflect.

Both the organic and inorganic parts of plants are made up from their food, which must of course consist of both organic and inorganic materials. The former are obtained partly from the soil and partly from the air; the latter come exclusively from the soil. A fertile soil must therefore contain, in sufficient quantity and in an available form, all the constituents of plants; and to maintain its fertility under cultivation, these constituents must be supplied in the form of manures so fast as they are taken up by the crops produced.

I. VEGETABLE MANURES.

Vegetable manures are not so energetic in their action as those of animal or mineral origin, but their effects are more durable; and the wise agriculturist will avail himself largely of the cheap means of ameliorating his soil which they afford.

1. *Green Crops.*—Plowing in green crops, such as clover spurry, sainfoin, buckwheat, cow-peas, turnips (sown thickly), Indian corn, etc., is one of the best modes of renovating and sustaining a soil. Worn-out lands, unsalable at ten dollars an acre, have by this means, while steadily remunerating their proprietors by their returning crops for all the outlay of labor and money, been brought up in value to fifty dollars an acre.

For the Northern States red clover has been found best fitted for a green manure; but in particular cases some other crop may be used with greater advantage. At the South, the cow-

pea (which is no pea, but a bean) is considered the best fertilizer.

Clover and most broad-leaved plants draw largely for their sustenance from the air, especially when aided by the application of gypsum. By its long tap-roots, clover also draws much from the subsoil.

The proper time to turn in most plants used as green manure is at the season of blossoming.

The same effects follow the plowing of grass lands, and turning under the turf; and the thicker and heavier the sward the better.

2. *Straw, Leaves, etc.*—Straw, leaves, hay, are usually applied to the lands after they have either been worked over by animals and mixed with their manures, or composted with other substances and decomposod; but clayey soils are benefited by their application in an undecayed state.

Potato-tops or haulm; bean haulm; weeds, pulled before they have seeded, and all kinds of vegetable refuse, are readily decomposed by the addition of a small quantity of animal substances or lime, and should be carefully composted.

3. *Sea-weed.*—Sea-weed and pond-weed form valuable manures. The former is particularly rich in the substances most needed by our crops.

4. *Cotton Seed.*—At the South, cotton seed is much used as a manure, and is very valuable for that purpose. It is applied at the rate of from eighty to a hundred bushels per acre. It may be sown broadcast and plowed in during the winter, when it will rot before spring, or it may be left in heaps to heat till its vitality is destroyed, when it may be thrown upon the corn hills and covered with the hoe or plow.

5. *Turf, Muck, Mud, etc.*—Rich turf, full of the roots of the grasses and decayed vegetable matter, is valuable as an absorbent of animal or other manures in compost heaps. Mixing it with lime, and leaving it several weeks to decompose, is a good preparatory process.

Swamp muck, pond mud, and the scourings of old ditches, are exceedingly rich in vegetable matter, and are all exceedingly useful as manures.

II. ANIMAL MANURES.

These comprise the flesh, blood, hair, bones, horns, excrements, etc., of animals. They contain more nitrogen than vegetable manures, and are far more powerful.

1. *Stable Manures.*—The standard manure of this country is that from the stable and barn-yard. The principal varieties are those of the ox, the cow, the horse, and the sheep. Of these, that of the horse is the most valuable in its fresh state, but is very liable, as ordinarily treated, to loose much of its value by fermentation; that of the sheep comes next; while that of the cow is placed at the bottom of the list, because the enriching substance of her food goes principally to the formation of milk. That of the ox is better.

All the urine, as well as the solid excrements of animals, should be carefully preserved. *The urine of three cows for one year is worth more than a ton of guano, which would cost from fifty to sixty dollars.* Various methods of preserving and applying it will suggest themselves to the intelligent farmer.

Stable manures should be sheltered from the sun and rain, and fermenting heaps so covered with turf or loam as to prevent the escape of the fertilizing gases. Plaster, as in the case of urine, will aid in retaining the ammonia.

2. *Hog Manure.*—The manure of swine is strong and valuable. Swamp muck, weeds, straw, leaves, etc., should be thrown into the sty in liberal quantities, to be rooted over and mixed with the dung. In this way from five to ten loads of manure per annum may be obtained from a single hog.

3. *The Manure of Fowls, etc.*—The manure of hens, turkeys, geese, ducks, and pigeons should be carefully collected and preserved. Professor Norton says that three or four hundred pounds of such manure, *that has not been exposed to the rain or sun*, is equal in value to from fourteen to eighteen loads of stable manure.

4. *Guano.*—Of its value as a manure there can be no doubt; but circumstances must determine whether in any given case it can profitably be purchased and applied at the prices at which it is held.

In applying guano, care should be taken that it do not come in contact with any seed, as it might destroy its vitality.

5. *Fish Manures.*—These are available near the sea-coast only, where they furnish an important source of fertility, which should not be neglected. The flesh of fish acts with great energy in hastening the growth of plants. It decomposes rapidly, and should be at once plowed under, or made into a well-covered compost heat.

6 *Flesh, Blood, Hair, etc.*—Dead animals, the blood and offal from slaughter-houses, are among the most powerful of fertilizers—equal to guano and the other costly manures. Every animal that dies should be made into compost at once.

Hair, woolen rags, leather shavings from the shoe-shops, and all other refuse animal matters, should be carefully preserved and composted, as they make very rich manure.

7. *Bones.*—The value of bones as a manure is just beginning to be appreciated in this country. They unite some of the most efficacious and desirable organic and inorganic manures.

Bones make a cheap as well as a rich manure, and no thoughtful farmer will suffer one to be wasted about his house.

III. MINERAL MANURES.

1. *Lime.*—Lime is applied to land in three different states—as quick-lime, slaked lime, and mild or air-slaked lime. To cold, stiff, newly drained land, especially if there exist in it much of acid organic compounds, it is best to apply quick-lime or caustic hydrate (slaked lime), as it will have a more energetic effect in ameliorating it. On light soils mild or air-slaked lime is considered most beneficial. It is best to apply lime frequently and in small quantities, so as to keep it near the surface and always active.

2. *Marls.*—In true marl the principal element of fertility is the lime which it contains; but its value is increased by the greater or less proportion of magnesia and phosphoric acid which are usually combined with it.

A valuable mineral fertilizer generally called marl, but which contains comparatively little lime, abounds in parts of New Jersey and Delaware. Its effects upon the light sandy soils of New Jersey is very striking indeed.

3. *Gypsum.*—Gypsum, or plaster of Paris, is a sulphate of

fime, and has been found one of the cheapest and most powerful fertilizers derived from the mineral kingdom. On grass lands it is best to sow it in damp weather or while the dew is on. Sow broadcast at the rate of a bushel to the acre. Seed potatoes may be wet and rolled in plaster before planting with decided advantage; and we know of no better way of applying it to corn than to give the seed a coat before putting it in the ground.

4. *Common Salt, etc.*—Common salt, as an ingredient in compost, is of great service. As a top dressing for grass lands—especially those of a loamy texture—it is invaluable. Mixed with wood ashes and lime, in the proportion of one bushel of salt to three of ashes and five of lime, it constitutes a very energetic manure for Indian corn.

A very useful and energetic mixture is made by the following simple process:

"Take three bushels of unslaked lime, dissolve a bushel of salt in as little water as will dissolve it, and slake the lime with it. If the lime will not take up all the brine at once—which it will if good and fresh burned—turn it over and let it lie a day and add a little more of the brine; and so continue to do till it is all taken up."

Brine which has been used for salting meat or fish is still more valuable than that newly made, as it contains a portion of blood and other animal matter.

Whenever refuse nitrate of potash—that is, common saltpeter—or refuse liquid in which it has been dissolved for pickling meat, can be procured, it should be carefully preserved and mixed into a compost heap.

5. *Ashes.*—Ashes compose the entire inorganic parts of plants. Returned to the soil, they may again be taken up by the growing vegetation. Their great usefulness as a manure is evident and undisputed.

Leached ashes have lost some of their value, being deprived of the greater portion of their potash and soda, but are still very useful as manures.

Coal ashes are less valuable than wood ashes, but are by no means to be neglected by the farmer.

Soot is exceedingly valuable as a manure, and the small quantity produced should be carefully saved.

IV.—MANAGEMENT OF MANURES.

1. *Fermentation.*—That great loss takes place when manure ferments *uncovered by some absorbent* of the fertilizing gases is clear to every observer and thinker. See to it, then, that all fermenting manure is covered with turf, muck, charcoal dust, sawdust, or plaster, to take up and retain the ammoniacal gases as they arise.

2. *Digging over Manures.*—The frequent digging over of barn-yard manure, practiced by some farmers, while it promotes decomposition, also leads to great waste.

3. *Hauling Manure in Winter.*—The opinion is now gaining ground that, when it can be conveniently done, the best way to secure to the land the greatest possible benefit from stable and barn-yard manure is to draw them at once, so fast as they are produced, to the fields where they are to be used, and either spread them at once or deposit them in heaps so small that no putrefactive fermentation will take place. In many cases, manures may be hauled in the winter with great economy, as the labor of the teams and hands is in less demand elsewhere.

4. *A Caution.—Never mix quick-lime with any animal manure*, as it will greatly deteriorate the manure.

5. *Burying Manure.*—Here again doctors disagree. Some advocate burying manure very deeply, others slightly, and still others would leave it upon the surface. The best general rule, we believe, is to mix it so thoroughly as possible with every part of the soil. The roots will then be sure to find it. A few crops—onions and some of the grasses, for instance— must find their nutriment near the surface, as the roots do not extend deeply; for these a top dressing may be best.

6. *Importance of Texture.*—Far more important than the mere presence of fertilizing ingredients, or even the *chemical condition* of those ingredients, in many cases, is their mechanical texture and degree of pulverization. Hence it may be reasonably believed that the general introduction and free use of pulverizers, as the most effective harrows, clod-crushers, and subsoilers, assisted by tile-draining, may be of greater benefit to the whole country than the importation of a million tons of guano.

V.—COMPOSTS.

Let nothing that is capable, when decomposed, of furnishing nutriment to your growing crops be permitted to go to waste about your premises. A compost heap should be at hand to receive all decomposed refuse. The best basis for this heap is well-dried swamp muck; but where this is not readily obtained, procure rich turf scraping from the roadside, leaves and surface soil from the wood lands and the sides of fences, straw, chips, corncobs, weeds, etc., aiding the decay of the coarser materials by the addition of urine or the lime and salt mixture mentioned in the previous section. Let this be composted with any animal matter found about the premises, or in the vicinity.

VI.—IRRIGATION.

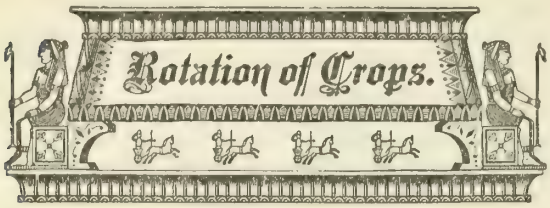
Irrigation is manuring by means of water. "The manner of irrigation must depend on the situation of the surface and the supply of water. When it is desirable to bring more water on to meadows than is required for saturating the ground, and its escape to the fields below is to be avoided, other ditches should be made on the lower sides, to arrest and convey away the surplus water."

Irrigation contributes to the growth of plants in several ways.

"The advantages of irrigation are so manifest that they should never be neglected, when the means for securing them are within economical reach.

"The increase from the application of water is sometimes fourfold, when the soil, the season, and the water are all favorable, and it is seldom less than doubled.

"Light, porous soils, and particularly gravels and sands, are the most benefited by irrigation."



SUPPOSE the farmer to have a soil which requires, as almost all soils do, the application of manure to render it fertile. He adds a good coating of manure, and then takes off a crop of corn or wheat. This crop will carry away the largest part of the phosphates that were added in the manure. In most cases, therefore, a second crop of the same kind would not be so good as the first; and the third would be still less. There yet remain, however, from the manure, considerable quantities of other substances, which the grain crops did not so particularly require, such as potash and soda. With this a good crop of potatoes, turnips, or beets may be obtained; and after this there is probably still enough lime, etc., left to produce an excellent crop of hay, if the ground be seeded down with another crop of grain of a lighter character than Indian corn or wheat.

We perceive, then, that any good rotation must be founded upon the principle that different classes of crops require different proportions of the various substances which are present in soils, and in the numerous fertilizers which are applied for the purpose of enriching them. Thus the crops may be made to succeed each other with the least possible injury to the soil, and with the greatest economy in the use of manures.

It would be useless to recommend here any particular system of rotation as *best;* for that must be determined by experience in each section of country, under the various circumstances of climate, location, and value of crops. Attention may, however, be again called to the fact that there are several distinct classes of crops, considered with reference to the substances which they take from the soil, and that these classes of crops should bear a part in every system of rotation. The principal of these are grain crops, root crops, and grass crops.





THOROUGH drainage implies *covered* drains, and it is to the advantage of these mainly that we now desire to call the reader's attention; although open ditches and water-furrows are very useful in certain situations.

The principal benefits of a system of covered drains are succinctly and clearly stated in the following—

"TEN REASONS FOR UNDERDRAINING.

"1. It prevents water which falls from resting on or near the surface, and renders the soil dry enough to be worked or plowed at all times.

"2. By rendering the soil porous or spongy, it takes in water without flooding in time of rain, and gives it off again gradually in time of drouth.

"3. By preventing adhesion and assisting pulverization, it allows the roots to pass freely through all parts of the soil.

"4. By facilitating the mixture of manure through the pulverized portions, it greatly increases its value and effect.

"5. It allows water falling on the surface to pass downward, carrying with it any fertilizing substances (as carbonic acid and ammonia), until they are arrested by the absorption of the soil.

"6. It abstracts in a similar manner the heat contained in falling rains, thus warming the soil, the water discharged by drain-mouths being many degrees colder than ordinary rains.

"7. The increased porosity of the soil renders it a more perfect non-conductor of heat, and the roots of plants are less injured by freezing in winter.

"8. The same cause admits the entrance of air, facilitating the decomposition of enriching portions of the soil.

"9. By admitting early plowing crops may be sown early, and an increased amount reaped in consequence.

"10. It economizes labor, by allowing the work to go on at all times without interruption from surplus water in spring, or from a hard-baked soil in summer."

CONDITIONS REQUIRING DRAINAGE.

The conditions from which arise the principal causes of mischief to undrained land are thus stated by Munn in "The practical Land-Drainer:"

"1. Where water has accumulated beneath the surface and originated springs.

"2. Where, from the close nature of the substrata, it cannot pass freely downward, but accumulates and forms its level or water line at a short distance below the surface; and

"3. Where, from the clayey or close texture of the soil, it lies on the surface and becomes stagnant."

Farmers are apt to consider land in which the second condition mentioned exists, to be too dry to need draining, yet it is *cold* and *sour*, late in spring, apt to bake hard in summer, and very liable to suffer from early frosts in autumn. There is no remedy but underdraining.

PRACTICAL DIRECTIONS.

1. *Preliminary.*—The first thing to be done is to examine the field to be drained and determine the plan of drainage best adapted to effect the object in view, and the materials which may most economically be used in constructing the drains.

2. *Draining Springy Soils.*—Where the wetness to be remedied results from springs having their source in higher grounds above the field to be drained, the desired result is generally attained by making one or more drains across the declivity about where the low grounds of the valley begin to form, thus intercepting or cutting off the springs. These transverse drains must be connected with others made for the purpose of conveying the water collected in them into some brook, ravine, or other outlet which may be near.

3. *Direction of Drains.*—In cases characterized by either of the other conditions specified in the previous section, parallel drains should be cut *directly up and down the inclination of the field*, and emptying into a main cross drain at the lower side.

4. *Depth and Distance Apart.*—The experience of some of the most extensive drainers, both in this country and in Europe, seems to indicate, however, that for very heavy, clayey soils, from two and a half to three feet in depth and from twelve to thirty feet apart generally produce the most satisfactory results. More porous and friable soils may be successfully drained at greater depth and distance.

5. *Materials and Construction.*—The ditch excavated must be furnished with a permanent duct through which water may at all times pass freely off. This may be constructed of various substances—brushwood, straw, turf, clinkers from furnaces, wood, brick, stone, and tiles of burned clay. Of these, stone and tiles in their various forms, when they can be procured, are the only materials which we can unconditionally recommend.

Brushwood Drains.—Where no better materials are available, these will be found, while they last, quite effective, and they are far more permanent than might be supposed.

Stone Drains.—In reference to their mode of construction, stone drains are of various kinds. The simplest form is that in which the ditch or cutting is filled to the depth of nine or ten inches with small stones, covered with inverted turf, shavings, or something of the kind. The stones should be about the size of a hen's egg. Where larger ones are used, the earth is apt to fall into the cavities, or mice or rats make their burrows there, and the drain becomes choked. *The water should find its way into the drain from the sides, and not from the top.* In making stone drains in swampy or very soft ground it is sometimes necessary to lay a plank or slab on the bottom before putting in the stones, to prevent them from sinking before the soil shall become dry enough to be firm.

Tile Drains.—The first form of tile drain used was arched and made to rest on a sole or flat tile laid under it; but the more modern tile pipes are to be preferred, as they are smaller, cheaper, and more easily laid. Those with an oval bore are considered better than those with a round one. The tiles are, of course, placed in the bottom of the ditch, which must be smooth and straight. They are simply placed end to end and wedged a little with small stones, if necessary, and the earth packed hard over them. *The water very readily finds its way through the pores of the material and at the joints.* Collars or short outer tiles are sometimes used to go over the joints, to secure them against getting displaced. An inch pipe is sufficient for most situations.

The drains should be connected at the upper end of the field by a small drain running at right angles with them. It should be of the same depth as the other drains.

WILL UNDERDRAINING PAY?

This depends on circumstances. If naturally good underdrained land can be obtained in your neighborhood for from $15 to $20 per acre, it would not pay in all probability to expend $30 per acre in underdraining low, wet, or springy land; but in all districts where land is worth $50 per acre, nothing can pay better than to expend from $20 to $30 per acre in judicious underdraining. The labor of cultivation is much reduced, while the produce is generally increased one-half, and is not unfrequently doubled, *and it must be remembered that the increase is net profit.*

In reference to tile-pipe drains, it must be remembered that the ditch may be much narrower than when stones are used, thus making a considerable saving in the expense of digging.

FENCES.

VARIOUS KINDS OF FENCES.

1. *Stone Fence.*—Wherever there is plenty of stone, and especially where loose stones abound and must be removed before the land can be properly cultivated, stone fences are the best and most economical that can be constructed.

Where stone is not very abundant, a combination of stone and rail fence is often economically constructed. A substantial foundation of stones is laid, reaching two or two and a half feet above ground, in which posts are placed at proper distances, with two or three bar holes above the wall, for the insertion of an equal number of rails, which for convenience should be put in when the posts are set.

2. *The Zig-zag or Worm Fence.*—In large portions of our country, where there is a superabundance of timber and economy of space is of little importance, the common zig-zag or worm fence of the West and South is probably the most economical that can be erected.

3. *Post-and-rail Fences.*—As timber becomes somewhat more valuable, it ceases to be economical to use it so lavishly as the worm fence requires, and the post-and-rail fence takes its place. This is, in many respects, the best of all the wooden farm fences.

The best timber for posts in the order of its durability is red cedar, yellow locust, white oak and chestnut, for the Northern and Middle States.

In some cases boards may be economically substituted for rails, and firmly nailed to suitably prepared posts.

4. *The Sunken Fence.*—The sunken fence or wall consists of a vertical excavation on one side, about five feet in depth, against which a wall is built to the surface of the ground. The opposite side is inclined at such an angle as will preserve the sod against sliding, from the effects of frost or rain, and is then turfed over.

5. *Iron Fences.*—Wire and other forms of iron fence are now in extensive use. Where there is a deficiency of both timber and stone, the wire fence is probably the best and most economical that can be made.

No ordinary domestic animal will break through fences of considerably less than one-quarter inch wrought wire, while still larger sizes may be used with the same facility if required. The bright or hard wire is now generally used.

Another style of iron farm fence is called the "Corrugated Flat Rail Fence." It is in some respects preferable to the round rail or wire, being visible at a greater distance and less liable to sagging.

6. *Hurdle Fence.*—The hurdle, or light, movable fence, is formed in short panels, and firmly set in the ground by sharpened stakes at the end of each panel, and these are fastened together. This is a convenient addition to farms where heavy green crops of clover, lucern, peas, or turnips are required to be fed off in successive lots by sheep, swine, or cattle. It is variously constructed of wood or iron, and is much less expensive than might be supposed.

7. *Hedges.*—The live fence, almost universal in England, is still an experiment here. There have been a few successes and many failures in the cultivation of hedges. The causes of failure have been various—a wrong choice of trees, the dryness of our climate, lack of experience in planting, neglect of proper after cultivation and pruning, etc. But the few examples of complete success which may be pointed out prove conclusively that, under proper and easily attainable conditions, live fences are perfectly practicable in this country, and in some parts of it they are doubtless economical. When well kept they are certainly very beautiful.

The soil for a hedge row must be deeply plowed or spaded, and if poor, manured a little.

Evergreens make the handsomest hedges; and although less stout, yet by shutting out of *sight* are usually quite safe. The Norway fir is the fastest grower—the hemlock most beautiful, and the best of any for the shade of trees; the growth is, however, rather slow. It shears finely, and its *interior* is dense. The Norway fir also does well on these points.

At the South we should choose the single white Macartney rose for general cultivation; although the Cherokee rose, when properly treated, the evergreen thorn, the honey locust, the jujube, and the Spanish bayonet (*Yucca gloriosa*) all form efficient and beautiful hedges.

A really good and perfect hedge should form a rounded pyramid, branching out broadly and close to the ground, and tapering up either sharply or obtuse, as the taste of the cultivator may determine. This is a fundamental principle in all hedging, and unless it is secured at the outset by proper trimming, it can never be done afterward.

Farm Implements.

History does not inform us when plows were first used; but there are traces of them in the earliest of all written authorities—the Bible.

One of the best of the improved harrows is the hinge harrow. This harrow may be folded double, or separated into two parts, for the convenience of transportation or other purpose. Either half may be lifted for any purpose while the implement is in motion; and the easy and independent play of the parts up and down upon the hinges enables the instrument to adapt itself to the surface of the ground in all places, so that whether going through hollows, or over knolls or ridges, it is always at work, and every tooth has an operation upon the soil.

The Geddes harrow and the Hanford harrow, triangular in

shape, are also excellent implements; and for light grounds, free from stones and other obstructions, the Scotch or square harrow serves it purpose admirably.

THE CULTIVATOR.

This is a useful implement for stirring the soil and killing weeds. It saves a great deal of hard labor; but must not be allowed to usurp the place of the plow where deep cultivation is required.

THE HORSE HOE.

Allied to the cultivator is the horse hoe in its various forms. "Knox's patent has four teeth. The forward one is simply a coulter, to keep the implement steady and in a straightforward direction; the two sides or middle teeth are miniature plows, which may be changed from one side to the other, so as to turn the earth from the rows at first weeding, when the plants are small and tender, or toward them in later cultivation, at the option of the operator; the broad rear tooth effectually disposes of grasses and weeds, cutting off or rooting up all that come in its way. It is a thorough pulverizer of the surface, sifting the earth and weeds through its iron prongs or fingers in the rear, leaving the weeds on the surface to wilt and die, and the ground level and mellow. For hoeing carrots, turnips, etc., where the rows are narrow, the side teeth are taken out, and the rear tooth, with the forward one as a director to guide the instrument, hoes and mellows the ground between the rows very perfectly."

THE FIELD ROLLER.

No good farmer will omit this useful implement from his list. In spring there is frequently great advantage in rolling lands recently sowed to grain and grass, as the earth that has been raised by the frost, exposing the roots of plants, is replaced by the operation, with benefit to the growing crop. The roller is particularly beneficial on light lands, of soil too loose and porous to retain moisture and protect the manure from the effects of drying winds and a scorching sun, and too light to allow the roots of plants a firm hold in the earth.

SEED SOWERS.

Every farmer or gardener needs a seed-sower of some sort; but one of the smallest and simplest of the many kinds manufactured will serve the purpose of the majority of agriculturists.

THE HORSE RAKE.

The utility of this simple implement is not fully realized, we are sure, or it would be more generally employed. A horse-rake is not an expensive implement, and every farmer should have one. The old revolver is perhaps the best for general use.

MOWERS, REAPERS, ETC.

Of the expensive labor-saving agricultural implements, like the mower, the reaper and the thresher, it does not fall within our purpose to speak, further than to recommend our readers to avail themselves of the grand economies which they afford, whenever they can, by combinations with their neighbors for joint ownership of such machines, or by employing those kept for the purpose of being hired out.

Farm Management.

A little farm well tilled;
A little barn well filled;
A little wife well willed.

The first requisite in all undertakings of magnitude is to "count the cost."

The importance of possessing the means of doing everything at exactly the right season cannot be too highly appreciated.

Admitting that the farm is already purchased and paid for, it becomes an object to know what else is needed and at what cost, before cultivation is commenced. If the buildings and fences are what they should be, which is not often the case, little immediate outlay will be needed for them. But if not, then an estimate must be made of the intended improvements, and the necessary sum allotted for them.

Size of Farms.—The cultivator will perceive in part the advantages of moderately-sized farms for men in moderate circumstances. The great disadvantage of a superficial, skimming culture is obvious with a moment's attention. Take the corn crop as an illustration. There are a great many farmers whose yearly product per acre does not exceed an average of *twenty-five* bushels. There are other farmers who obtain *generally* not less than *sixty* bushels per acre, and often eighty to ninety-five. Now observe the difference in the profits of each. The first gets 250 bushels from *ten* acres. In doing this he has to plow ten acres, harrow ten acres, mark out ten acres, find seed for ten acres, plant, cultivate, hoe, and cut up ten acres, besides paying the interest on ten acres, worth from three to five hundred dollars. The other farmer gets 250 bushels from *four* acres at the farthest; and he only plows, plants, cultivates, and hoes, to obtain the same amount, *four acres*, which from their fine tilth, and freedom from grass and weeds, is much easier done, even for an equal surface. The same reasoning applies throughout the farm. Be sure, then, to cultivate no more than can be done in the best manner, whether it be ten, fifty, or five hundred acres.

But let me not be misunderstood. Large farms are by no means to be objected to, provided the owner has capital enough to perform all the work as well as it is now done on the best farms of small size.

Laying out Farms.—This department is very much neglected.

Many suppose that this business is very quickly disposed of, that a very few minutes, or hours at most, will enable a man to plan the arrangement of his fields about right. But this is a great error. Even when a farm is of the simplest form, on a flat, uniform piece of ground, many things are to be borne in mind in laying it out.

In the first place we all know that the *fencing* of a moderately sized farm costs many hundred dollars. It is very desirable to do it well, and use at the same time as little mate-

rial as possible. To do this much will depend on the shape of the fields. A certain length of fence will inclose more land in the form of a *square* than in any other practical shape. Hence fields should approach this form as nearly as possible. Again, the disposition of lanes is a matter of consequence, so as to avoid unnecessary length and fencing and occupy the least quantity of ground.

In laying out a farm with a very uneven surface or irregular shape, it would be best to draw, first, a plan adapted to smooth ground, and then vary in size and shape of the fields, the distance of the lane from the center, its straightness, etc., according to the circumstances of the case.

Fences.—The kind of fence used, and the materials used for its construction, must depend on circumstances and localities. A good fence is always to be preferred to an imperfect one; though it will cost more, it will more than save that cost, and three times the amount in vexation besides, by keeping cattle, colts and pigs out of fields of grain.

Gates.—Every field on the farm should be entered by a good self-shutting and self-fastening gate. Let the farmer who has *bars* instead of gates, make a trial of their comparative convenience, by taking them out and replacing them without stopping as often as he does in one year on his farm, say about six hundred times, and he cannot fail to be satisfied which is the cheapest for use.

Buildings.—These should be as near the center of the farm as other considerations will admit. The buildings should not, however, be too remote from the public road, and a good, dry, healthy spot should be chosen.

The barn and outbuildings should be of ample extent. The barn should have space for hay, grain, and straw. It is a matter of great convenience to have the straw for littering stables housed and close at hand, and not out of doors, under a foot of snow. There should be plenty of stables and sheds for all domestic animals.

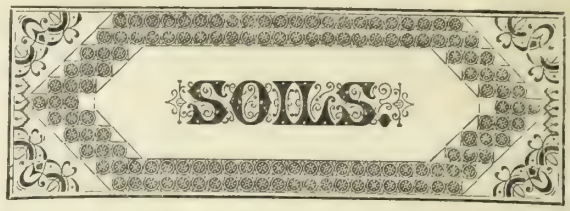
A small, cheap, movable horse-power should belong to every farm, to be used in churning, sawing wood, driving washing machine, turning grindstone, cutting straw, and slicing roots.

There should be a large root-cellar under the barn, into which the cart may be *dumped* from the outside. One great objection to the culture of roots in this country—the difficulty of winter keeping—would then vanish.

Both barns and house cellars should be well coated, on the bottom and sides, with water-lime mortar, which is a very cheap and effectual way to exclude both water and rats.

Choice of Implements.—Of those which are much used, the very best only should be procured. A laborer who, by the use of a good hoe for one month, can do one quarter more each day, saves, in the whole time, an entire week's labor.

Choice of Animals.—The best of all kinds should be selected, even if costing something more than others. Not "*fancy*" animals, but those good for use and profit. Cows should be productive of milk, and of a form adapted for beef; oxen hardy, and fast working; sheep, kept fine by never selling the best; swine, not the *largest* merely, but those fattening best on least food. A Berkshire at 200 pounds, fattened on 10 bushels of corn, is better than a "*land pike*" of 300, fattened on 50 bushels.



Soils, and their Management.—Soils are of various kinds as heavy and light, wet and dry, fertile and sterile They all require different management in a greater or less degree.

Heavy soils are often stronger and more productive than light; but they require more labor for pulverization and tillage. They cannot be plowed when very wet, nor so well when very dry.

Sandy and gravelly loams also contain clays, but in smaller quantity; so that they do not present the cloddiness and adhesiveness of heavy soils. Though possessing, generally, less strength than clay soils, they are far more easily tilled, and may be worked without difficulty in wet weather. They do not crack or break in drouth. Indian corn, ruta-bagas, and some other crops, succeed best upon them. Sandy soils are very easily tilled, but are generally not strong enough. When made rich, they are fine for some succulent crops. Peaty soils are generally light and free, containing large quantities of decayed vegetable matter. They are made by draining low and swampy grounds. They are fine for Indian corn, broom corn, barley, potatoes, and turnips. They are great absorbers, and great radiators of heat; hence they become warm in sunshine and cold in clear nights. For this reason they are peculiarly liable to frosts. Crops planted upon them must, consequently, be put in late, after spring frosts are over. Corn should be of early varieties, that it may not only be planted late, but ripen early.

Each of these kinds of soil may be variously improved. Heavy soils are much improved by draining; open drains to carry off the surface-water, and covered drains, that which settles beneath. Heavy soils are also made lighter and freer by manuring; by plowing under coatings of straw, rotten chips, and swamp muck; and, in some rare cases, by carting on sand, though this is usually too expensive for practice. Subsoil plowing is very beneficial both in wet seasons and in drouth; the deep, loose bed of earth it makes, receiving the water in heavy rains, and throwing it off to the soil above, when needed; but a frequent repetition of the operation is needed, as the subsoil gradually settles again.

Sandy soils are improved by manuring, by the application of lime, and by frequently plowing in green crops.

The great art of saving and manufacturing manure consists in retaining and applying to the best advantage those soluble and gaseous portions Probably more than one-half of all the materials which exist in the country are lost, totally lost, by not attending to the drainage of stables and farm-yards. This could be retained by a copious application of straw; by littering with sawdust, when saw-mills are near; and more especially by the frequent coating of yards and stables with

dried peat and swamp muck, of which many parts of our States furnish inexhaustible supplies.

Our limits do not admit of many remarks on the principles of rotation. The following courses, however, have been found among some of the best adapted to our State :

I. 1st year—Corn and roots, well manured.
2d year—Wheat, sown with cloverseed; 15lbs. an acre.
3d year—Clover, one or more years, according to fertility and amount of manure at hand.

II. 1st year—Corn and roots, with all the manure.
2d year—Barley and peas.
3d year—Wheat, sown with clover.
4th year—Clover, one or more years.

III. 1st year—Corn and roots, with all the manure.
2d year—Barley.
3d year—Wheat, sown with clover.
4th year—Pasture.
5th year—Meadow.
6th year—Fallow.
7th year—Wheat.
8th year—Oats, sown with clover.
9th year—Pasture or meadow.

The number of the fields must correspond with the number of the changes in each course, the first needing three fields to carry it out, the second four, and the third nine. As each field contains a crop each, in the several successive stages of the course, the whole number of fields collectively comprise the entire series of crops every year. Thus, in the list above given, there are two fields of wheat growing at once, three of meadow and pasture, one of corn and roots, one of barley, one of oats, and one in summer fallow.

Operations in the Order of Time.—The vital consequence of doing everything in the right season is known to every good farmer.

In reviewing the various items which are most immediately essential to good farm management, some of the most obvious will be—capital enough to buy the farm and to stock it well; to select a size compatible with these requisites; to lay it out in the best manner; to provide it well with fences, gates, and buildings; to select the best animals and the best implements to be had reasonably; to bring the soil into good condition, by draining, manuring, and good culture; to have every part under a good rotation of crops, and every operation arranged so as all to be conducted systematically, without clashing or confusion. An attention to all these points would place agriculture on a very different footing from its present condition in many places and with most farmers. The business then, instead of being repulsive, as it so frequently is to our young men, would be attended with real enjoyment and pleasure.

But in all improvements, in all enterprises, the great truth must not be forgotten, that success is not to be expected without diligence and industry. We must sow in spring and cultivate well in summer if we would reap an abundant harvest in autumn.



I. THE EDIBLE GRAINS.

INDIAN CORN—*Zea Mays.*

The principal varieties of Indian corn in extensive use for field culture in the United States are the Big White, Big Yellow, Little White, Little Yellow, and Virginia Gourd Seed (yellow and white). Of each of these there are many sub-varieties. The King Philip, or Brown Corn, a very early and small growing but productive variety, is much approved in the more Northern States; and Peabody's Prolific or Tillering Corn, said to be a wonderfully productive sort, is adapted to the Southern and Middle States; but it has not yet been extensively tested. In the selection of varieties, choose for general planting those that have been *proved* in your own vicinity, as the best sort of one locality may prove inferior in another. For trial, get new sorts from a more northern latitude, especially where earliness is particularly desirable.

The best soil for corn is a rich loam, but good crops are produced, with proper manuring, on light, sandy land. A strong clay, or a poor, wet soil will not produce a good crop. Corn is a gross feeder, and, except on very light, sandy soils, fresh, unfermented manure is best for it. Ashes may be added or applied as a top dressing, with great advantage, also the salt and lime mixture.

The after culture of Indian corn may mostly be performed with a light plow and a good cultivator. It should be commenced soon after the plants show themselves above ground, but deep culture of every kind should be discontinued after the roots have spread through the soil, as they cannot be disturbed without great injury. Hilling or heaping the earth about the plants is an absurd and injurious process, which, instead of helping to support them, as many suppose, greatly weakens the stalks, by destroying or covering up the prop-roots with which nature has supplied them.

Corn should be perfectly dried in the field, husked, and stored in an airy loft, or in a properly constructed granary or crib.

The proper selection and saving of seed is of great importance. It should be selected in the field from the earliest and largest ears of the most prolific stalks. In this way astonishing improvements in a variety may be gradually made.

WHEAT—*Triticum* of species.

Botanists describe about thirty species of wheat and some hundreds of varieties. The species mainly cultivated in the United States are the Winter Wheat and the Spring Wheat, in their numerous varieties.

In your choice of varieties it is best to be governed, as in the case of Indian corn, by the experience either of yourself or others. Depend upon known and tried sorts till, by experi-

ments on a small scale, you are satisfied that you have obtained something better.

"Wheat thrives best on a strong, clayey loam, but many light and all calcareous soils, if in a proper condition, will give a good yield. The soil should be deep, and well pulverized with the plow and the harrow. Underdraining and subsoil plowing add greatly to the amount of the crop.

"Select seed that is free from the seeds of weeds and from smut, if this be possible; but in any event it is well, previous to sowing, to wash it in a strong brine made of salt and water, taking care to skim off all light and foreign seeds. If the grain be smutty, repeat the washing in another clean brine, when it may be taken out and intimately mixed with about one twelfth of its bulk of pulverized quicklime.

"Wheat is subject to the attack of the Hessian fly if sown too early in the fall, and again the ensuing spring, there being two annual swarms of the fly, early in May and September. When thus invaded, harrowing or rolling, by which the maggots or flies are displaced or driven off, is the only remedy of much avail. Occasionally other flies and sometimes wheat worms, commit great depredation. There is no effectual remedy known against any of these marauders, beyond rolling, brushing, and harrowing."

The grain should be cut immediately after the lowest part of the stalk becomes yellow, while the grain is yet in the dough state, and easily compressible between the thumb and finger. Repeated experiments have demonstrated that wheat cut at this time will yield more in measure, of heavier weight, and a larger quantity of sweet, white flour. If early cut, a longer time is required for curing before storing or threshing.

Spring wheat should be sown as early as the ground will admit. The best crops are raised on land that has been plowed the previous fall, and sown without additional plowing, but harrowed-in thoroughly.

RYE—*Secale Cereale*

This plant will flourish on soils too poor or too destitute of lime for wheat. It has taken the place of wheat in many portions of the country, where repeated crops of the latter have exhausted the soil of some of the requisite elements for its growth. The best soil for it is a rich, sandy loam, but it grows freely on the lightest sandy and gravelly soils that are capable of sustaining any kind of vegetation. The directions for the preparation of soil and seed, and for cultivation, harvesting, etc., are the same as for wheat, but it is sometimes sown among standing corn and hoed in, the ground being left as level as possible. So soon as the corn is matured it is cut up by the roots and removed to the sides of the field, when the ground is thoroughly rolled.

THE OAT *Avena Sativa.*

This grain will grow on any soil, and in almost any climate. It is affected less by disease, and has fewer insect enemies than most of the cereals. The wire worm, however, occasionally proves destructive to it, when sown on fresh sod. The remedy in this case is to turn over the sod late in the fall, just before the severe winter frosts.

There are many varieties and sub-varieties of the oat.

The heaviest oat cultivated in the United States is the Imperial; and it is preferred by many to all others. It is bright and plump, and yields a large proportion of nutritive matter. It has proved very productive in the Northern and Middle States. But the variety most cultivated is the common White Oat, which is hardy and a good bearer.

The only oat that will mature with certainty in the Southern States is the Egyptian. It is sound, hardy, and moderately productive. It is sown in autumn. On most soils rolling is beneficial.

BARLEY—*Hordeum* of species.

In Europe this grain ranks next to wheat in importance; but it is much less extensively cultivated in the United States.

A loam of medium consistency, between light and heavy, is best for it. Barn-yard manures must never be applied directly to this grain. Steeping the seed twenty-four hours in a weak solution of saltpeter is beneficial. The roller is sometimes applied to the field, when the plants are two or three inches high, with great benefit.

It is of great importance to harvest barley at the proper time.

RICE. *Oryza Sativa.*

Rice probably affords food for more human beings than any other plant.

The varieties of rice most grown in South Carolina and Georgia, which have hitherto been the greatest rice-producing States of the Union, are the Gold-seed rice, the Guinea, the Common White, and the White-bearded. There are several other varieties, but generally inferior to the foregoing. The best are produced by careful cultivation on soils suited to this grain, and by a careful selection of seed.

The method of cultivation pursued on the rice lands of the lower Mississippi, as detailed by Dr. Cartwright, a practical planter, is as follows:

"The seed is sown broadcast about as thick as wheat, and harrowed-in with a light harrow, having many teeth; the ground being first well plowed and prepared by ditches and embankments for inundation. It is generally sown in March, and immediately after sowing, the water is let on, so as barely to overflow the ground. The water is withdrawn on the second, third, or fourth day, or as soon as the grain begins to swell. The rice very soon after comes up and grows finely. When it has attained about three inches in height, the water is again let on, the top leaves being left a little above the water. Complete immersion would kill the plant. A fortnight previous to harvest the water is drawn off to give the stalks strength, and to dry the ground for the convenience of the reapers."

BUCKWHEAT—*Polygonum Fagopyrum.*

Buckwheat is extensively cultivated in the United States, as it affords a flour which is much esteemed as an article of food. It will grow with considerable luxuriance on the poorest land. When intended for seed it should be sown sufficiently early to allow the kernel to become perfectly ripe—say from the middle of June to the first of July.

Buckwheat is often used for plowing under as a green manure. This can be done where the land is too poor to pro-

duce clover for that purpose. When in flower, it should be first rolled, and then plowed in.

MILLET—*Panicum* of species.

The species generally cultivated for the seed is the *P. milliaceum*. As a forage crop, the German millet (*P. Germanicum*) is preferable, and is coming into extensive use, especially at the West.

II. HOW TO SHOCK GRAIN.

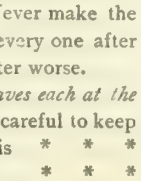
Many a valuable harvest may be preserved from ruin by taking heed to the following hints:

1. Grain should be firmly bound in smaller sheaves than it is almost universally found. Loosely bound sheaves cannot be well shocked. They also admit more rain than tightly bound ones.

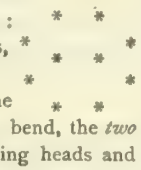
2. Two men can shock better and more advantageously than one.

3. Let the shocker always take two sheaves at a time, holding them with his elbow against his side, bringing the heads together with hands well spread upon them. Lift them as high as possible, bringing them with force, in as nearly a perpendicular position as can be, to the ground. Never make the second *thrust*, if the sheaves stand erect, for every one after the first, by breaking the butts, makes the matter worse.

4. Then let two persons bring down *two sheaves each at the same time*, as before described, being extremely careful to keep them perpendicular. The form of shock at this period may be represented thus:



5. As lastly stated, two more each, thus: The reader will perceive we now have ten sheaves, forming a circle as nearly as can be.



6. While one man presses the head of the shock firmly together, let the other *break*, not bend, the *two* cap sheaves, and place them on, well spreading heads and butts.

The main points are, to have grain *well bound*, sheaves made to stand in an *erect position*, and then to put cap sheaves on *firmly*, and every gust of wind will not demolish your work.

Grain is usually shocked in this manner: One sheaf is made to stand alone, another is *leaned* against it, and another, sometimes at an angle of forty-five degrees, "to make them stand up," until a sufficient number is thought to be *leaned up*.

Now the probability is, that there is but *one* sheaf in the whole shock that has its center of gravity within its base; as a matter of course, each depends on some other to hold it up. Consequently they twist; and if the shock does not fall down before the hands get the next one up, it most certainly will during the first rain, just when the perpendicular position is most necessary.

III. THE LEGUMES.

THE KIDNEY BEAN—*Phaseolus Vulgaris.*

The bush or dwarf kidney bean is frequently cultivated as a field crop. There are many sorts that may be profitably used for this purpose, but the Small White is generally preferred, as it is very prolific, quite hardy, will grow in light, poor soil, and is more delicately flavored than the colored varieties. The Long White garden bean is also good.

The bean succeeds best on a light, warm, and moderately fertile soil. A strong soil, or too much manure, induces a tendency to run to vine, without a corresponding quantity of fruit.

Plant either in hills or in drills. If you have a sower, or drill for putting them in, the latter is the best mode. The drills may be from two to three feet apart, the hills from eighteen inches to two feet each way. From five to eight plants are enough for a hill. They must be kept clear from weeds by the use of the hoe or cultivator; but should be earthed up very slightly, if at all. The first of June is sufficiently early to plant them. They are sometimes planted with corn, putting three or four beans in each hill. This may be done either at the time of planting the corn, or at the first hoeing.

THE PEA—*Pisum Sativum.*

The Marrowfat and Small Yellow peas are the sorts generally used for field culture. The Marrowfat is the richer and better pea, and is to be preferred for good soils. The Small Yellow thrives on poorer soils, and is therefore, in some cases, more profitably cultivated. In some parts of the South a very prolific bush pea is cultivated and much esteemed for the table, both green and dry.

Prepare the ground as for any other spring crop, by plowing and harrowing, and sow broadcast, at the rate of two or two and a half bushels to the acre. Cover them with the harrow or the cultivator, the latter implement being preferable, and smooth the ground by the use of the roller.

The great enemy of the pea is the pea-weevil or pea-bug, which is too well known to require description. As a remedy, some recommend keeping the seed in tight vessels over one year. This plan, if universally adopted, would probably lead to the total extermination of this destructive insect; but as this is not likely to be the case, the only practicable way to avoid its ravages is by late sowing.

THE PEA-NUT—*Arachis Hypogæa.*

This is a legume bearing its pods under the surface of the ground. It was originally brought from Africa.

A North Carolina planter thus describes the mode of cultivation: "So soon as the frost is out of the ground, the land is broken up, and about the middle of April laid off with the plow thirty-three inches each way; two or three peas are then dropped in the crosses thus made. The plants are kept clean with hoes and plows until the vines cover the ground; but no dirt is put on the vines. In October they are dug with a rake or plow. Hogs are then turned into the field, and they soon fatten upon the peas left upon the ground. When the vines are left upon the land for the hogs to feed upon, there is no crop that improves the land so much."

IV. ESCULENT ROOTS.

THE POTATO—*Solanum Tuberosum.*

In reference to the choice of varieties for planting, the best advice we can give will be simply a repetition of our recom-

mendations in respect to several other plants: Choose such as have been well tested by yourself or others, and found adapted to the soil and purposes for which they are to be cultivated. Try your experiments with new sorts, on a small scale, and with close observation of the results. Experiment, also, if leisure serve, in the production of new varieties from the seeds found in the balls.

A fair crop of potatoes may be produced on almost any soil, properly manured and prepared and well cultivated, but a rich loam, of medium humidity, is best. If fresh or unfermented manures be used, they should be spread on the land, and plowed under, and not scattered in the drills or hills, as they are apt to injure the flavor of the potatoes. Lime, crushed bones, gypsum, salt, and ashes are excellent special manures for the potato. The soil should be made loose and mellow before planting.

THE SWEET POTATO—*Convolvulus Batatas.*

This is *the* potato of the South, and is much cultivated in the Middle and Western States. In its perfection, as it grows in South Carolina and the other extreme Southern States, it is the best of all the esculent roots.

The varieties most cultivated are the Small Spanish, long, purplish color, grows in clusters, very productive, and of good quality; Brimstone, sulphur-colored, long, large and excellent; Red Bermuda, the best early potato; Common Yam, root oblong and large, the best keeper, and very productive.

A dry, loamy soil, inclining to sand, is best for the sweet potato. The manure should be plowed in, and the ground well pulverized. A top-dressing of wood ashes is very beneficial.

So soon as the tops are dead or touched by the frost, the crop should be gathered.

Sweet potatoes are difficult to keep.

THE TURNIP—*Brassica Repa.*

The varieties of the turnip are numerous. The flat English turnip has been longest in cultivation, and still holds its place among most farmers as a field crop. It thrives best on new land and freshly turned sod, but will grow wherever Indian corn can be raised.

English turnips are often sowed among Indian corn at the last hoeing, producing, in many cases, a fair crop.

The Ruta Baga or Swedes turnip is a far more valuable root than the English, but requires a little more attention in cultivation. It will grow on a heavier soil, yield as good a crop, furnish a more nutritive root, and keep longer.

The turnip is exposed to numerous depredators, of which the turnip flea-beetle is the most inveterate. It attacks the plant as soon as the first leaves expand, and often destroys two or three successive sowings. When the fly or bug is discovered, the application of lime, ashes, or soot, or all combined, should be made upon the leaves, while the dew or a slight moisture is on them.

Harvesting should be deferred till the approach of severe frosts, and at the South the crop may remain in the ground till wanted in the winter.

The Purple-Topped Swede, Skirving's Swede, and Ashcroft's Swede, are approved varieties.

THE CARROT—*Daucus Carota.*

The varieties mostly used for field culture are the Altringham, the Orange, and the White Belgian. The last-named is very productive, and, growing high out of ground, is more easily harvested than the other sorts; but, on the other hand, it is considered below the others in nutritive value.

It is very important to have both the soil and the manure for carrots free from the seeds of weeds and grasses; the plants in the early stages of their growth are small and feeble, which makes it a slow and expensive process to eradicate the weeds, if abundant. Well manured sandy, or light, loamy soils are best adapted to the carrot crop. The ground should be deeply worked, and brought to a fine tilth before sowing the seed.

THE PARSNIP—*Pastinaca Sativa.*

The parsnip is one of the best of all our table vegetables, and is also excellent for cattle, sheep and swine. The leaves of both parsnips and carrots are good for cattle, either green or dried.

THE BEET—*Beta Vulgaris.*

The varieties most in use for field culture are the Sugar beet and the Mangold-Wurzel, of both of which there are several sub-varieties.

Beets do well in any soil of sufficient depth and fertility, but they are perhaps most partial to a strong loam. If well tilled, they will produce large crops on a tenacious clay. We have raised at the rate of 800 bushels per acre, on a stiff clay, which had been well supplied with unfermented manure. The soil cannot be made too rich; and for such as are adhesive, fresh or unfermented manures are much the best.

The culture is similar to that of carrots and parsnips.

V. THE GRASSES.

The grasses cultivated for the food of animals are too numerous to admit of a description in such a work as this.

We will speak briefly of a few of the leading species cultivated among us, noting some of their peculiar excellences and adaptations.

TIMOTHY—*Phleum Pratense.*

Allen says: "For cultivation in the northern portion of the United States, I am inclined to place the Timothy first in the list of the grasses. It is indigenous to this country, and flourishes in all soils except such as are wet, too light, dry, or sandy; and it is found in perfection on the rich clays and clay loams which lie between 38° and 44° north latitude. It is a perennial, easy of cultivation, hardy and of luxuriant growth, and on its favorite soil yields from one and a half to two tons of hay per acre at one cutting."

It may be sown either in August or September with the winter grains, or in the spring. "Twelve quarts of seed per acre on a fine mellow tilth are sufficient; and twice this quantity on a stiff clay." This is the Herds grass of New England.

THE SMOOTH-STALKED MEADOW GRASS—*Poa Pratensis.*

This is one of the best of grasses, both for hay and for pasture. It is a native species, and is found almost everywhere, but does not grow in its greatest perfection north of the valley

of the Ohio. It is seen in all its glory on the fertile soils of Kentucky and Tennessee. Every animal that eats grass is fond of it.

The Roughish Meadow grass (*P. trivialis*) has the appearance of the smooth variety, but is rough to the touch, and prefers moist situations and clayey soils. This, also, is an excellent grass.

RED TOP—*Agrostis Vulgaris.*

A hardy and luxuriant species, much relished by cattle, but possessing only a moderate nutritive value. It is much cultivated in some portions of New England and elsewhere; but where better grasses will grow, this should be rejected. It is sometimes called Foul Meadow and Bent Grass.

TALL OAT GRASS—*Avena Elatior.*

An early and luxuriant grass, flourishing in a loamy or clayey soil, and making good hay. It grows to the height of four or five feet on good soils. It is well suited to pasture.

THE FESCUE GRASSES—*Festuca* of species.

The Tall Fescue grass (*F. elatior*), according to some experiments made in England, yields more nutritive matter per acre, when cut in flower, than any other grass cut either in flower or seed. It is an American grass, but has found less favor at home than abroad.

The Meadow Fescue (*F. pratensis*); the Spiked Fescue (*F. loleacea*); the Purple Fescue (*F. rubra*); and the Floating Fescue (*F. fluitans*), are all indigenous grasses of fine qualities and great value.

ORCHARD GRASS—*Dactylis Glomerata.*

The Orchard or Cock's Foot grass is excellent for shaded situations. It should be cut before it is ripe, and will furnish three or four crops a year.

THE EGYPTIAN GRASS—*Sorghum Halpense.*

A cane-like grass which grows in profusion in some of the Southern States. It is a superior stock-sustaining plant; but as it is difficult to remove when once imbedded in the soil, its introduction into cultivated fields is considered a great evil.

GERMAN MILLET—*Panicum Germanicum.*

This plant, known at the West as Hungarian grass, seems to have been introduced into Iowa by a Hungarian immigrant, and to have spread thence to other parts of the country. It had, however, been previously cultivated in small quantities under its proper name of German Millet. As a forage crop for the West at least, its value seems to be well proved. It has been less extensively tested at the East.

THE CLOVERS—*Trifolium* of species.

The Common Red clover (*T. pratense*) is a hardy and easily cultivated species, of which there are several varieties. It grows luxuriantly on every well-drained soil of sufficient strength to afford it nutriment.

Clover should be cut after having fully blossomed and assumed a brownish hue.

Southern Clover (*T. medium*) is a smaller species than the common Red, and matures earlier. It succeeds better on a light soil than the latter, and should be sown more thickly.

The White or Creeping clover (*T. repens*), of which there are several varieties, is a self-propagating plant, and adds greatly to the richness of many of our pastures, especially on clayey soils. It is very nutritious, and cattle, sheep, and horses are all fond of it.

Dr. Darlington, of Pennsylvania, gives the following as the species of grasses most valuable in our meadows and pastures, naming them in the order of their excellence:

1. Meadow or green grass (*Poa pratensis*). 2. Timothy (*Phleum pratense*). 3. Orchard grass (*Dactylis glomerata*). 4. Meadow Fescue (*Festuca pratensis*). 5. Blue grass (*Poa compressa*). 6. Ray gass (*Lolium perenne*). 7. Red top (*Agrostis vulgaris*). 8. Sweet-scented vernal grass (*Anthoxanthum odoratum*).

BROOM CORN—*Sorghum Saccharatum.*

Broom corn requires similar soil to Indian corn. A green sward turned over late in the fall is best. Well-rotted horse or sheep manure and wood ashes may be liberally scattered in the drills or hills. A situation not subject to early or late frosts should be chosen. Clayey lands are not suitable.

FLAX—*Linum Usitatissimum.*

A deep, rich loam or alluvial soil is best for flax. The proper fertility should be secured by a surplus of manure applied to a previous crop, as fresh manures are injurious to it.

HEMP—*Cannabis Sativa.*

This is a plant of the nettle tribe, and came originally from India. The Russians are at present its chief cultivators; but in our Western States, and especially in Kentucky, it is beginning to be widely raised.

A rich loam or vegetable mold suits the hemp plant. The ground should be carefully prepared by plowing and harrowing till it is perfectly pulverized, smooth, and even. The seeds are sown broadcast at the rate of a bushel and a half to the acre, and plowed or harrowed in. Plowing is best on ground liable to bake. In Kentucky they sow any time from the first of April to the tenth of May. It is desirable to sow just before a rain.

THE HOP—*Humulus Lupulus.*

The hop is found growing spontaneously on the banks of rivers and brooks in various parts of this country.

The best soil for the cultivation of hops is a sandy loam, rather low and moist, but they will grow on soils very different from this. New lands are to be preferred.

If the land has been long in use, it should be dressed with a compost of alkaline manures, or, what is nearly equivalent, with fresh barn-yard manures, on a previously well-hoed crop, and made perfectly free from all weeds, and deeply plowed and harrowed.

After gathering in the fall, the hops should be hilled or covered with compost, and all the vines removed. The following spring, when the ground is dry, the surface is scraped from the hill and additional compost is added, when a plow is

run on four sides, as near as possible without injury to the plants. All the running roots are laid bare and cut with a sharp knife within two or three inches of the main root, and the latter are trimmed if spreading too far. It is well to break or twist down the first shoots, and allow those which succeed to run, as they are likely to be stronger and more productive. Cutting should be avoided, unless in a sunny day, as the profuse bleeding injures them. The poles will keep much longer if laid away under cover till again wanted the following spring. Drying may be done by spreading the hops thinly in the shade, and stirring them often enough to prevent heating; but when there is a large quantity they can be safely cured only in a kiln.



LAYING OUT ORCHARDS.

We have often observed a good deal of inconvenience and perplexity in measuring off and laying out orchards, from a want of accuracy at the commencement. If the rows are begun crooked, stake after stake may be altered, without being able to form straight lines, and with only an increase of the confusion. If the first tree in a row of fifty be placed only six inches out of the way, and be followed as a guide for the rest, the last one will deviate fifty times six inches, or twenty-five feet from a right line, even if the first error is not repeated.

The most simple and convenient arrangement for orchards in all ordinary cases is in squares.

The second mode of arranging trees is in the old *quincunx* form, which is nothing more than a series of squares laid off diagonally, and has no special advantage to recommend it except novelty.

The *hexagonal* or *modern quincunx* possesses two important advantages. One is its more picturesque appearance, and its consequent fitness for proximity to ornamental plantations, and the other is its greater economy of space, as the trees are more evenly distributed over the ground.

One principal reason why the hexagonal mode is so little adopted is the supposed difficulty in laying out the ground. But, like many other apparent difficulties, it becomes very simple and easy when once understood.

SOIL AND SITUATION.

Downing says that strong loams, by which is meant loams with only just sufficient sand to render them friable and easily worked, are, on the whole, by far the best for fruit in this country. The trees do not come into bearing so soon as on a light, sandy soil, but they bear larger crops, are less liable to disease, and are much longer lived. Clayey loams, when *well drained*, are good, and trees growing on them are generally free from insects.

It is difficult to give any precise rules in reference to aspect. Good orchards may be found in all aspects, but a gentle slope to the southwest is generally to be preferred to any other. Where fruit is very liable to be killed by late spring frosts, and the season is long and warm enough to ripen it in any exposure, planting on the north sides of hills is practiced with advantage. Deep valleys with small streams of water should be avoided, as the cold air settles down in such places, and frosts are apt to prove fatal; but the borders of large rivers and lakes are favorable for orchards, as the climate is rendered milder by the presence of large bodies of water

PLANTING AND CULTIVATING AN ORCHARD.

The first thing is to prepare the ground by underdraining (if it require it, as most land does), subsoiling, or trench plowing, harrowing, manuring, etc.

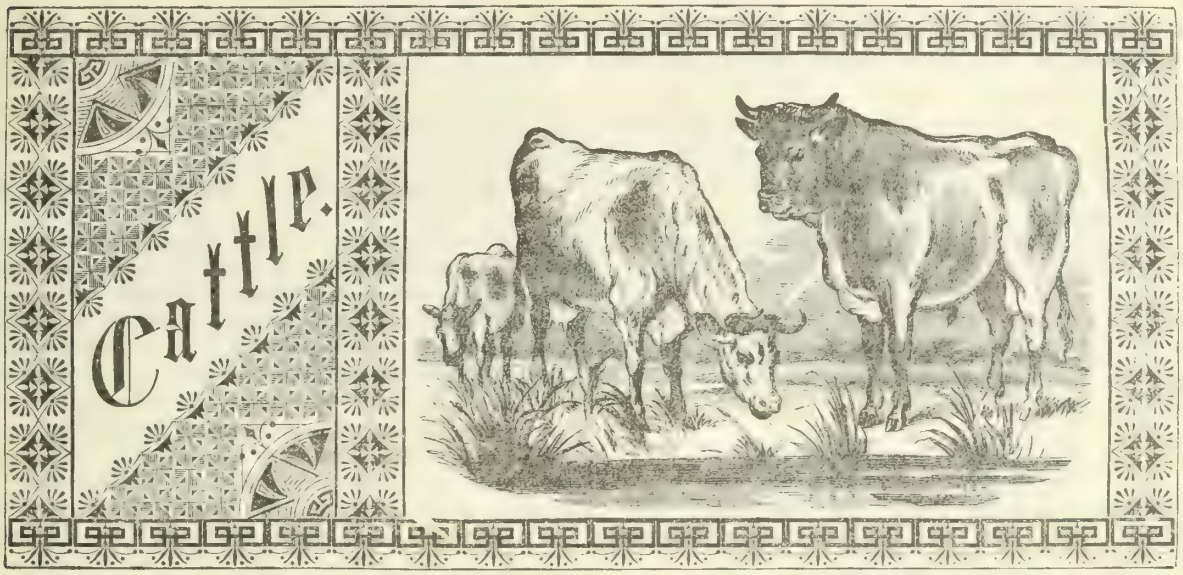
Choose sound, healthy trees for planting, and set them out carefully. Apple trees should be thirty feet apart in orchard culture. Set the same kind in rows together. This will facilitate the gathering of the fruit, and improve the appearance of the orchard.

It is an indispensable requisite in all young orchards to keep the ground mellow and loose by cultivation, at least for the first few years, until the trees are well established.

Fallow crops are best for orchards—potatoes, beets, carrots, bush beans, and the like; but, whatever crops may be grown, it should be constantly borne in mind that the roots of the tree require the sole occupancy of the ground so far as they extend, and therefore that an area of more than the diameter of the head of the tree should be kept clean of crops, weeds, and grass.

To keep the trees in a healthy bearing state, regular manuring is requisite. They exhaust the soil, like any other crop. Top-dressings of marl or mild lime may alternate with barn yard manure, muck composts, etc.

To prevent the attacks of the apple-borer, place about the trunks early in the spring a small mound of ashes or lime. Nursery trees may be protected by washing the stems in May, quite down to the ground, with a solution of two pounds of potash in eight quarts of water.



VARIETIES OF CATTLE.

THE Ox belongs to the fourth class of vertebrate animals, and is of the order *Ruminantia*. It is a ruminant, with hollow horns, which are directed sideways, and then twine upwards in form of a crescent. It is a large animal, with a broad muzzle, low stature, and stout legs. It is also distinguished by a fold of skin which hangs beneath the neck, and is called the *dewlap*.

The male and female of this species are respectively the BULL and the COW. The young males are called STEERS, and the females HEIFERS.

Beef is the most useful product which the ox affords.

The problem of utilizing the ox to the greatest extent simply consists in producing, as quickly and economically as possible, an animal excelling to the highest degree both in the quantity and quality of its meat. Care, therefore, must be taken particularly to develop those parts which furnish the joints which are most esteemed.

The type of the ox best fitted for the butcher is that in which flesh surpasses bone in proportion, and in which the hinder parts are more fully developed even at the expense of the neck and shoulders; for the latter joints furnish an inferior article of food, so that their reduction, if compensated for by an increase of the more valuable portions, must be a great desideratum.

What, therefore, are the points by which we can discern when an ox approaches the butcher's ideal? The answer is, great width combined with depth and length.

"The deeper the animal is in the thorax, in proportion to its size—the closer it is to the ground, in vulgar terms; added to this, the longer it is in body and rump; and the thicker it is, or, as is commonly said, 'the better it is made up,' the greater amount of clear meat it gives in comparison with its absolute or living weight, and the better it approaches to the desired type."

There are certain accessory characteristics which must have their due importance, as likewise forming a prominent feature in the type of the ox which is intended for the butcher. It must have slenderly made bones, a fine head, skin supple and not too thick, moderate dewlap, thin and downy hair, calm visage, quiet and mild look. It may be regarded as a certainty that the ox which combines these and the former attributes possesses a special fitness for becoming good beef.

Next to meat, milk is the most valuable product with which this race furnishes us—a source of wealth

to the producers, for it is an article of universal consumption. Thus it may be easily understood how important it is for the buyer to be able to distinguish, *à priori*, in the market, from certain outward signs, what are the milking qualities of a cow, and to be able to arrive at a correct conclusion, even in a heifer, whether she will be a good or bad milker.

There are both good and bad milkers in every race; the proportion, however, of each presents a certain constant character, by which some breeds may be recognized as possessing a decided milking superiority. Climate and nature of pasturage have also great influence on the lacteous qualities of different races.

The principal breeds of oxen and cows are the Shorthorn, Hereford and Devon; and besides these we have the Sussex, the Longhorned, the Galloway, the Angus and the Kyloe.

The Shorthorn is now undoubtedly the dominant breed. Originating in Teeswater, and carefully bred years before the existence of any herd-book recording descent, it soon reached the highest reputation for its early precocity and meat-producing qualities.

The Herefords, another leading breed of cattle, characterized by red body and white or mottled face, come almost as early to maturity as the shorthorn, and, attaining great weight, are certainly one of the best breeds. They have as great an antiquity as the shorthorn. As much as $5.000 have been given for a Hereford bull and cow; and high prices are fetched still, though not so high as those of the shorthorn stock, for well-bred bulls and cows.

The breed has now a herd-book of its own, and it is in the hands of as much enthusiasm and ability as has characterized the history of the shorthorns. For early maturity, and large size, accordingly, it now almost equals the shorthorn; and for quality of meat it probably excels it.

The Devon.—The North Devon ox is a small animal, of a light red color, without any white, with long yellowish horns, and a well-made symmetrical frame. Hardy, light and active, it is an excellent worker, and is worked in harness until five or six years old, and then fattened.

The Sussex is a larger, coarser animal than the Devon, but otherwise resembles it.

The Longhorned, a dairy breed, rather than one adapted for the feeding-house, is gradually disappearing from the midland and western counties, where it prevailed.

The Kyloe, or West Highlander, adapted to the rough pastures of the districts where it is bred, is driven south to be fattened on English grazing-grounds, where it yields the very best of beef at four and five years old. It is characterized by long, upturned horns, a shaggy coat of a yellow, dun, or black color, and well-made, compact little body.

The Galloway, resembling a Kyloe without horns, with a less shaggy coat, is, when well bred, one of the best-made and most symmetrical of our breeds of cattle. It, too, is driven south in large numbers to be fattened, and yields excellent beef.

The Angus, also a polled breed, of a red or black color, is a much larger animal, and when crossed with the pure-bred shorthorn breed, furnishes one of the best crosses for the feeding-stall that we have.

Besides these, there are other sorts especially adapted to the dairy.

Different Kinds of Cows.—The large kinds of cows are generally chosen where there are rich fertile pastures; and no doubt the dominant breed throughout the country, both for indoor and outdoor feeding, is, as has been said, the shorthorn. This breed is divided into several varieties—the Holderness, Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, etc. The Yorkshire is thought to be the best for the dairy. These fine animals appear to have descended from the Teeswater breed. There are a great many varieties of the large cows in this country that have been bred by shorthorn bulls. An excellent cross is common in the eastern counties between the best Suffolk cows and shorthorn animals of the best blood. They are good milkers, harmless, and very quiet, and consequently much approved of for pasture-feeding. Cows of this breed will produce from ten to twelve pounds of butter per week each, when well managed; and for butter dairying the quantity and quality of cream produced is of greater importance than the quantity of milk.

Cheshire Cows.—The Cheshire dairy farms are mostly stocked with a mixed breed of cows, between the Cheshire, Lancashire, and other crosses.

Lancashire.—The Lancashire are distinguished by their long horns, deep fore-quarters, and long hair. They, as well as other long-horned cows, are said to give richer milk than polled cows, but not so much of it. Besides the milking properties of a breed of cows, their hardy qualities must be thought of, where they are exposed to bleak situations; and no doubt the long-horned Lancashire and other coarse-skinned animals are the most hardy.

Devons.—The middle-horned breed of cows may include the Devons, the Herefords, and the Sussex. The two latter are the largest, but neither of them excel the best shorthorn in their produce of milk. The Devons are of a light red color, with yellowish colored horns, well made, and their milk is rich—or we should not have such rich Devonshire cream.

Hereford.—The Hereford, next in size to the shorthorn breed, is a fine animal and a pretty good one for dairy stock, but better, perhaps, for fattening purposes. The Sussex do not differ much from the Herefords; they are both of a darker color than the Devons, with horns of a moderate length, turning up at the points, having wide hips and smallish bones. They are middling cows for the dairy.

Galloway.—The polled Galloways are very nice animals for grazing purposes; they are mostly black, well proportioned in form, and yield an average quantity of milk, when carefully used, for dairy purposes.

Highland.—The Highland are not thought to be better milk-producers than the Galloways, but more hardy.

Ayrshire.—The Ayrshire cow is a favorite in some places, but not preferred by cow-keepers in general. It is, however,


PLOWING.
INDIAN CORN
WHEAT HARVEST.
PURCHASING HORSES.
CATTLE & THE DAIRY.

a good animal for the dairy, and almost equal to the Alderney in the richness of its milk. It has fine wrinkled horns, is larger than the Alderney, and somewhat like it in appearance. Its color is usually red and white.

Shetland.—The Shetland cattle are very small, and inferior in shape to those of the Western Highlands. They are hardy, small consumers of food, and yield about two quarts of milk a day.

Welsh.—The Pembrokeshire cow is small and hardy. It is fine-boned, with clean light head and neck, small yellow horn, good chine, long round barrel, thin thigh, and short fine legs, always in good condition if tolerably kept, and has a rich wave in her hair which ever denotes thriftiness of kind. Its produce is from five to seven pounds of butter a week during the dairy season.

Irish.—The Kerry cattle, in size and shape, resemble some of those from the Western Islands, of a high-bred deer-like shape, not so broad or so low in the leg as the native Highland Stots. These cattle are very hardy, being reared in a country of rocks and hills. Their properties are said to be that of giving the largest quantity of milk, which is also of the richest quality for the amount of sustenance they require.

Alderney.—The little Alderney cow is a slender-made animal, not very well shaped, though admired for its deer-like mild face and fine bone; it is mostly of a red and white color, with a mottled face. The Alderney gives the richest milk of any kind, and some of them have been known to produce ten and eleven pounds of butter a week of the finest quality. They are rather tender, and require to be well housed in the winter.

Suffolk.—The Suffolk cow is believed to be the best of the polled breeds for the dairy where the pastures are not very rich. They are quiet, hardy, and suitable for upland fields.

It is thought that the Dun-colored originally descended from the Galloway; they do not, however, generally appear to be so uniformly well-shaped as the Galloway, although they have been vastly improved of late years by careful breeders. Various crosses between them and the Ayrshire, and other varieties, have increased the produce of the dairy in many places; but it is believed that for large dairies, no cross is superior to that of the Suffolk cow and the shorthorn bull.

Whichever breed is made choice of to improve the stock, both male and female should be of the best animals. By a first-class bull a hardy, well-informed, and abundant milk-producing cow is almost sure to produce valuable calves to bring up for the future supply of the dairy.

THE COW AND CALF.

Rearing Cow Stock.—Where there is accommodation for rearing young cow stock, the best males and females should be selected for propagating a good breed. It would not do, however, for thsoe who expect to make a profit by dairy-farming, to purchase animals at the fabulous prices of hundreds and thousands of dollars, such as we read of at the sales of first-class breeders. Very excellent animals can be found now of various breeds, and calves chosen from the best of them, though not very high in price, will be as good for dairy purposes as the most celebrated stock. A selection should be carefully made from mothers which are the best milkers, with full-size udders, wide rounded hips, straight backs, and broad chests, with small tapering legs; and bulls with broad breast, projecting a little before their legs, with neck rising from their shoulders, moderate-sized heads, flat, broad, straight backs, well filled up behind their shoulders and between their ribs and hips, with small straight legs and rounded bodies. Large sunken bodies are generally brought on by poor keep. Animals kept on straw and sedgy meadows only, while young, are usually disfigured by their bodies becoming unnaturally protruded.

Watchfulness required.—When cows are expected to calve (at the end of forty weeks) they should be carefully watched night and day, and where the weaning of the calf is intended, it would be best for them to calve at the beginning of March, as they would then have the whole of the grass season before them. When the cow has had a protracted and difficult calving-time, she will require careful treatment. In common natural cases she will soon be all right; but in difficult cases brushing of the belly and loins with a wisp is serviceable—gentle walking exercise for a short time in fine weather is useful. Gruels and cordial drinks should also occasionally be given. The latter might consist of a quart of ale mixed with sugar or treacle, and diluted with water, to be given warm. She must have her warm water mixed with a little meal. Should fever intervene, it is best to send for the veterinary surgeon, and commit the case to his care.

Cows after calving should be carefully fed with nutritious food, in small quantities often repeated; and it is certainly best to give cooked or boiled food, as it prevents more generally indigestion and flatulent colic. At all events, sweet and easily digested food should be given, or material injury may arise. Should the udder swell from excess of milk, or the incapacity of the calf to draw it all away, frequent milking is requisite, and it should be hand-rubbed well, with frequent washings of warm water and soft soap, or with warm bran-water. The teats occasionally become sore; the same applications should be resorted to, and, in addition, a little lard, olive-oil, or even cream, should be gently rubbed on, particularly in cases of pustules arising, or scab.

Calves will soon learn to drink from a pail; but it is generally thought best to allow them to suck from their mothers for a few days, while the herdsman milks on the opposite side. The cow will give down her milk the better for it, and become reconciled to his milking her without the calf afterwards, if treated with gentle kindness.

The calf should have new milk for a fortnight twice a day; then skimmed milk mixed with oatmeal or linseed meal, boiled for half an hour, during another fortnight or three weeks. It will require about two gallons a day till it begins to eat well, which it will do when it is five or six weeks old, if some sweet hay be given it daily, or some hay chaff with pulped mangold or swedes mixed with it. Skimmed milk, or whey mixed with a little linseed meal, will then do for its drink,* which may be continued till it is twelve weeks old, when it would live very

* The milk may be taken from the quantity set up for butter and once skimmed after standing twelve hours.

well on a pasture or on natural food. Some people wean calves almost entirely on linseed tea.

Summer Treatment.—When the weather is warm and the flies become troublesome, they ought not to be left in their pasture without shade or shelter. If well shaded during the heat of the day, and supplied with pure water and some green food in their cribs, they will most likely continue to thrive; but if left to be tormented with flies, huddled together in a corner of their pasture, or in a wet ditch, they will probably become unhealthy. It may here be remarked that, on first leaving the cow-house, the calf should be confined in a safe place in the yard or elsewhere for a day or two, until it becomes accustomed to the bright light of day, as on its first introduction it appears almost blind, and would be likely to run into danger.

A change of pasture now and then is desirable, but calves should not be put into low wet meadows, as it is generally in such situations that they get diseased with a husky cough. As the fall approaches the grass will be less nutritious, it will then be necessary to give them some food in their yard or shed, such as pulped roots mixed with cut straw chaff, every night. A little salt mixed with their chaff is a good thing, and is believed by some people to prevent "hove."

When frost begins they should not be turned into their pasture till nine or ten o'clock, or till it disappears. Their racks, cribs, and mangers, or whatever they feed or drink from, should constantly be kept clean, and the herdsman should be urged to feed and water them regularly, and to keep them well supplied with dry bedding.

As winter approaches they would be best confined to the yard and shed, where, if well sheltered and fed regularly with a proper quantity of pulped roots, turnips or mangold, mixed with straw chaff sprinkled with a little salt, they will thrive fast enough till the spring, when they can return to their pastures, or be provided with green food; they should be carefully treated as before recommended. The upland pastures are best for young stock.

Some people allow heifers to have calves when only two years old, but they seldom (if ever) make such good cows as those that are left free till they are three years of age.

Young stock brought up as here recommended will generally thrive fast, and be free from disease.

Cost of Keep.—Cows are large consumers of food, and should not be stinted when in milk. Heifers will require nothing but green food in the dry summer months; but as the winter approaches they should be sheltered in a yard at night, and a little fresh barley or oat straw given them in their cribs; whenever the pastures become injured by frost, both young and old cows require improved food in their sheds. A few Swedish turnips or mangold roots should then be given them, which, if pulped and mixed with sweet chaff (one-fourth hay), would be sufficient to keep them in healthy condition; but this applies only to those that are not in milk. When within two months of calving, all cows should be dried, for, if not then dried, they will not produce so much milk the next year. They should afterwards have their food improved by an additional weight of roots with their chaff, which should be mixed in a heap over-night. By the morning it will be found to have heated a little, which imparts a flavor that is much relished by the cows.

Consumption of Food.—As was before remarked, "cows are large consumers of food," and no wonder that they should require an abundance, to enable them to supply so rich a sustenance for mankind, as well as to support themselves. Where there are no good dry pastures to provide them with plenty for their summer keep, they would do very well in a proper feeding-house (enclosed on the north and south sides) with a door at each end, if they were liberally supplied with green food, cut for them and put in racks: such as rye grass, clover, tares. It has been found that milk as abundant and butter quite as good have been produced by cows so fed, as by those which had the run of rich pastures. But where there are pastures it would be well to have the cows housed in hot weather, when insects are troublesome; or else they will be worried and heated and unable to feed, and will fall off in their produce of milk.

A large cow will consume a cwt. of green food per day.

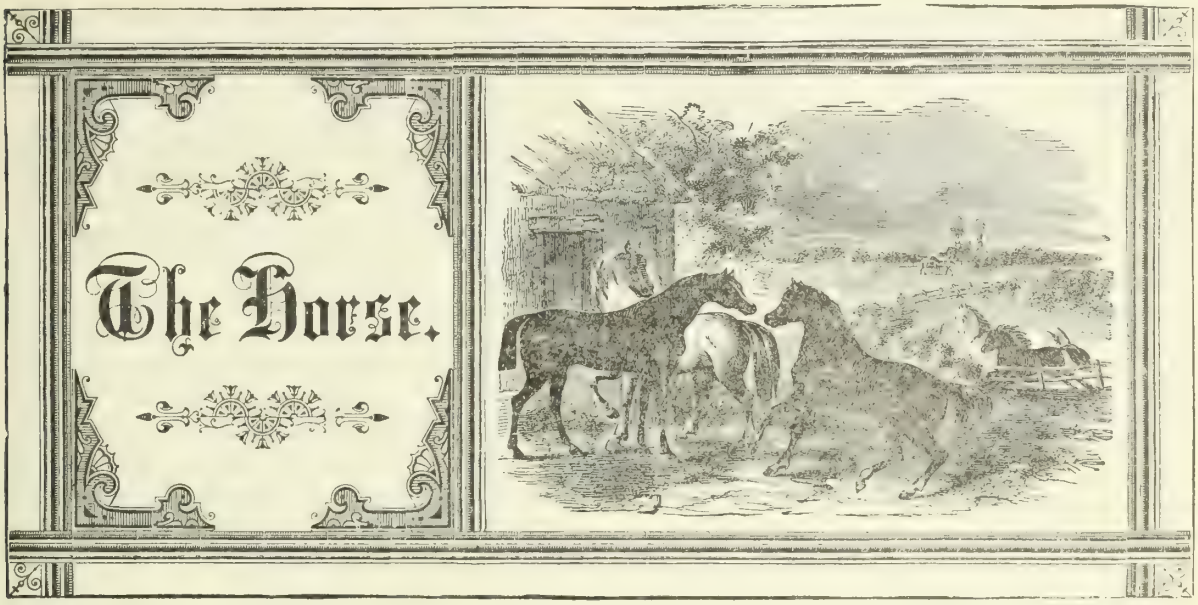
When green food is scarce, as is generally the case at the end of a dry summer, a little linseed-cake or bean-meal, mixed with cut chaff (one third hay), should be given them to keep up the produce of milk, lest part of the best season for dairying should be lost by its failure.

It is not good economy to feed cows on much uncut hay, for they would consume and spoil a cwt. a day, if fed entirely on it. Much less expensive and more natural condiments can be made by a mixture of bean, barley, maize, or linseed-meal, and other produce of the soil by cow-keepers themselves.

Milk Dairies.—When cows are kept only for the purpose of producing a large quantity of milk, brewers' grains are given them, with a small portion of hay, for ruminating purposes. On this they do tolerably well, but it will be found to their advantage if about three or four pounds of bean-meal be mixed with the grains for each cow per day.

Winter Food.—In winter and spring, Swedish turnips, mangold, and other root crops would be found more economical food than the grains, meal, and hay last mentioned. A bushel of pulped roots mixed with about fourteen pounds of cut chaff, one-third hay, and given them twice a day, would be found sufficient to satisfy a moderate-sized cow, but they should not be stinted or confined to any quantity if they are found to require more. Cabbages, carrots, and parsnips are very good food for milch cows if given in moderate quantities with other food. It is important that all roots should be freed from earth before pulping, or given to the cows, otherwise it would impart an unpleasant flavor to the cream. When cows are fed on pulped roots, with cut chaff, a peck or two of malt-dust ("combs") would be a nice addition, as it would give a zest to the mixture. A sufficient quantity for the whole herd should be put into a heap about twelve hours before it would be wanted, when it would be found to have acquired a little warmth and a fragrant smell, which would give the cows a greater relish for it.

A change of green or succulent food appears to promote the secretions of the system, and to give stimulus to their action Such as would injure the flavor of milk should be avoided. White turnips and cabbages will do this, if given without a good supply of other food with them.



EARLY HISTORY AND HABITS OF THE HORSE.

THE EARLY HISTORY AND ORIGIN OF THE HORSE is wrapped in obscurity and fable, and we really know little or nothing of it, except that we have reason to believe that he first came from Asia, like man, and, according to the Mosaic account, all other animals now existing; and that he was used in Egypt more than 1600 years before Christ. But with the *history* of the horse we shall not encumber this book, which might be enlarged to an enormous extent if this department were entered into at length. Suffice it, then, to discuss the present condition of the horse, and its more recent origin, in addition to his general habits.

THE HABITS OF THE HORSE, in all countries, and of all varieties, are pretty much alike. Wherever he is at large, he is bold, but wary, and easily taking note of the approach of man, to give him as wide a berth as he possibly can, or rather show him a clean pair of heels. Wild horses exist to the present day in the interior of Asia and in South America. But both the horses of the Tartars and those of La Plata are descended from the domesticated animals, and can scarcely be called wild in the ordinary acceptation of the term. From their constant state of liberty, and their roving habits, in order to obtain food and water, they are inured to fatigue, and can bear an enormous amount of long-continued fast work, without failing under it, and without that training which the domesticated animal must have. The walk and the gallop are the horse's natural paces, and all others are acquired; but nothing can exceed the fiery animation and elegance of movement of the free horse; and in these two paces art has done nothing to improve his form, except, perhaps, in slightly increasing the speed of the latter. In all countries, and in every age, the horse feeds upon grain or grass, though it is said that in Arabia he is occasionally supported upon camel's milk, when food such as he usually lives upon is not to be had.

It may be useful to specify the terms employed to describe the principal parts of the horse. These details will not prove altogether superfluous, as some of the words we are about to explain not unfrequently occur in conversation.

The two parts of the head of the horse which correspond to the temples in a man are above the eyes. The eyes themselves have a loose crescentiform fold of the conjunctiva at the inner angle, often errone

ously called *membrana nictitans*, but it neither performs its office or possesses its muscular apparatus. The orbit, which is formed of seven bones, four cranial and three facial, contains the globe of the eye, on the inner angle of which is situated the *haw*. The *eye-pits* are deep indentations which lie between the eye and the ear, above the eyebrows on each side.

The *face* is the front of the head from the eyes to the nostrils; this part corresponds to the upper part of a man's nose. This name is, however, generally applied to that portion that surrounds the curl or centre on the forehead from whence the hair radiates.

The neck of the horse is designated by the word *crest;* it is comprised from one end to the other between the mane on the upper side and the gullet on the lower. The *fore-lock* is the portion of the mane which is on the top of the head and falls over on the forehead between the eyes.

The *withers* is the spot where the shoulders meet up above, between the back and the neck, at the point where the neck and the mane come to an end.

The *chest* is that part which is in front between the shoulders and below the throat.

The *back* commences at the withers and extend all along the spine as far as the crupper. When the horse is fat, the whole length of the spine forms a kind of hollow which is said to be *channeled*.

The space which is included within the ribs is called the *barrel;* the name of *stomach* is also given to the lower part of the body which joins the *os sternum* and the bottom of the ribs.

The *flanks* lie at the extremity of the stomach and extend as far as the hip-bones. The tail is divided into two parts: the stump or *dock*, and the hair.

The upper part of the front leg of the horse is called the *shoulder* although it corresponds with the fore-arm in a man; the *fore-arm* follows it lower down.

The joint which is below the fore-arm is called the *knee;* it corresponds to the place of the wrist in man, forms an angle turning inwards when the leg is bent.

The *shank* forms the second portion of the fore-leg; it commences at the knee-joint, and corresponds to the *metacarpus* in man.

Behind the shank is a tendon, which extends from one end to the other, and is called the *back-sinew*.

The *fetlock-joint* is the articulation immediately below the shank.

The *fetlock* itself is a tuft of hair covering a sort of soft horny excrescence, which is called the *ergot*.

The *pastern* is the portion of the leg between the fetlock-joint and the foot.

The *coronet* is an elevation lying below the pastern, and is furnished with long hair falling over the hoof, all round the foot.

The *hoofs* form, so to speak, the nails of the horse, and consist of a horny substance.

In order to describe the parts which make up the hind legs of the horse, we must go back to the haunches. Each of these contains the *femur*, and corresponds to the thigh of a man. It is, therefore, the thigh of the horse, which is joined on to the body, and bears the name of buttocks. It is terminated below and in front by the *stifle* which is the joint of the knee containing the knee-pan. It is situated below the haunch, on a level with the flank, and shifts its place when the horse walks.

The highest part of the hind leg, which is detached from the body, is called the *thigh*, or *gaskins*, and corresponds to the leg of a man. It extends from the stifle and lower part of the buttocks down to the *hock*.

The hock is the joint which is below the thigh, and bends forward. This joint represents the instep in a man; the hinder part of the hock, which is called the point of the hock, is the *heel*.

Below the hock are the shank, the fetlock-joint, the pastern, and the foot, just the same as in the fore-legs.

We will now say a few words as to the diversity of color in the coat of the horse, in order to fix the meaning of the terms which are generally employed to designate the various hues which the coat presents.

Bay is a reddish nut-brown color, with various shades. *Dark bay* horses are of a very dark brown, almost black, except on the flanks and tip of the nose, where they are of a reddish color. The *golden*, or *light bay*, is a yellow sun-light hue. *Dappled bay* horses have on their rumps spots of a darker bay than on the rest of their bodies. In bay horses the extremities, the mane, and the tail are always black.

There are three kinds of black horses: the *rusty black*, which is of a brownish tinge, more or less conspicuous in various lights; the *black*, and the *coal-black*, which is the darkest of all.

Dun-colored horses, of which there are several

shades, are of a yellowish-sandy hue ; the mane and tail of these are either white or black. Some of the latter have a black line along the vertebræ, which is called a *mule's*, or *eel-stripe*.

Chestnut is a kind of reddish or cinnamon-colored bay. There are several shades of it, among which are the *bright chestnut*, which is the color of a red cow's coat ; the *common chestnut*, which is neither dark nor bright ; the *bay chestnut*, which verges upon the red ; the *burnt chestnut*, which is dark, and nearly approaches black. Some chestnut horses have white manes and tails, others black. The *roan* is a mixture of red and white.

Gray horses have white hair mixed with black or bay. There are several modifications of this color ; the *dappled-gray*, the *silver-gray*, the *iron-gray*, etc. Dapple-gray horses have on the back and other parts of the body a number of round spots, in some cases black in others of a lighter hue ; these spots are somewhat irregularly distributed. Gray horses as they increase in age become lighter in color, ultimately becoming white.

Piebald and *skewbald* horses are white, with large irregular spots and stripes of some other color irregularly arranged. The different kinds are distinguished by the color that is combined with the white, as the *piebald* proper, which are white and black ; the *skewbald*, which are white and bay ; the *chestnut piebald*, which are white and chestnut.

The horses which have small black spots on a white or gray coat are called *flea-bitten*, particularly prevalent in India among Arabs.

We have hitherto considered the wild and domestic horse in common, both as regards their structure and their color, in short, their outward appearance generally, without noticing the different breeds, which must soon occupy our attention. But before we enter upon the study of the various equine races, it is necessary to give a short explanation as to the way in which the bit regulates the paces of the horse. By this we are led to speak of the construction of the mouth, a knowledge of which is most useful.

The horse either walks, trots, gallops, or ambles.

The paces of the horse are essentially modified by means both of the bit and spur. The spur excites a quickness of movement ; the bit communicates to this movement a due amount of precision. The mouth of the horse is so sensitive that the least movement or the slightest impression which it receives warns and regulates the motion of the animal. But to preserve the full delicacy of this organ, it is highly necessary to treat tenderly its extreme sensibility.

The position of the teeth in the jaw of the horse affords to man the facility which exists in placing a bit in its mouth, by which instrument this high-spirited and vigorous animal is broken in and guided. Let us, therefore, in the first place, study the arrangement of its mouth.

There are in each jaw six incisors, or fore-teeth, followed on either side by a tush, which is generally deficient in mares, especially in the lower jaw. Next comes a series of six grinders on each side in both jaws ; these teeth have a square crown, marked with four crescents, formed by the *laminæ* of enamel which are embedded on them. Between the tushes and the grinders there is a considerable space called the *bar*, which corresponds to the angle of the lips ; and it is in this interval that the bit is placed.

It is also by means of the teeth that we are enabled to know a horse's age—a knowledge which is of the highest utility ; for a horse increases in value in proportion as he approaches maturity, again decreasing in worth as he becomes older. Up to nine years the age can be determined pretty accurately by means of the changes which take place in the teeth.

The foal, at his birth, is usually devoid of teeth in the front of the mouth, and has only two grinders on each side in each jaw. At the end of a few days, the two middle fore-teeth, or *pincers*, make their appearance. In the course of the first month a third grinder shows itself, and in four months more the two next fore-teeth also emerge ; within six and a half or eight months the side incisives, or *corner teeth*, show, and also a fourth grinder. At this period the first dentition is complete. The changes which take place up to the age of three years depend only on the fore-teeth being worn away more or less, and the black hollows being obliterated gradually by contact with food. In thirteen to sixteen months the cavities on the surface of the *pincers* are effaced ; they are then said to be *razed*. In sixteen to twenty months the intermediate fore-teeth are likewise *razed*, and in twenty to twenty-four months the same thing takes place with the *corner teeth*.

The second dentition commences at the age of two and a half or three years. The milk-teeth may be recognized by their shortness, their whiteness, and the construction round their base called the *neck* of

the tooth. The teeth which replace them have no necks, and are much larger. The *pincers* are the first to fall out and be replaced by new ones. At the age of from three years and a half to four years the intermediate fore-teeth experience the same change, and the lower tushes begin to make their appearance. The *corner teeth* are also renewed when between four and a half to five years; the upper tushes likewise pierce the gums, and about the same date the sixth grinder shows itself.

A depression, or small hollow, may be noticed on the surface of the crown of the second growth of fore-teeth, just as in the milk-teeth, and these hollows are gradually worn away in the same fashion.

The *pincers* of the lower jaw lose their cavities when the horse is five or six years old; the intermediate fore-teeth are the next to *raze*. The marks in the *corner-teeth* are obliterated at the age of seven or eight years. The process of destruction of the marks in the upper fore-teeth goes on in the same order, but more tardily.

When all these various changes have taken place, the horse is looked upon as *aged*, because the teeth no longer furnish any certain indications as to the age of the animal. Only approximate inferences can now be drawn from the length and color of the tusks, which become more and more bare and projecting from the gum, etc.

The domestication of the horse appears to date back to the very earliest period of his appearance on earth; and as this animal adapts itself to every necessity, every want, and every climate, its subjection has resulted in a considerable number of races, distinguished by more or less prominent characteristics of shape, strength, temper, and endurance. Although generally intelligent, affectionate, and endowed with considerable powers of memory, these qualities in the horse are essentially modified by education and climate. And for the full development of his intelligence and his high qualities, it is requisite that man should be his companion and his friend, as well as his master, but never his tyrant. Under the whip of an unfeeling driver, the horse becomes brutalized, and rapidly degenerates, morally even more than physically.

The attachment of the horse for those who treat it kindly is a well-known fact.

The influence of memory on the horse is shown by the sense it retains of injuries and ill-treatment it has suffered. Many a horse is restive with persons who have misused it, while perfectly docile with others, proving a consciousness of good and evil, and a natural insubordination against tyranny and injustice.

PRESENT VARIETIES OF THE HORSE.

The **Arabian** is still one of the most distinct varieties of this noble animal, and also one of the most prized, being eagerly sought for by Turks and Christians in Asia, Southern Russia, India, and even in Australia. In his native deserts he is still sometimes to be seen in a half-wild state, though most probably owned by some of the "dwellers in tents" peculiar to that region. But it is the more domestic breed with which we have chiefly to do, and which is carefully preserved in a pure state by the chiefs of the various tribes, though it is supposed not so free from stain now as was formerly the case. The head of the Arab is the most beautiful model in nature, giving the idea of courage, tempered with docility and submission to man, better than any other animal, and even more so than the dog. It is seldom, perhaps, that so beautiful a frame exists; but examples are not wanting of such a union of elegance with perfectly good and useful points. The length and muscularity of the fore-arm are also remarkable, and the setting on of the tail is peculiarly high—points which have generally been transmitted to our thorough-bred horses descended from Arabian blood. Many imported horses of this breed are exceedingly wicked and full of tricks, but in India, as a rule, he is quite the reverse. To the modern sportsman also he is valuable, because he faces the elephant and the tiger better than any other breed. In height he is generally a little under fifteen hands; and in color either bay, black, or gray. It is said that there are three distinct breeds of Arabians even now—the *Attechi*, a very superior breed; the *Kadischi*, mixed with these, and of little value; and the *Kochlani*, highly prized, and very difficult to procure. If this is true, it may account for the very different results produced by breeding from modern Arabs and those introduced in the eighteenth century.

The **Barb** is an African horse, of smaller size but coarser make than the Arabian, and evidently fed upon more nutritious food. As his name implies, his native land is Barbary; but there is always great doubt about the particular breed to which imported horses belong, because they are carried considerable distances from their native plains, and are also even then much mixed in blood. It has frequently been said that the Barb is the progenitor of one root of the best English stock, and that the Godolphin Arabian, as he was called, belonged to this blood; but the disputed point cannot possibly be settled, and there seems only one argument in favor of the supposition, founded upon his enormously high crest; while his superior size, being 15 hands high, argues just as strongly in favor of Arab descent. But the Spanish horse is no doubt descended from the Barb, this breed having been carried into Spain by the Moors when they overran the country; and, as the appearance of the Spanish horse is totally opposed to that of the descendants of Godolphin, it is a still stronger proof of his Arabian ancestry, or, at all events, an argument against his claim to Barbary as a native clime.

The **Dongola** horse is another African variety, of a much larger size than either the Arab or the Barb, but more leggy. I am not aware that any of this breed have reached this country.

The **Persian** is a small-sized horse, and quite as elegant as the Arabian, but not nearly so enduring.

The **Turkooman**, again, is a larger breed, but without the elegance of form of the Arab and Persian. They are light in the barrel, and leggy, with coarse heads and ewe-necks; yet they are endowed with very stout and lasting qualities, and they are said to travel very long distances without distress. This is only another instance of the oft-quoted adage, "that the horse can go in all forms."

The **Cossack** horses are reared at liberty, and in large herds, and they were long said to be, in consequence of this fact, of unrivaled speed and stoutness.

The **Turkish** horse is supposed to be nearly pure Arab, with a cross of the Persian and Turkooman. He is a very fine, high-spirited, and elegant horse.

The **East-Indian** and **Australian** horses are of various mixed breeds, some being Arabs, some Persians, and others Turks and Barbs; while others again are of English blood, but these degenerate rapidly, and though serviceable in crossing with the Arabian or the Barb, yet they cannot long be maintained in their original purity without injury.

The **Belgian** and **Dutch** horses for slow work are very serviceable. They are, however, most of them too heavy and lumbering for anything but machiners, and even in that department they require care not to over-drive them.

The **Norman** horse, again, is a much more hardy and compact animal. He is, however, gifted with an excellent constitution, and with legs and feet which will stand rattling to any extent. These horses are generally low and short-legged, as compared with the Belgians.

The **Spanish** horse is much crossed with the Barb, and has the good head and neck of that breed, but coupled with a weak and drooping hind-quarter and a very light middle-piece. The shoulders and legs are, however, good.

The **American** and **Canadian** breeds vary a great deal, and are made up of the original Spanish stock crossed with English, Arabian, and Barb importations. Climate, however, has done much for them; and they have all the wiriness of frame and elasticity of muscle which their masters possess. As trotters they are unrivaled, and in endurance stand very high; but they are not remarkable for beauty, though not showing any peculiarly unsightly points. Some of the best breeds of horses have been imported by us, especially in Virginia, where Tranby, Priam, and many others have done good service. Our importers have always been careful to select *sound* as well as stout blood, and have not hesitated to invest large sums in order to procure it.

The **English Thorough-bred.**—England is indebted to the Stuarts for the first great improvement made in the breed of her horses, James I. and Charles I. having introduced the Arabian blood, and Charles II. laying the foundation of her present breeds by importing several mares (called Royal Mares, from their master), to which may be traced the celebrated horses of the latter end of the last century, and some of her best modern breeds. Numerous Eastern horses were also imported at various times.

The **Thorough-bred** horse is intended for racing only. The *height* of the race horse varies from 15 hands to 16½ hands, or even 17 hands; but the general height of our best horses is about 15 hands 3 inches.

The *head* and *neck* should be characterized by *lightness*, which is essential to this department. Whatever is unnecessary is so much dead weight, and we know the effect of 7 lbs. in impeding the horse over a distance of ground. Now 7 lbs. are easily bestowed upon a neck which may differ in at least 20 or 30 lbs. between the two extremes of lightness and excessive weight. Thus, it may be considered as indubitable that whatever is met with in the head and neck, which is not necessary for the peculiar purposes of the race horse, is so much weight thrown away, and yet it must be carried by the horse. Such is the general character of this part; but, in detail, the *head* should be lean about the jaw, yet with a full development of forehead, which should be convex and wide, so as to contain within the skull a good volume of brain. Supposing this fullness to exist, all the rest of the head may be as fine as possible; the jaws being reduced to a fine muzzle, with a slight hollowing out in front, but with a width between the two sides of the lower jaw where it joins the neck, so as to allow plenty of room for the top of the windpipe when the neck is bent. The ears should be pricked and fine, but not too short; eyes full and spirited; nostrils large, and capable of being well dilated when at full speed, which is easily tested by the gallop, after which they ought to stand out firmly, and so as to show the internal lining fully. The *neck* should be muscular and yet light; the windpipe loose and separate from the neck—that is, not too tightly bound down by the *fascia*, or membrane of the neck. The crest should be thin and wiry, not thick and loaded, as is often seen in coarse stallions, or even in some mares. Between the two extremes of the ewe-neck and its opposite there are many degrees, but for racing purposes we should prefer, of the two, the former to the latter; for few horses can go well with their necks bent so as to draw the chin to the bosom; but here, as in most other cases, the happy medium is to be desired.

The *body*, or *middle-piece*, should be moderately long, and not too much confined between the last rib and the hip bone. So long as the last or back-ribs are deep, it is not of so much importance that they should be closely connected to the hip-bone, for such a shape shortens the stride; and though it enables the horse to carry great weight, yet it prevents him from attaining a high rate of speed. The *back* itself should be muscular, and the hips so wide as to allow of a good development of the muscular department. The *withers* may rise gently, but not too high, with that thin razor-like elevation which many people call a good shoulder, but which really has nothing to do with that part, and is only an annoyance to the saddler, who has to prevent its being pinched by the saddle. The *chest* itself should be well developed, but not too wide and deep: no horse can go a distance without a fair "bellows-room;" but, supposing the heart to be sound and of good quality, the amount of lung will suffice which may be contained in a medium-sized chest: and all above that is wasted, and is

extra weight. If the chest be too wide, it materially affects the action of the fore-legs, and, therefore, in every point of view, theoretically and practically, there is a happy medium between the too great contraction in this department, and the heavy, wide, lumbering chests sometimes seen even in the thorough-bred race horse, especially when reared upon rich, succulent herbage, more fitted for the bullock than the Eastern horse. In the formation of the *hips*, the essential point is length and breadth of bone for muscular attachment, and it matters little whether the croup droops a little, or is pretty straight and level, so that there is a good length from the hip to the haunch-bone; the line between which two points may either be nearly horizontal, or form a considerable angle with the ground; but still in both cases it should be a long line, and the longer it is the more muscular substance is attached to it, and the greater leverage will the muscles have.

The *fore-quarter*, consisting of the shoulder, upper and lower arm, and leg and foot, should be well set on to the chest; and the shoulder-blade should lie obliquely on the side of that part, with a full development of muscle to move it, and thrust it well forward in the gallop. Obliquity is of the greatest importance, acting as a spring in taking off the shock of the gallop or leap, and also giving a longer attachment to the muscles, and in addition enabling them to act with more leverage upon the arm and leg. The *shoulder* should be very muscular, without being overdone or loaded, and so formed as to play freely in the action of the horse. The point of the shoulder, which is the joint corresponding to the human shoulder, should be free from raggedness, but not too flat; a certain degree of development of the bony parts is desirable, but more than this leads to a defect, and impedes the action of this important part. The *upper arm*, between this joint and the elbow, should be long, and well clothed with muscles; the elbow set on quite straight, and not tied to the chest; the *lower arm* muscular and long; knees broad and strong, with the bony projection behind well developed; legs flat, and showing the suspensory ligament large and free; pasterns long enough without being weak; and the feet sound, and neither too large nor too small, and unattended with any degree of contraction, which is the bane of the thorough-bred horse.

The *hind-quarter* is the chief agent in propulsion, and is therefore of the utmost consequence in attaining high speed. It is often asserted that the oblique shoulder is the grand requisite in this object, and that it is the part upon which speed mainly depends, and in which it may be said to reside. This is to some extent true, because there can be no doubt that with a loaded shoulder high speed is impracticable; for, however powerfully the body may be propelled, yet when the fore-quarter touches the ground, it does not bound off again as smartly as it ought to do, and the pace is consequently slow. For the full action of the hind-quarter two things are necessary, viz.:—first, length and volume of muscle; and secondly, length of leverage upon which that muscle may act. Hence, all the bones comprising the hind-quarter should be long, but the comparative length must vary a good deal, in order that the parts upon which the muscles lie may be long, rather than those connected with the tendons, which are mere ropes, and have no propelling power residing in them, but only transmit that which they derive from the muscles themselves. Thus, the *hips* should be long and wide, and the two upper divisions of the limb—viz., the *stifle* and *lower thigh*—should be long, strong, and fully developed. By this formation the stifle-joint is brought well forward, and there is a considerable angle between these two divisions. The *hock* should be bony and strong, free from gum or spavin, and the point long, and so set on as to be free from weakness at the situation of curb. In examining the hind-quarter to judge of its muscular development, the horse should not be looked at sideways, but his tail should be raised, and it should be ascertained that the muscles of the two limbs meet together below the *anus*, which should be in fact well supported by them, and not left loose, and, as it were, in a deep and flaccid hollow. The outline of the outer part of the thigh should be full, and in ordinary horses the muscle should swell out beyond the level of the point of the hip. This fullness, however, is not often seen to this extent in the thorough-bred horse until he has arrived at mature age, and is taken out of training. The bones below the hock should be flat and free from adhesions; the ligaments and tendons fully developed, and standing out free from the bone; and the joints well formed and wide, yet without any diseased enlargement; the pasterns should be moderately long and oblique; the bones of good size; and lastly, the feet should correspond with those already alluded to in the anterior extremity.

The *totality* of these points should be in proportion to one another—that is to say, the formation of the horse should be "true." He should not have long, well-developed hind-quarters, with an upright, weak, or confined fore-quarter. Nor will the converse serve; for, however well formed the shoulder may be, the horse will not go well unless he has a similar formation in the propellers. It is of great importance, therefore, that the race horse should have all his various points in true relative development, and that there shall not be the hind-quarter of a long racing-like horse with the thick, confined shoulder which would suit a stride less reaching in its nature.

THE COLOR, SKIN, HAIR, ETC.

The *color* of the thorough-bred horse is now generally bay, brown, or chestnut, one or other of which will occur in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. Gray is not common, but sometimes appears. Black also occasionally makes its appearance, but not more frequently than gray. Roans, duns, sorrels, etc., are now quite exploded, and the above five colors may be said to complete the list of colors seen on the race-course. Sometimes these colors are mixed with a good deal of white, in the shape of blazes on the face, or white legs and feet; or even both may occur, and the horse may have little more than his body of a brown, bay, or chestnut. Most people, however, prefer the self color, with as little white as possible; and nothing but the great success of a horse's stock would induce breeders to resort to him if they were largely endowed with white. Gray hairs mixed in the coat, as in the Venisons, are rather approved of than otherwise; but they do not amount to a roan, in which the gray hairs equal, or even more than that, the other color mixed with them.

The *texture* of the coat and skin is a great proof of high

breeding, and in the absence of the pedigree would be highly regarded; but when that is satisfactory it is of no use descending to the examination of an inferior proof; and therefore, except as a *sign of health*, the skin is seldom considered. In all thorough-bred horses, however, it is thinner, and the hair more silky than in common breeds; and the veins are more apparent under the skin, partly from its thinness, but also from their extra size and number of branches. This network of veins is of importance in allowing the circulation to be carried on during high exertions, when, if the blood could not accumulate in them, it would often choke the deep vessels of the heart and lungs; but, by collecting on the surface, great relief is afforded, and the horse is able to maintain such a high and long-continued speed as would be impracticable without their help. Hence, these points are not useful as a mere mark of breed, but as essential to the very purpose for which that breed was established.

The *mane* and *tail* should be silky and not curly, though a slight wave is often seen. A decided curl is almost universally a mark of degradation, and shows a stain in the pedigree as clearly as any sign can do. Here, however, as in other cases, the clear tracing of that all-powerful proof of breeding will upset all reasoning founded upon inferior data. The setting on of the tail is often regarded as of great importance, but it is chiefly with reference to appearances; for the horse is not dependent for action or power upon this appendage.

The various breeds of **Wagon** horses are exceeding numerous. Most of the larger and heavier breeds of these animals are crossed with the Flemish horses, and are thereby rendered heavier and more capable of moving heavy weights, which their bulk and readiness to try a "dead pull" render them well adapted for.

Carriage horses are either ponies, gig horses, Brougham horses, or coach horses; being gradually larger and heavier from one end to the other of the line, which begins at the size of a small pony and extends up to the carriage horse of 17 hands. Ponies are of various breeds, some of which are of wonderful powers of endurance, with good symmetry and action, and with never-failing legs and feet. In general soundness they far excel the larger varieties of the horse, for which there is no accounting, as they are much more neglected and frequently very ill-used. A broken-winded pony, or a roarer, is a very uncommon sight, and even a lame one is by no means an every-day occurrence. Some are good trotters and yet bad gallopers, and they are consequently as well fitted for harness work as they are unfitted for hunting.

The **Shetland Pony** is the least of the species, and often under 11 hands. These ponies are very quick and active, and will walk, canter, and gallop, with good action, but seldom trot well.

THE STABLE-YARD AND ITS OCCUPANTS.

Stable.—Every one will prefer to have the stables near his house, if not on his own premises; in either case, if they are already built, he must do the best he can with them. Old buildings are for the most part very defective, badly drained, and badly ventilated. This must at once be remedied, and may generally be done at a moderate expense, which will be amply repaid by the improved health and comfort of the horses. New stables are better, but they also frequently require alteration.

Aspect.—When about to build a stable, the first consideration will naturally be the selection of a site. We need not insist on the advantages of a southerly aspect: they are almost self-evident. The stables will be much more cheerful, and much warmer, and enable the groom to avail himself of every gleam of sunshine to open the windows and thoroughly ventilate the interior.

Unfortunately it is not always possible, from the disposition of the ground and premises, to manage this. However, let it be borne in mind that such is the best, the west the next best, and the north-east the very worst.

It should not be forgotten, also, that a thorough drainage is one of the most important points, and every natural slope of the land should be taken advantage of in this respect.

Drainage.—Having settled the site and the plans of the stables, to which we will refer further on, the first works to be provided for will be the drainage, for these will have to be carried out simultaneously with the foundations. The drains will be of two sorts, which should be kept as far away from one another as it is possible to manage: first, those connected with the drainage of the interior of the stables; second, those intended to carry away the surface-water and collect the rain-water from the roofs, etc.

Sewers.—There are four conditions which are to be regarded as indispensable in the construction of all drains from all buildings whatsoever. These conditions are: Firstly, that the entire length of drain is to be constructed and maintained with *sufficient declivity* toward the discharge into the cesspool, to enable the average proportion and quantity of liquid and solid matters committed to it to maintain a *constant* and *uninterrupted motion*, so that stagnation shall never occur. Secondly, that the entire length of the drain is to be constructed and maintained in a condition of *complete impermeability*, so that no portion of the matters put into it shall accidentally escape from it. Thirdly, that the head of the drain shall be so efficiently trapped that no gaseous or volatile properties or products can possibly arise from its contents. And, fourthly, that the low extremity of the drain or point of communication with the cesspool shall be so completely and durably formed, that no interruption to the flow of the drainage or escape shall there take place, and that no facility shall be offered for the upward progress of the sewage in case of the cesspool becoming surcharged.

For most purposes a fall of 2½ inches in ten feet will be sufficient, and the drain should be of 3-inch glazed stoneware pipes (4 inches for w.c.), with carefully-made socket-joints laid in the direction of the current, and cemented. For the head of the drain we would recommend the well-trapped horse-pots, which are to be had at all stable-furnishing ironmongers, taking care that they are sufficiently large and of good strong quality.

The cesspool for sewage should be well away from the tank provided for the reception of the rain-water, and well puddled with clay on the outside and cemented inside. Precaution should also be further taken that all sewage drains should be

laid below the rain-water drains, so that, in case of any accidental defects, no matter will, by any possibility, taint the water supply.

Rain-water Drains.—These will subdivide themselves into two: those laid to collect the drainage of yard, etc., and which may be common pipes laid dry, and leading to an ordinary cesspool made of bricks laid without mortar, where the water will collect and gradually lose itself; the others connected with the down pipes from roofs, and leading to a rain-water tank. These should be laid with the same care as the sewer drains: the tank constructed in the same way, with an overflow pipe to lead to cesspool just mentioned.

Plans.—The plan of the building will vary very much according to the aspect, disposition of land and other premises, and other local circumstances. These should be very carefully studied, and the plans well matured, as the success of the building will greatly depend on the disposition of its various parts. We will lay down as one of the first principles, that no stall should be less than 6 feet wide by 10 feet long, no loose box less than 10 feet square, and no stable less than 10 feet high from floor to ceiling. Passage in rear of stalls 5 feet wide.

The doors should be wide and high, and hung in two heights, with fanlight over (4 feet by 7 feet at least), that the horses may go in and out freely without a chance of knocking themselves about.

The light should be full, as tending greatly to the cheerfulness of the interior. The sashes, also, should be hung on centers in their height, as the most advantageous method for ventilation.

Ventilation.—To complete the ventilation, the only further requirements will be an opening in the ceiling—not immediately over the horses, but in the rear over the passage—fitted with an ornamental ventilating grating, to be shut and opened at will, leading to an air-flue laid between the joists, and conducting the foul air from the stables to the outside through an ornamental perforated air brick or iron grating. A similar ventilating grating, to regulate the admission of fresh air, will only be necessary where the doors and windows are small, and fit very accurately.

Paving.—The materials for paving should be of the hardest quality, on good sound ballast or concrete foundation. Any absorbent materials must be rejected. The paving of boxes and stalls should be laid with a regular gentle slope to the drain, which should always be in the center. Irrespective of other advantages, the horses stand on the level, and take their rest more comfortably.

Partitions.—The partition for stalls will be match-lined both sides, and about 4 feet 2 inches in rear, with a ramp, and rising to 6 feet 2 inches toward the mangers; with iron pillar at the end next passage, with rings for pillar reins. Sometimes, also, the match-lining will be carried through in a level line, and by a cast iron the ramp form ornamental panel.

For loose boxes the boarding will be from 5 feet to about 5 feet 4 inches high at most, with a 2-feet ornamental iron paneling over

Mangers.—The best mangers are those containing hay-rack, corn-manger, and water-trough in one, and we more specially recommend that preference should be given to galvanized iron.

The wall over the manger should be match-boarded to the height of partitions, and lined with iron hoop bands, sheet zinc over the joints of match-lining, or enameled tiles, to prevent horses biting at it when being cleaned.

The manger will have two rings for halter reins, and a ring and galvanized chain fitted in wall over same.

Harness-Room.—This should be at least 10 feet square, and have in it a fireplace fitted with range with boiler attached. A handy supply of hot water will be found most advantageous in the management of the stables, and we need not point out the necessity of a fire for drying the rugs, horse-cloths, saddles, harness, etc., in winter-time.

This room should be fitted with convenient hooks and brackets for the hanging and cleaning of harness. These are of all sorts of designs, in which individual taste will be the best guide.

Hay-Loft and Corn-Chamber.—In most stables, in addition to the coachman's rooms, there are a corn chamber and hay-loft over the table. The former is generally boarded off, lined all round with sheets of zinc or tin to keep out the vermin, and the door is provided with a lock, of which the coachman keeps the key, and gives out at stated times the corn for so many horses for so many days. By this means he keeps a check upon the consumption, and prevents waste and pilfering; both of which are more likely to occur when the supply is unlimited and easy of access. When there is not a regular corn-chamber, one must either be made or a large bin provided, and the oats bought from the corn-chandler as required, in quantities of two or three quarters at a time, as many as the bin will contain, which will be found a more expensive proceeding. Hay, from being bulky, is almost invariably stowed away in the loft, which should hold at least half a load; it must be stored away carefully, and nothing allowed to run about or play on it. Hay will keep good and sweet for some time, if in a dry place and not meddled with. If the loft be large enough, it will be found better and cheaper to buy a load at a time; if not, or the loft be damp, a smaller quantity must suffice.

Stable Utensils.—Under this head is included all that is used in dressing the horse, and in cleansing the yard and stable.

The pitchfork is used to shake up the straw of which the horse's bed is made; to remove all that becomes soiled and dirty; and, in general, to set it fair and straight. The handle should be kept clean, and the prongs bright.

The shovel removes the smaller particles, and the scrapings of the stable-yard.

The besom, or *broom*, is used to sweep out the stable after the damp soiled litter has been removed, and to keep the yard neat and clean. Those made of birch are the best.

A manure basket to take up the droppings. This should be done before trodden about, to keep the straw clean, and the stable sweet.

The stable pail should be made of strong oak, bound with iron, and neatly painted.

A sieve, to cleanse the oats and chaff of all dust and small stones.

A quartern and a *half-quartern measure*, to measure out the oats, beans, chaff, etc., for each horse's feed.

The currycomb.—Horses of the present day are so much better bred than formerly, consequently their coats and skin are so much finer, there is now much less use for the currycomb, except to remove the dust from the body-brush. On very rough-coated horses it may occasionally be used, but no other should ever be touched with it. In summer it is absolutely unnecessary, and in these days of clipping and singeing, in the winter it is almost equally so. It must always be used lightly, or it will severely punish the horse, and on no account should the teeth be sharp, or more than ⅛ inch in length.

The body-brush, or horse-brush as it is sometimes called, is, in the hands of a good groom, the most useful implement used in dressing the horse, as it thoroughly removes all dust and dirt, stimulates the skin, and imparts a gloss to the coat.

The water-brush is to wash all dirt and mud from the feet and legs of the horse, and stains from his quarters, etc.

The mane-comb, as the name implies, is to comb the mane and tail. It should be made of horn, have large teeth, and be used carefully and only occasionally, as in a general way a good brushing will answer the purpose without pulling out the hair.

The picker is a blunt iron hook for removing the grit and stones from the horse's feet. Some are made to fold up for the pocket. A good careful groom will always carry one of these.

A sponge, too, is always necessary to dry the legs, etc., after washing, and for other purposes of cleanliness.

Leathers and *rubbers* are also indispensable for drying the horse after work, and wiping him over after dressing.

An oil-brush, and *tin* to hold the oil, to rub round the hoofs before leaving the stable to go to work.

A wooden box for holding the stopping.

A singeing-lamp and a *pair of trimming-scissors* are also necessary.

To avoid loss and confusion, there should be a place for everything, and everything in its place, and all the utensils should be kept bright and clean.

Clothing, etc.—Every horse standing in a stable must have a head-collar, with two reins long enough to go through the two rings fastened to the manger, and to reach the ground after being each attached to a weight or block made of hard wood or iron, heavy enough to keep the reins from twisting or curling up, but not so heavy as to be a weight or strain upon the horse's head as he moves it. When in a box, too, a head-collar is always handy on the quietest horse; on a tricky or unruly animal it is absolutely necessary, as he can then be at any time easily secured without risk or trouble.

Halters.—Two good web-headed hempen halters are also requisite in every stable, to lead the horse about without having to use the head-collar.

Clothing.—There is a great variety of clothing, from the comparatively inexpensive to the most expensive in make and finish. These consist of blankets or rugs of different degrees of warmth and thickness according to the time of year, a roller, a suit of body-clothing, and a set of flannel bandages. The best material will be the cheapest in the end, as wearing so much longer than the cheaper kinds.

The blanket or *rug* should be cut back at the top of the shoulder, with a projecting piece on each side coming round and meeting in the center of the chest, where they fasten with a buckle and strap. Each rug, too, should be bound with some strong material to prevent the edges tearing out. Two rugs will be found necessary for each horse.

A suit of *body-clothing* may be made of various materials, but strong warm serge is best for winter, and a lighter kind for summer wear. It consists of a quarter-piece, hood and breast-piece, with roller to match. The roller must be well padded, to prevent bruising or injury to the back from pressure.

In winter, in a warm stable, a heavy rug and the body-clothing will be found sufficient during the day, but at night the latter should be removed to keep it clean, and another rug substituted.

The flannel bandages are put on after the horse has had his legs washed, to keep them dry and warm. They are also of great service in illness, to keep up the circulation and warmth in the extremities. In hunting-stables, where the horses must be occasionally sweated, it will be necessary to have two or three spare rugs and hoods in use for that purpose, and which should be carefully washed and dried. The price of clothing varies so much according to the quality and finish, it is difficult to name any, but a respectable saddler will at any time give an estimate for the kind required.

HOW TO PURCHASE A HORSE.

In his choice of a horse the purchaser will of course be guided by whether he wants one for riding or driving purposes: if for the former, he will be particular that the shoulder lies well back, and if strong, not loaded at the top or points—that he has a good back, deep body, clean, flat, wiry-looking legs, and free from large splints, curbs, spavins, etc.; that his feet are firm and of moderate size—neither large and flat, and therefore necessarily weak, nor strong and narrow like those of a mule. When a horse has natural feet of the latter description they are generally remarkably sound, and will stand a great deal of work; but, as a rule, that shape is produced by internal disease, rendering the horse unsound when put to work.

If for driving purposes, he need not be so particular about the shoulders; for harness, they may be stronger, heavier, and more upright, as many make capital harness horses that are, from their formation, very uncomfortable to ride.

Having met with one suitable for his purpose, the purchaser must not let a few dollars prevent him buying him, if rather more than the price to which he had proposed to go.

THE HACK, OR RIDING HORSE.

In selecting a riding horse much must depend upon the size and weight of the rider. The best and most useful size is from 15 hands to 15 hands 2 inches. The most fashionable colors are bay, brown, and dark chestnut. A really good riding horse, with good action and fine manners, is very difficult to find, as he must be good-looking, well made, sound, and temperate, with breeding substance, action and courage. His head should be lean, the eye bold and prominent, the muzzle small, with large nostrils. The neck should be good, and

slightly arched to bend to the bridle, shoulders lie well back and strong, but not heavy and loaded at the points, the body deep and round, strong back and loin, with good deep quarters and good firm legs and feet. He must ride lightly in hand, walk pleasantly and safely, trot freely, with good action, and canter easily, yielding to the bit without pulling. He must carry the saddle well back behind the shoulders; nothing is so uncomfortable or looks so badly in any description of riding horse as sitting on the top of the shoulders instead of behind them. The price will vary according to his action, manners, and appearance, as well as the weight he can carry. Many horses of this class are very fast and can trot up to twelve and fourteen miles an hour; but if they do seven or eight miles pleasantly and well, they will be fast enough, as few men care to ride faster.

The great defects to be avoided in purchasing a riding horse are: a loose weak neck—horses so formed invariably getting their heads up, and being very uncomfortable to ride; low upright shoulders; and twisted fore-legs—rendering the horse liable to hit either the inside of the knee or fetlock joint, which is very dangerous and likely to cause him to fall. A shy, nervous horse, too, should be avoided, as well as a hot, irritable one. Horses of a light chestnut color are very often so, and in company will not settle into any pace. Ten miles is a fair average day's work.

THE LADIES' HORSE.

A perfect ladies' horse is of all descriptions the most difficult to find. So many good qualities, which, though desirable in all riding horses, may be overlooked in those for men, are here absolutely essential. Fine temper and courage, a light level mouth, and fine manners, are indispensable. He should be from 15 hands to 15 hands 3 inches high, with a good head and neck, fine oblique shoulders, rather long in the body, with a good back and loin, deep strong quarters, firm sound legs and feet. If the hind legs are rather bent, so much the better; he will get them more under him, and consequently his paces will be easier—horses with straight hind legs invariably pitching most unpleasantly in the canter, which must be easy and elegant. As few ladies ride more than from 10 to 11 stone, including a 19 or 20 lb. saddle, and ease and lightness in action are indispensable, the ladies' horse should be very nearly thoroughbred, if not quite so. He must walk well and freely, step lightly but sharply in the trot, with a rather long easy canter. He must be high-couraged and free, but at the same time docile and temperate. A slow, lazy horse is as objectionable and disagreeable to ride as a hot, irritable one. The latter will sometimes go quietly and temperately in the hands of a lady, though irritable and fidgety when ridden by men, owing to the easier, lighter pull on their mouths. From the position of the ladies' seat and from the great length and incumbrance of the habit, it follows they cannot have the same power and control over the horse that men have, and accidents to them are more likely to be attended with dangerous results; hence, greater care is necessary in selecting a horse for their use free from all tricks, nervousness, and vice.

Many are called good ladies' horses that have no other recommendation than their being very quiet, which with very many will cover a multitude of faults.

A few years since ladies rode no pace but the walk and canter, but lately the trot has become a favorite and fashionable pace; consequently a safe, sharp, easy trot is now essential in all horses to carry a lady.

The ladies' hunter differs in some respects from the riding horse for the road or park; he may be less showy and stronger. He must be eight or nine years old, have been well and regularly ridden to hounds for at least two or three seasons, and thoroughly understand his business; not less than 15 hands 2 inches or more than 16 hands high, well above the weight he has to carry, well bred, and fast, but thoroughly quiet and temperate among other horses and at his fences, which he should take freely and cleverly, go well in the bridle without pulling, and turn readily with a motion of the hand.

A hot, irritable, fretful brute, or one with a weak, loose neck, is uncomfortable enough for a man to ride, but it is absolutely dangerous to allow any lady to ride such a one on the road—to say nothing of riding him to hounds—however good he may be represented to be.

The best colors for ladies' horses are bay, brown, dark chestnut, or black. There is an old saying, that "a good horse cannot be a bad color;" and though no purchaser should decline to buy one that is likely to suit him on account of color, those I have named are to be preferred.

The price of horses differs so greatly, and depends so much on their make, style, and qualifications, that it is difficult to name an average one.

THE HUNTER.

In selecting a hunter it is necessary to bear in mind the country in which he is to be ridden.

The points essential to a hunter are a lean head and neck, well set on to good oblique shoulders, a strong back and loin, wide hips, a deep body and back ribs, good muscular quarters, and gaskins well let down to the hocks, and clean, firm legs and feet. He must be temperate, with plenty of courage, and have a good mouth and manners. His size will vary from 15 hands 1 inch to 16 hands 2 inches, according to the weight he has to carry and the description of country he has to cross. From 15 hands 3 inches to 16 hands 2 inches is perhaps the best size for the flying grass countries, while from 15 hands 1 inch to 15 hands 3 inches will be found better and handier for the close deep country.

THE CARRIAGE HORSE.

These horses are bought by the principal dealers and jobmasters at three and four years old, and are broken, driven, and matched by them for some time before they are fit for the carriage. They must be fully 16 hands high, with rather long rainbow neck, strong but oblique shoulders, deep round body, with long muscular quarters, carrying a good tail, clean flat legs, and good firm feet. Being kept more for show than work, grand stylish appearance and action are indispensable; and from being generally loaded with flesh, unless the feet and legs are good, they will soon wear out.

The great defects to which carriage horses are liable, from their size and general formation, are—defect of the wind, either

roaring or whistling; horses with long rainbow necks very frequently becoming so after a bad cold or an attack of influenza. All large horses, too, are more or less liable to their wind becoming affected after illness. Inflammation of the feet is another common complaint with horses of this class. Loaded with flesh to improve their style and appearance, and with high action in addition to their weight—two great causes of inflammatory attacks—they are very liable to this complaint, unless great care is taken to guard against it. Many carriage horses, too, have flat feet, rendering them doubly liable to an attack of this description; in them the sole of the foot will sink, becoming convex instead of concave. When such is the case, great care is requisite in shoeing, or the horse will not be workably sound.

HORSES FOR LIGHT HARNESS.

In this class may be included horses suitable for buggies, T-carts, light broughams, dog-carts, etc. They should be well-bred, neck rather long and arched, with good back and quarters, strong oblique shoulders, carry a good head and tail, and be of a generally showy and stylish appearance, with high grand action. Horses of this description are more fitted for the park and for show than for real work.

COBS.

The cob is a strong little horse, about 14 hands high, and of various descriptions. When well bred and good-looking, with action, they are not only very useful, but very valuable for carrying heavy and elderly men, as, being low, they are easy to get on and off. A good cob must have a good head, a strong but not heavy neck, good oblique and very strong shoulders, not loaded at the top or points, a deep round body, good loin and strong muscular quarters and thighs—short, flat, firm legs, and good round feet; he should walk freely and well; step sharp and high in the trot, and canter safely and freely; if, in addition to these qualifications, he is quiet and does not shy or stumble, he is invaluable.

The faults to be avoided in purchasing a cob are upright shoulders, want of courage, and want of action. Particular attention must be paid to the shoulders—that they are well formed and oblique, many horses of this class having low, upright shoulders, which renders them valueless as riding cobs, and useful only for harness purposes—nothing being so uncomfortable and looking so ugly as riding on the top of the shoulders instead of well behind them, which must necessarily be the case with straight, low shoulders.

DEFECTS, DISEASES, AND FAULTS TO BE AVOIDED IN ALL HORSES.

A loose, weak neck.—Horses so formed are extremely unpleasant to ride; they get their heads up, cannot see where they are going, and it is impossible to feel their mouths.

Twisted fore-legs.—Horses with this defect, when put to work, hit the inside of the fetlock joint, and very often under the knee as well. Both are highly dangerous, as the parts soon become swelled and sore from repeated blows, rendering the horse liable to fall.

Capped hocks are very unsightly, but seldom cause lameness.

Diseased eyes, from any cause, are sure to terminate in blindness.

Stringhalt.—Catching up one or both the hind legs. When considerable, it renders the horse very unpleasant either to ride or drive.

All bony enlargements of the joints, viz., spavin, ringbone, sidebones, etc., as causing lameness, very difficult and doubtful of cure.

Laminitis, or inflammation of the laminæ, generally resulting in pumiced or convex soles of the feet.

Corns, unless small, as, if not properly treated, they are very troublesome, often causing temporary lameness, and rendering the horse cramped in his action, and liable to fall.

Chronic cough.—Frequently terminates in broken wind.

Megrims.—An attack of giddiness, more or less violent, that frequently attacks some horses, rendering them for the time highly dangerous. Since condition has been better understood, and horses are fed more on manger food and do not have so much hay, megrims are not so common as formerly. Fast, free horses are more liable to it than others. The cause is supposed to be determination of blood to the head.

Navicular disease.—Lameness in the navicular joint, and incurable.

An unnerved horse, as showing the horse's feet are diseased. Many unnerved horses will with care do a great deal of work either on the road or in the field. It is a merciful operation by which many horses can work and move about with ease and comfort, that must otherwise have been destroyed, or lived in pain and misery to the end of their days.

Roaring.—A disease of the respiratory organs, causing the horse to make a noise when put to any exertion.

All enlargements of sinews and tendons, arising from breaking down or violent strains, unless the horse has been properly fired for them, and is intended only for light, easy work, when he may stand.

All horses that show any sort of vice, as rearing, kicking, running away, being restive, and shying badly, or are vicious in the stable. Such animals are highly dangerous to all, but particularly so to the inexperienced.

THE GROOM.

There are several descriptions and classes of grooms employed in private stables. With the stud groom, for the breaking and training of thorough-bred horses, we have here nothing to do. The most important is the groom for the training and management of hunters. For this purpose he must be steady, respectable, and intelligent, and have had considerable experience; for, as the hunter, to carry a man well and safely to hounds, must be very fit, it follows that the groom must understand not only how to prepare him, but when he is fit.

STABLE MANAGEMENT OF THE HORSE.

In the morning the first thing the groom does on entering the stable, which must not be later than six o'clock, if the weather be warm and fine, will be to open the door and admit some fresh air; he will then give each horse a little water and a piece of hay; having eaten which, he will put on the hood

and the watering-bridle, and take him out for exercise. While out, the helpers will separate the dry clean straw from the damp and soiled, removing the latter to the manure-heap. Thoroughly sweep and cleanse the floor of each stall and box, allowing the straw to remain turned up until the return of the horses, when it may be partly littered down again. Each horse will then have a feed of corn, and having eaten it, be well dressed, and his stall or box set fair. When one groom only is kept, or where the horses do a fair amount of work during the day, early exercise is impossible and unnecessary.

In dressing the horse the first thing the groom does is to turn him round in his stall, fold the rug back from his neck and shoulders, then well and carefully brush his head, neck, and shoulders with the body-brush, cleaning it with the curry-comb as often as required. He is then turned back in the stall, the clothing removed, and his body, hind-quarters, and legs undergo the same careful and thorough brushing, care being taken to keep the brush clean with frequent use of the currycomb. He is next wiped all over with a damp wisp made of hay-bands, which entirely removes any remaining dust, and after being well wiped over with a linen rubber or wash-leather, his clothes are put on and secured by the roller. His eyes, nose, and *anus* are next sponged clean, his mane and tail carefully combed or brushed, first with a dry and then with a damp brush; the feet are carefully picked out and washed, the legs wel. brushed, and if dirty or stained, well washed, and either rubbed dry or dried in flannel bandages. The stall is then set fair, and the horse is ready for use.

With gray or light-colored horses, or that have white legs, the better plan will be to wash all stains off the quarters, etc., and to wash the legs with warm water and soap, rubbing the first dry and well bandaging the latter before proceeding to dress the horse, as by the time that operation is over the legs will be dry and the horse warm and comfortable.

In the spring and autumn, when the horse is shedding his coat and the hair is broken and thin, the body-brush must be laid aside, the wisp and rubber being then quite sufficient for the necessary dressing.

Before having the harness put on to go out, the horse must again be wiped over, his mane and tail brushed, and his hoofs rubbed round with the oil-brush. Some people object to the use of the oil-brush to the feet, and only have them done round with a wet brush.

On returning to the stable after work, if he be clean and dry, his feet should be well picked out and washed, and he should again be well dressed and set fair. But if he returns hot and tired and wet and dirty, the best and quickest plan is to wash him all over with tepid water, scraping him immediately as dry as possible, clothing him up, and bandaging his legs above his knees and hocks with flannel bandages. If the weather be warm, he may be washed in the open air, and a light suit of clothes put on, to be replaced by fresh as soon as he is dry; but in winter, and if it be cold, he must be washed in the stable, and a suit of warm clothing put on until he is dry, when it must be changed. By this means the horse will be got fresh and comfortable in a much shorter time and with less fatigue to himself than if the dirt and sweat were removed in any other way and he was rubbed dry.

At seven o'clock, the horses that have not been out or done but little work may again have their clothing removed and be wiped over, which must not be done when the horse is tired with work and has been once made fresh. They may then be fed, their heads let down, their feet stopped, and be shut up for the night.

FEEDING.

Horses should have the corn four times a day—at about seven, eleven, three, and seven; and the hay twice—at night and in the morning. These times may be slightly varied to suit the convenience. The quantity of each must depend, as we have said, upon the size and description of the horse, and the amount of work required of him. A full-sized carriage horse will require at least five quarterns of corn, and about twelve or fourteen pounds of hay, daily. These horses, being kept for show and style rather than for work, are required to be full of flesh to give them a grander and more imposing appearance.

Soiling is a term used for the feeding of horses on green food indoors.

Turning out to grass is useful when the health is injured by long-continued hard work and dry food, or when the legs are sore, or the feet inflamed.

EXERCISE AND WORK.

Unless the weather is wet and bad, every horse, whether in a stall or box, is better for going out every day.

The work of a carriage horse does not on an average exceed seven or eight miles. They are very often out for three or four hours in the day, but by far the greater part of the time they are standing about, while the occupants of the carriage are either shopping or making calls, etc. From their size and weight they are generally unfit for long journeys and hard work.

The work of a hunter is to carry a man to hounds, and in order to render him fit to do so safely and well, he will require a great deal of exercise.

Before the commencement of the hunting-season he will require three hours' steady walking and trotting exercise, with occasional sweats and strong gallops; but afterwards, supposing he is ridden to hounds three days a fortnight, he will require but little fast exercise—from two to three hours a day good steady walking will keep most horses quite fit.

The fair average day's work for a hack or harness horse is nine or ten miles, in which case exercise is quite unnecessary. More harm and injury are done to horses by the grooms when at exercise than in any other way; and unless the man can be fully depended upon, the less they are exercised the better Where the horse is only occasionally worked, exercise is of course absolutely necessary, not only to preserve him in health, but to keep him steady and from getting above himself.

CLIPPING OR SINGEING.

The best time to clip or singe a horse must depend principally upon the state of his coat. Some shed their coat so much earlier than others, while in some horses it is much thicker and coarser. About the end of September is the best time for singeing, and three weeks or a month later for clipping.

Clipping requires much practice and very neatly doing to look well; it is far more difficult than singeing, and consequently is not so frequently used. The effect of both is the same—to shorten the long rough winter coat to the length of the short summer one, thereby preventing that extreme sweating which is always consequent on a long winter coat. It is performed with scissors and a comb. The former are generally curved, and of various sizes, to suit the different parts of the body of the horse for which they are used.

Singeing is performed with a lamp made for the purpose, burning naphtha or some spirit of the same description, and which is passed lightly over the whole body till the hair is reduced to the required length. It may be commenced as soon as the winter coat is partly grown, and must be repeated about every ten days or a fortnight till the coat is set and done growing, by which means the coat will not only be kept short, but the hair will better retain the natural color. After Christmas, about once in three weeks will generally be found sufficient to keep down the long rough hairs.

MANAGEMENT OF THE FEET.

This department of stable management is often sadly neglected by the groom, who is particular enough in every other respect; but if his master is only a judge of skin and condition, he is too apt to leave the feet to take care of themselves.

An examination of the shoes should be carefully made every morning when the horse comes in from exercise; and if they are at all loose, or the clenches are too high, or the shoes are worn out, they should be renewed or removed at once.

Every night the feet should be well brushed out, and the picker run round the shoe. If the horn is hard and dry, they should be stopped with cow-dung and tar, in the proportion of 3 to 1, called "stopping," which ought always to be kept by the groom in a box for the purpose, called the "stopping-box;" but it is seldom necessary to do this more than once or twice a week; indeed, in most feet it will soften the horn too much if used more frequently.

STABLE VICES.

Stable vices may be considered to include the following long list of offenses against the code of laws made for the stabled horse, and enforced by the stablemen. They are: 1, getting loose from the head-stall; 2, Hanging back; 3, Leaping into the manger; 4, Turning round in the stall; 5, Lying under the manger; 6, Halter-casting; 7, Casting in the stall; 8, Kicking the stall-post; 9, Weaving; 10, Pawing; 11, Eating the litter; 12, Kicking at man: 13, Biting; 14, Crib-biting; 15, Wind-sucking.

Hanging back in the collar is an attempt to get free by bursting the throat-lash or collar-rein, and in some cases great force is applied in this way—so much so that many horses have broken their hips from the sudden giving-way of the halter, letting them back so that they fall over and injure themselves irremediably. The only cure is a strong chain and a head-stall that no force will break, after trying to burst which a few times, the horse will almost always desist. If the manger is not very firmly placed, another ring should be fixed in the wall by piercing it and screwing a nut on at the back. The groom should likewise watch for the attempt, and well flog the horse, from behind immediately he sees him beginning.

TRICKS AND VICES TO WHICH HORSES ARE LIABLE OUT OF THE STABLE.

Kicking is another dangerous, vicious habit. Like rearing, it may be cured by those who thoroughly understand horses, but even when perfectly quiet and manageable in their hands, such horses are never to be trusted with less experienced persons.

Running away is another very dangerous fault. It may arise from vice or from the horse having been at some time very seriously alarmed. In the former case, a very sharp bit and great care may prevent it; but in the latter, when the horse again becomes alarmed, nothing will stop him, as he is for the time in a state of madness.

Bucking or *Plunging* is another dangerous habit. Sometimes it arises from vice and sometimes only from freshness, the horse being above himself from want of work; in the latter case it is soon cured by putting him to daily steady work.

Jibbing, either in saddle or harness, is a very dangerous vice, and is always the result of bad temper. In saddle the horse rears, kicks, and rubs the rider against anything in his way. He will go anywhere and rush anywhere but in the direction in which he is wanted to go. A good thrashing will sometimes cure him, but it is not always easy to do it, as the horse invariably jibs in the most awkward and dangerous places in which to fight him. In harness the jibber will not start, he runs back, and if whipped or punished, will plunge and throw himself down. Such animals are quite unfitted for private use.

Shying.—This bad habit may arise from timidity, defective eyesight, or bad temper. If from timidity, it can only be overcome by gentle usage and allowing the horse to pass the object without taking any notice of his fear beyond patting and encouraging him; to chastise him is worse than useless and senseless. If it arise from defective vision, it will be incurable, as it will be impossible for the animal to see objects otherwise than through a distorted medium. If it arise from vice, which is frequently the case, the horse must be made firmly but temperately to pass the object at which he shies; having passed it, continue the ride; do not return and pass it again and again, as that only irritates him; and when he finds he is mastered, he will daily improve.

HARNESS FOR SADDLE HORSES.

This consists of saddles, bridles, breast-plates, and martingales.

Saddles may be had of almost any size and weight. They may be made with either plain or padded flaps, according to the seat and fancy of the rider. Some prefer the former, and others the latter. For the generality of riders there cannot be a doubt that the padded flaps are by far the better, as they keep the knee more steadily in the proper place, prevent the leg flying backwards and forwards, if the horse jumps or plunges; while in hunting they are of very material assistance in taking

a drop jump, and also in steadying and recovering a horse when blundering or falling at a fence. The plain flaps have perhaps a smarter appearance, and a clever horseman may be able to ride as well on them as on the padded flaps, but that is almost all that can be said for them.

The saddle should be of sufficient length and breadth that the weight of the rider may be pretty equally distributed over it, or the back of the horse will suffer, and saddle-galls be the result.

The stirrups should not be small, for in the event of a fall, the foot is more likely to hang in them. All well-made saddles have spring bars, which should be occasionally oiled, that they may work easily, and release the stirrup-leather should such an accident occur. The stirrup-leather should be of the best, close and strong, not too heavy, or it will look clumsy.

Every saddle requires two girths—which may either be of the ordinary kind of the same width, with a buckle at each end, or one broad, with two buckles at each end, which is put on first, and a second, about half the width only, over it, with one buckle at each end.

After use, the lining of the saddle must be thoroughly dried in the sun or before the fire, and then well brushed, which will keep it soft and clean.

This is particularly necessary with side-saddles. It is for want of this care and attention that so many horses have sore backs. When dirty, the saddle must be sponged clean, but not made more wet than is absolutely necessary; after which a little soft soap rubbed on will preserve the leather soft and pliable, and prevent it cracking.

In choosing a saddle, go to a first-rate maker; he may be a little more expensive, but you will get a good article, that will wear three times as long as an inferior one, will fit the generality of horses, will never get out of form, and will look well to the last.

The Breast-plate or *Hunting-plate* is used to keep the saddle in its place when hunting. It is also of great service on horses with short back-ribs, to prevent the saddle working back, which it is very likely to do. But on the road and in the field no lady should ride without one, as it will keep the side-saddle securely in its place, and prevent it turning round should the girth get loosened, or one break.

The *Martingale* is used to steady the horse's head, and keep it in its proper place.

It is generally used on loose weak-necked horses, and though of service in the hands of the experienced, it is often dangerous when used by others, as being apt to catch on the bit or buckles of the bridle, and so cause serious accidents.

The Bridle.—There is a great variety of bits suitable for different descriptions and tempers of horses, but it is impossible to describe them all in so limited a space. They all belong to one of two classes—the snaffle or the curb, and are of different degrees of severity and power.

The Snaffle is a piece of steel with a joint in the middle; it may be smooth and plain, twisted, or double-jointed. The smooth snaffle is the mildest form of bit there is, and, except just for exercise, few horses ride pleasantly in one. The twisted bit is sharper, and if drawn quickly backwards and forwards through the mouth, is very punishing. The double-jointed is the most severe; it is formed of two plain snaffles one above the other; but the joints in each not being opposite each other, cause a sharper and more narrow pressure on the tongue and lower jaw. Very few horses ride well and pleasantly in a snaffle of any kind, as they all cause a horse to raise his head and open his mouth to take the pressure off his tongue. In addition to this there are the Chain-snaffle, which is a very light bit, and the Gag, used for horses that get their heads down.

The Curb-bit is a lever that, by means of a curb-chain, acts upon the lower jaw, and may be made very easy or very severe according to the length of cheek or leverage, and the height of the port or arch in the center of the mouth-piece. It is very seldom used singly, but in conjunction with some kind of snaffle, when it forms a double-rein bridle, and is by far the most useful bit. All horses go better in it, when properly handled, than in any other; as by lengthening or shortening the curb-chain, and taking up or dropping the bit in the mouth, it can be made either less or more severe, to suit most horses.

The Pelham is a curb and snaffle in one; it is a curb-bit with a joint in the middle, instead of a port. It forms a double-rein bridle, and is very light and easy.

Like saddles, the bridles should be of first-rate material and workmanship; the bits sewn on to the head-pieces and reins, as being much neater and lighter than the buckles. The leather must be kept clean and pliable with soft soap, and the bits clean and bright with silver-sand and oil.

HARNESSING AND PUTTING-TO.

Harnessing.—In all cases the first thing to be done, after the horse is dressed, is to put on the collar, which is effected by turning the horse round in his stall, and slipping it over his head, with the large end upward. This inversion is required because the front of the head is the widest part, and is in this way adapted to the widest part of the collar, which, even with this arrangement, will in coarsely-bred horses hardly pass over the cheek-bones. Before the collar is put in its place, the hames are put on and buckled; for if this was delayed until after it had been reversed, they would have to be held on while the hame-straps were being drawn together, whereas in this way their own weight keeps them in place. They are now reversed altogether, and the pad put in its place, before buckling the belly-band, of which the crupper is slipped over the tail by doubling up all the hair, grasping it carefully in the left hand while the right adapts the crupper. A careful examination should always be made that no hairs are left under it, for if they are they irritate the skin, and often cause a fit of kicking. After the crupper is set right the pad is drawn forwards, and its belly-band buckled up pretty tightly; the bridle is now put on, and the curb-chain properly applied; the reins being slipped through the terrets and buckled on both sides, if for single harness, or on the outside only if for double, and the driving-rein folded back and tied in the pad terret.

Putting-to is managed very differently according to whether the horse is going in shafts or with a pole. If for shafts, they are tilted up and held there by one person, while the other backs the horse until he is under them, when they are dropped

down, and the tugs slipped under or over the ends of the shafts, according to the formation of the tugs, some being hooks, and others merely leather loops. Care must be taken that they do not slip beyond the pins on the shafts. The traces are now attached to the drawing-bar, the breechen or kicking-strap buckled, and the false belly-band buckled up pretty tightly, so as to keep the shafts steady. In four-wheeled carriages it should be left tolerably loose when a breechen is used, to allow of this having free play. The reins are now untwisted from the terret, and the horse is put-to. For double harness, the first thing is to bring the horse round by the side of the pole, and put the pole-piece through the sliding ring of the hames, the groom holding it, or else buckling it at the longest hole while the traces are being put-to ; as soon as this is done, the pole-piece is buckled up to its proper length, each coupling-rein buckled to the opposite horse's bit, the driving-reins untwisted from the terret, and the two buckled together, and the horses are ready. The leaders of a tandem or four-in-hand are easily attached, and their reins are passed through the rings on the head of the wheelers, and through the upper half of the pad terret.

Unharnessing is exactly the reverse of the above, everything being undone exactly in the same order in which it was done. The chief errors in either are—in double harness, in not attaching the pole-piece at once in putting-to, or in unbuckling it altogether too soon, by which the horse is at liberty to get back upon the bars, and often does considerable damage by kicking.

ORDINARY DRUGS USED FOR THE HORSE, AND THEIR MODE OF ADMINISTRATION

The Action of Medicines, and the Forms in which they are generly prescribed.

ALTERATIVES.

Alteratives are intended to produce a fresh and healthy action, instead of the previously disordered function. The precise mode of action is not well understood, and it is only by the results that the utility of these medicines is recognized.

1. Stinking hellebore, 5 to 8 grs. ; powdered rhubarb, 2 to 4 grs. Mix, and form into a pill, to be given every night.

2. *In Disordered States of the Skin.*—Emetic tartar, 5 oz. ; powdered ginger, 3 oz. ; opium, 1 oz. Syrup enough to form 16 balls ; one to be given every night.

3. *Simply cooling.*—Barbadoes aloes, 1 oz. ; Castile soap, 1½ oz. ; ginger, ½ oz. Syrup enough to form 6 balls ; one to be given every morning.

4. *In strangles.*—Barbadoes aloes, 1 oz. ; emetic tartar, 2 drms. ; Castile soap, 2 drms. Mix.

5. *Alterative Ball for General Use.*—Black sulphuret of antimony, 2 to 4 drms. ; sulphur, 2 drms. ; niter, 2 drms. Linseed meal and water enough to form a ball.

6. *For Generally Defective Secretions.*—Flowers of sulphur, 6 oz. ; emetic tartar, 5 to 8 drms. ; corrosive sublimate, 10 grs. Linseed meal mixed with hot water, enough to form six balls, one of which may be given two or three times a week.

7. *In Debility of Stomach.*—Calomel, 1 scruple ; aloes, 1 drm. ; cascarilla, gentian, and ginger, of each in powder, 1 drm. ; Castile soap, 3 drms. Syrup enough to make a ball, which may be given twice a week, or every other night.

ANODYNES.

Anodyne medicines are given either to soothe the general nervous system, or to stop diarrhœa ; or sometimes to relieve spasm, as in colic or tetanus. Opium is the chief anodyne used in veterinary medicine, and it may be employed in very large doses.

1. *In Colic.*—Powdered opium, ½ to 2 drms. ; Castile soap and camphor, of each 2 drms. ; ginger, 1½ drm. Make into a ball with liquorice powder and treacle, and give every hour while the pain lasts. It should be kept in a bottle or bladder.

2. *Anodyne Ball (ordinary).*—Opium, ½ to 1 drm. ; Castile soap, 2 to 4 drms. ; ginger, 1 to 2 drms. ; powdered aniseed, ½ to 1 oz. ; oil of carraway seeds, ½ drm. Syrup enough to form a ball, to be dissolved in a half-pint of warm ale, and given as a drench.

3. *Anodyne Drench in Superpurgation, or ordinary Diarrhœa.*—Gum arabic, 2 oz. ; boiling water, 1 pint ; dissolve, and then add oil of peppermint, 25 drops ; tincture of opium, ½ oz. Mix, and give night and morning, if necessary.

4. *In Chronic Diarrhœa.*—Powdered chalk and gum arabic, of each 1 oz. ; tincture of opium, ½ oz. ; peppermint water, 10 oz. Mix, and give night and morning.

ANTISPASMODICS.

Antispasmodics, as their name implies, are medicines which are intended to counteract excessive muscular action, called *spasm*, or, in the limbs, *cramp*. This deranged condition depends upon a variety of causes, which are generally of an irritating nature ; and its successful treatment will often depend upon the employment of remedies calculated to remove the cause, rather than directly to relieve the effect. It therefore follows that, in many cases, the medicines most successful in removing spasm will be derived from widely separate divisions of the *materia medica*, such as aperients, anodynes, alteratives, stimulants, and tonics. It is useless to attempt to give many formulas for their exhibition ; but there are one or two medicines which exercise a peculiar control over spasm, and I shall give them without attempting to analyze their mode of operation.

1. *For Colic.*—Spirits of turpentine, 3 oz. ; tincture of opium, 1 oz. Mix with a pint of warm ale, and give as a drench.

2. Spirits of turpentine, 3½ oz. ; tincture of opium, 1½ oz. ; Barbadoes aloes, 1 oz. Powder the aloes, and dissolve in warm water ; then add the other ingredients, and give as a drench.

3. *Clyster in Colic.*—Spirits of turpentine, 6 oz. ; aloes, 2 drms. Dissolve in 3 quarts of warm water, and stir the turpentine well into it.

4. *Antispasmodic Drench.*—Gin, 4 to 6 oz. ; tincture of capsicum, 2 drms. ; tincture of opium, 3 drms. ; warm water, 1½ pint. Mix, and give as a drench, *when there is no inflammation.*

APERIENTS.

Aperients, or Purges, are those medicines which quicken or increase the evacuations from the bowels, varying, however, a good deal in their mode of operation. Some act merely by exciting the muscular coat of the bowels to contract ; others cause an immense watery discharge, which, as it were, washes out the bowels ; whilst a third set combine the action of the two. The various purges also act upon different parts of the canal, some stimulating the small intestines, whilst others pass through them without affecting them, and only act upon the large bowels ; and others, again, act upon the whole canal. There is a third point of difference in purges, depending upon their influencing the liver in addition, which mercurial purgatives certainly do, as well as rhubarb and some others, and which effect is partly due to their absorption into the circulation, so that they may be made to act, by injecting into the veins, as strongly as by actual swallowing, and their subsequent passage into the bowels. Purgatives are likewise classed, according to the *degree* of their effect, into laxatives, acting mildly, and drastic purges, acting very severely.

APERIENTS FOR THE HORSE, COMMONLY CALLED PHYSIC.

1. *Ordinary Physic Balls.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 8 drms. ; hard soap

4 drms. ; ginger, 1 drm. Dissolve in as small a quantity of boiling water as will suffice ; then slowly evaporate to the proper consistence, by which means griping is avoided.

2. *A Warmer Physic Ball.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 8 drms. ; carbonate of soda, ½ drm. ; aromatic powder, 1 drm. ; oil of carraway, 12 drops. Dissolve as above, and then add the oil.

3. *Gently Laxative Ball.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 5 drms. ; rhubarb powder, 1 to 2 drms. ; ginger, 2 drms. ; oil of carraway, 15 drops. Mix, and form into a ball, as in No. 1.

4. *Stomachic Laxative Balls, for Washy Horses.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 drms. ; rhubarb, 2 drms. ; ginger and cascarilla powder, of each 1 drm. ; oil of carraway, 15 drops ; carbonate of soda, 1½ drm. Dissolve the aloes as in No. 1, and then add the other ingredients.

5. *Purging Balls, with Calomel.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 6 drms. ; calomel, ½ to 1 drm. ; rhubarb, 1 to 2 drms. ; ginger, ½ to 1 drm. Castile soap, 2 drms. Mix as in No. 1.

6. *Laxative Drench.*—Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 4 drms. ; canella alba, 1 to 2 drms. ; salt of tartar, 1 drm. ; mint water, 8 oz. Mix.

7. *Another Laxative Drench.*—Castor oil, 3 to 6 oz. ; Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 5 drms. ; carbonate of soda, 2 drms. ; mint water, 8 oz. Mix, by dissolving the aloes in the mint water, by the aid of heat, and then adding the other ingredients.

8. *A Mild Opening Drench.*—Castor oil, 4 oz. ; Epsom salts, 3 to 5 oz. ; gruel, 2 pints. Mix.

9. *A Very Mild Laxative.*—Castor oil and linseed oil, 4 oz. of each ; warm water, or gruel, 1 pint. Mix.

10. *Used in the staggers.*—Barbadoes aloes, 6 drms. ; common salt, 6 oz. ; flour of mustard, 1 oz. ; water, 2 pints. Mix.

11. *A Gently Cooling Drench in Slight Attacks of Cold.*—Epsom salts, 6 to 8 oz. ; whey, 2 pints. Mix.

12. *Purgative Clyster.*—Common salt, 4 to 8 oz. ; warm water, 8 to 16 pints.

ASTRINGENTS.

Astringents are supposed to produce contraction in all living animal tissues with which they come in contact, whether in the interior or exterior of the body, and whether immediately applied or by absorption into the circulation. But great doubt exists as to the exact mode in which they act ; and, as in many other cases, we are obliged to content ourselves with their effects, and to prescribe them empirically. They are divided into astringents administered by the mouth, and those applied locally to external ulcerated or wounded surfaces.

1. *Astringent Wash for the Eyes.*—Sulphate of zinc, 5 to 8 grs. ; water, 2 oz. Mix.

2. Goulard extract, 1 drm. ; water, 1 oz. Mix.

3. *Astringent Remedies for the Horse. For Bloody Urine.*—Powdered catechu, ½ oz. ; alum, ½ oz. ; cascarilla bark in powder, 1 to 2 drms. Licorice powder and treacle, enough to form a ball, to be given twice a day.

4. *For Diabetes.*—Opium, ½ drm. ; ginger powdered, 2 drms. ; oak bark powdered, 1 oz. ; alum, as much as the tea will dissolve ; camomile tea, 1 pint. Mix for a drench.

5. *External Astringent Powder for Ulcerated Surfaces.*—Powdered alum, 4 oz. ; Armenian bole, 1 oz.

6. White vitriol, 4 oz. ; oxide of zinc, 1 oz. Mix.

7. *Astringent Lotion.*—Goulard extract, 2 to 3 drms. ; water, ½ pint.

8. Sulphate of copper, 1 to 2 drms. ; water, ½ pint. Mix.

9. *Astringent Ointment for Sore Heels.*—Superacetate of lead, 1 drm. ; lard, 1 oz. Mix.

10. *Another for the same.*—Nitrate of silver powdered, ½ drm. ; goulard extract, 1 drm. ; lard, 1 oz. Mix.

BLISTERS.

Blisters are applications which inflame the skin, and cause watery bladders to form upon it ; they consist of two kinds, one for the sake of counter-irritation, by which the original disease is lessened, in consequence of the establishment of this irritation at a short distance from it. The other, commonly called "Sweating" in veterinary surgery, by which a discharge is obtained from the vessels of the part itself, which are in that way relieved and unloaded ; there is also a subsequent process of absorption in consequence of the peculiar stimulus applied.

BLISTERS FOR HORSES.

1. *Mild Blister Ointment* (counter-irritant).—Hog's lard, 4 oz. ; Venice turpentine, 1 oz. ; powdered cantharides, 6 drms. Mix and spread.

2. *Stronger Blister Ointment* (counter-irritant).—Spirits of turpentine, 1 oz. ; sulphuric acid, by measure, 2 drms. Mix carefully in an open place, and add hog's lard, 4 oz. ; powdered cantharides, 1 oz. Mix and spread.

3. *Very strong Blister* (counter-irritant).—Strong mercurial ointment, 4 oz. ; oil of origanum, ½ oz. ; finely-powdered euphorbium, 3 drms. powdered cantharides, ½ oz. Mix and spread.

4. *Rapidly Acting Blister* (counter-irritant).—Best flour of mustard, 8 oz., made into a paste with water. Add spirits of turpentine, 2 oz. ; strong liquor of ammonia, 1 oz. This is to be well rubbed into the chest, belly, or back, in cases of acute inflammation.

5. *Sweating Blister.*—Strong mercurial ointment, 2 oz. ; oil of origanum, 2 drms. ; corrosive sublimate, 2 drms. ; cantharides, powdered, 3 drms. Mix, and rub in with the hand.

6. *Strong Sweating Blister, for Splints, Ring-Bones, Spavins, etc.*—Red iodide of mercury, 1 to 1½ drm. ; lard, 1 oz. To be well rubbed in the legs after cutting the hair short, and followed by the daily use of arnica, in the shape of a wash, as follows, which is to be painted on with a brush : tincture of arnica, 1 oz. ; water, 12 to 15 oz. Mix.

7. *Tincture of Iodine*, which should be painted on with a brush daily, until it causes the cuticle to exfoliate. It may then be omitted for a few days, to be resumed after that interval.

CAUSTICS.

Caustics are substance which burn away the living tissues of the body, by the decomposition of their elements. They are of two kinds, viz.—first, the actual cautery, consisting in the application of the burning iron, and called Firing ; and, secondly, the potential cautery, by means of the powers of mineral caustics, such as potash, lunar-caustic, etc.

Firing is used extensively upon horses for inflammation of the legs. A set of firing-irons is heated to a great heat, and, one at a time, are lightly applied across the limb, or in lines up and down, according to the nature of the disease. This excites a very great amount of swelling and inflammation, by which the mischief is often abated, and is followed also by a contraction of the skin, which appears to act as a bandage in the weak state of the vessels of the legs which often occurs. The firing is generally followed by blistering, in order to keep up the inflammation, and at least three months must be consumed before the fired horse, if thoroughly operated on, will be fit for work.

Strong solid caustics are as follows :—

1. Fused Potass, difficult to manage, because it runs about in all directions, and little used in veterinary medicine.

2. Lunar-Caustic, or nitrate of silver, very valuable to the veterinary surgeon, and constantly used to apply to profuse granulations.

3. Sulphate of Copper, almost equally useful, but not so strong as lunar-caustic ; it may be well rubbed in to all high granulations, as in broken knees, and similar growths.

4. Corrosive Sublimate in powder, which acts most energetically upon warty growths, but should be used with great care and discretion. It may safely be applied to small surfaces, but not without a regular practitioner to large ones. It should be washed off after remaining on a few minutes.

5. Yellow Orpiment, not so strong as the corrosive sublimate, and may be uesd with more freedom. It will generally remove warty growths, by picking off their heads and rubbing it in.

Strong liquid caustics :—

6. Sulphuric acid, or nitric acid, may be used either in full strength or diluted with an equal quantity of water ; but it must be used with great caution, as it destroys the skin rapidly.

7. *In Canker of the Foot.*—Quicksilver, 1 oz. ; nitric acid, 2 oz. Mix in an earthen vessel, and when cold put into a wide glass bottle, and cork it. It may be mixed with lard, in the proportion of 1 to 3.

8. A similar application, which may be used alternately with the last. —Copper filings, ½ oz. ; nitric acid, 1 oz. Mix, and use in the same way.

9. Muriate of antimony, called butter of antimony ; a strong but rather unmanageable caustic, and used either by itself or mixed with more or less water.

Mild solid caustics :—

10. Verdigris, either in powder or mixed with lard as an ointment, in the proportion of 1 to 3.

11. Red precipitate, do., do.

12. Burnt alum, used dry.

13. Powdered white sugar.

Mild liquid caustics :—

14. Solution of nitrate of silver, 5 to 15 grains to the ounce of distilled water.

15. Solution of blue Vitriol, of about double the above strength.

16. Chloride of zinc, 3 grains to the ounce of water.

CHARGES.

Charges are adhesive plasters which are spread while hot on the legs, and at once covered with short tow, so as to form a strong and unyielding support while the horse is at grass.

1. *Ordinary Charge.*—Burgundy pitch, 4 oz. ; Barbadoes tar, 6 oz. ; beeswax, 2 oz. ; red lead, 4 oz. The first three are to be melted together, and afterwards the lead is to be added. The mixture is to be kept constantly stirred until sufficiently cold to be applied. If too stiff (which will depend upon the weather) it may be softened by the addition of a little lard or oil.

2. *Arnica Charge.*—Canada balsam, 2 oz. ; powdered arnica leaves, ½ oz. The balsam to be melted and worked up with the leaves, adding spirits of turpentine if necessary. When thoroughly mixed, to be well rubbed into the whole leg in a thin layer, and to be covered over with the Charge No. 1, which will set on its outside and act as a bandage, while the arnica acts as a restorative to the weakened vessels. This is an excellent application.

CORDIALS.

Cordials are medicines which act as warm temporary stimulants, augmenting the strength and spirits when depressed, and often relieving an animal from the ill effects of over-exertion. They act much in the same way on the horse and dog, but require to be given in different doses.

1. *Cordial Balls.*—Powdered carraway seeds, 6 drms. ; ginger, 2 drms. ; oil of cloves, 20 drops. Treacle enough to make into a ball.

2. Powdered aniseed, 6 drms. ; powdered cardamoms, 2 drms. ; powdered cassia, 1 drm. ; oil of carraway, 20 drops. Mix with treacle into a ball.

3. *Cordial Drench.*—A quart of good ale warmed and with plenty of grated ginger.

4. *Cordial and Expectorant.*—Powdered aniseed, ½ oz. ; powdered squills, 1 drm. ; powdered myrrh, 1½ drm. ; Balsam of Peru, enough to form a ball.

5. Licorice powder, ½ oz. ; gum ammoniacum, 3 drms. ; balsam of Tolu, 1½ drm. ; powdered squills, 1 drm. Linseed meal and boiling water, enough to form into a mass.

DEMULCENTS.

Demulcents are medicines which are used in irritations of the bowels, kidneys, and bladder.

1. *Demulcent Drench.*—Gum Arabic, ½ oz. ; water 1 pint. The whole to be given.

2. Linseed, 4 oz. ; water, 1 quart. Simmer till a strong and thick decoction is obtained, and give as above.

3. *Marshmallow Drench.*—Marshmallows, a double handful ; water 1 quart. Simmer as in No. 2, and use in the same way.

DIAPHORETICS.

Diaphoretics are medicines which increase the insensible perspiration.

1. *In Hide-Bound.*—Emetic tartar, 1½ drm. ; camphor, ½ drm. ; ginger, 2 drms. ; opium, ½ drm. ; oil of carraway, 15 drops. Linseed meal and boiling water, to form a ball, which is to be given twice or thrice a week.

2. *In Hide-Bound* (but not so efficacious).—Antimonial powder, 2 drms. ; ginger, 1 drm. ; powdered carraways, 6 drms. ; oil of aniseed, 20 drops. Mix as above.

These remedies require exercise in clothing to bring out their effects after which the horse should be wisped till quite dry.

DIGESTIVES.

Digestives are applications which promote suppuration, and the healing of wounds or ulcers.

1. *Digestive Ointment.*—Red precipitate, 2 oz. ; Venice turpentine, 3 oz. ; beeswax, 1 oz. ; hog's lard, 4 oz. Melt the last three ingredients over a slow fire, and, when nearly cold, stir in the powder.

DIURETICS.

Diuretics are medicines which promote the secretion and discharge of urine, the effect being produced in a different manner by different medicines ; some acting directly upon the kidneys by sympathy with the stomach, while others are taken up by the blood-vessels, and in their elimination from the blood cause an extra secretion of the urine. In either case their effect is to diminish the watery part of the blood, and thus promote the absorption of fluid effused into any of the cavities, or into the cellular membrane, in the various forms of dropsy.

1 *Stimulating Diuretic Ball for the Horse.* — Powdered resin, sal prunelle, Castile soap, of each 3 drms. ; oil of juniper, 1 drm. Mix.

2. *A more Cooling Diuretic Ball.*—Powdered niter, ½ to 1 oz. ; camphor and oil of juniper, of each 1 drm. ; soap, 3 drms. Mix, adding linseed meal enough to form a ball.

3. *Diuretic Powder for a Mash.*—Niter and resin, of each ½ to ¾ oz. Mix.

4. *Another more Active Powder.*—Niter, 6 drms. ; camphor, 1½ drm. Mix.

EMBROCATIONS.

Embrocations or liniments are stimulating or sedative external applications, intended to reduce the pain and inflammation of internal parts when rubbed into the skin with the hands.

1. *Mustard Embrocation.*—Best flour of mustard, 6 oz. ; liquor of ammonia, 1½ oz. ; oil of turpentine, 1½ oz. Mix with sufficient water to form a thin paste.

2. *Stimulating Embrocation.*—Camphor, ½ oz. ; oil of turpentine and spirits of wine, of each 1 oz. Mix.

3. *Sweating Embrocation for Windgalls, etc.*—Strong mercurial ointment, 2 oz. ; camphor, ½ oz. ; oil of rosemary, 2 drms. ; spirits of turpentine, 1 oz. Mix.

4. *Another, but stronger.*—Strong mercurial ointment, 2 oz. ; oil of bay, 1 oz. ; oil of origanum, ½ oz. ; powdered cantharides, ½ oz. Mix.

5. *A most Active Sweating Embrocation.*—Red iodide of mercury, ½ to 1 drm. ; powdered arnica leaves, 1 drm. ; soap liniment, 2 oz. Mix.

6. This must be repeated until a blister is raised, which usually takes two or three applications. It may then be omitted for a week.

EMULSIONS.

Emulsions are very useful in the chronic cough of the horse.

1. *Simple Emulsion.*—Linseed oil, 2 oz.; honey, 3 oz.; soft water, 1 pint; subcarbonate of potass, 1 drm. Dissolve the honey and potass in the water; then add the linseed oil by degrees in a large mortar, when it should assume a milky appearance. It might be given night and morning.

2. *Another more Active Emulsion.*—Simple emulsion, No. 1, 8 oz.; camphor, 1 drm.; opium in powder, ½ drm.; oil of aniseed, 30 drops. Rub the last three ingredients together in a mortar with some white sugar; then add the emulsion by degrees.

EXPECTORANTS.

Expectorants excite or promote discharge of mucus from the lining membrane of the bronchial tubes, thereby relieving inflammation and allaying cough.

1. *In Ordinary Cough without Inflammation.*—Gum ammoniacum, ½ oz.; powdered squill, 1 drm.; Castile soap, 2 drms. Honey enough to form a ball.

2. *In Old Standing Cough (Stomach).*—Asafœtida, 3 drms.; galbanum, 1 drm.; carbonate of ammonia, ½ drm.; ginger, 1½ drm. Honey enough to form a ball.

3. *A Strong Expectorant Ball.*—Emetic tartar, ½ drm.; calomel, 15 grs.; digitalis, ½ drm.; powdered squills, ½ drm. Linseed meal and water enough to form a ball, which is not to be repeated without great care.

FEBRIFUGES.

Fever medicines are given to allay fever, which they do by increasing the secretions of urine and sweat, and also by reducing the action of the heart.

1. *Fever Ball.*—Niter, 4 drms.; camphor, 1 dr.; calomel and opium, of each 1 scruple. Linseed meal and water enough to form a ball.

2. *Another.*—Emetic tartar, 1½ to 2 drms.; compound powder of tragacanth, 2 drms. Linseed meal as above.

3. *Another.*—Niter; 1 oz.; camphor, 2 drms. Mix as above.

4. *Cooling Mash.*—Niter, 1 oz., may be given in a bran mash.

5. *Cooling Drench.*—Niter, 1 oz.; sweet spirits of niter, 2 oz.; tincture of digitalis, 2 drms.; whey, 1 pint.

CLYSTERS.

Clysters are intended either to relieve obstructions or spasm of the bowels, and are of great use. They may in the general way be of warm water or gruel, of which some quarts will be required in colic. They should be thrown up with the proper syringe, provided with valves and a flexible tube.

1. Turpentine clyster in colic, see ANTISPASMODICS.

2. Aperient clysters, see APERIENTS.

3. *Anodyne Clyster in Diarrhœa.*—Starch, made as for washing, 1 quart; powdered opium, 2 drms. The opium is to be boiled in water, and added to the starch.

LOTIONS.

Lotions are liquids applied to the external parts when inflamed, and they act by reducing the temperature, and by giving tone to the vessels of the part.

1. *Cooling Lotion in Stiffness from Bruises or Work.*—Tincture of arnica, 1 drm.; spirits of wine, 7 drm. Mix and rub well into the parts, before the fire, with the hand.

2. *For Internal Canker.*—Nitrate of silver, 10 grs.; distilled water, 1 oz. Mix, and drop in every night.

3. *Cooling Lotion for External Inflammation.*—Goulard extract, 1 oz.; vinegar, 2 oz.; spirits of wine, or gin, 3 oz.; water 1½ pint. Mix and apply with a calico bandage.

4. *Another, useful for Inflamed Legs or for Galled Shoulders or Back.*—Sal ammoniac, 1 oz.; vinegar, 4 oz.; spirits of wine, 2 oz. tincture of arnica, 2 drms.; water, ½ pint. Mix.

5. *Lotion for Foul Ulcers.*—Sulphate of copper, 1 oz.; nitric acid, ½ oz.; water, 8 to 12 oz.

OINTMENTS.

Ointments are greasy applications, consisting of a powerful drug mixed with lard, or some similar compound, and thus applied to the sore; they are generally more properly described under the several heads for which they are used. (See ASTRINGENTS, ANODYNES, ETC.)

STIMULANTS.

By this term is understood those substances which excite the action of the whole nervous and vascular systems; almost all medicines are stimulants to some part or other; as, for instance, aperients, which stimulate the lining of the bowels, but to the general system are lowering. On the other hand, stimulants, so called, excite and raise the action of the brain and heart.

1. Old ale, 1 quart; carbonate of ammonia, ½ to 2 drms.; tincture of ginger, 4 drms. Mix, and give as a drench.

2. For other stimulants, see CORDIALS.

STOMACHICS.

Stomachics are medicines given to improve the tone of the stomach when impaired by bad management or disease.

1. *Stomachic Ball.*—Powdered gentian, ½ oz.; powdered ginger, 1½ drm.; carbonate of soda, 1 drm. Treacle to form a ball.

2. *Another.*—Cascarilla powdered, 1 oz.; myrrh, 1½ drm.; Castile soap, 1 drm. Mix, with syrup or treacle, into a ball.

3. *Another.*—Powdered colombo, ½ to 1 oz.; powdered cassia, 1 drm.; powdered rhubarb, 2 drms. Mix as in No. 2.

TONICS.

Tonics augment the vigor of the whole body permanently, whilst stimulants only act for a short time. They are chiefly useful after low fever.

1. *Tonic Ball.*—Powdered yellow bark, 1 oz.; ginger, 2 drms.; carbonate of soda, ½ drm. Form into a ball with linseed meal and water.

Another.—Sulphate of iron, ½ oz.; extract of camomile, 1 oz. Mix, and form into a ball.

Another.—Arsenic, 10 grs.; ginger, 1 drm.; powdered aniseed, 1 oz., compound powder of tragacanth, 2 drms.; syrup enough to form a ball. It is a very powerful tonic.

WORM MEDICINES.

Worm medicines are given in order to expel worms, which they do partly from their specific action upon the worm itself, and partly by their purgative qualities, which all ought to possess, or to be followed by medicines of that class.

1. Calomel, 1 to 2 drms.; Barbadoes aloes, 3 to 6 drms.; ginger, 1 drm.; soap, 3 drms. Mix.

2. *Worm Drench.*—A pint of linseed oil every day.



HEALTH AND CONDITION.

THE state of thriving prosperity in Poultry so well known to connoisseurs as condition, is of such primary importance that it may justly claim first attention.

When fowls get ill and die, without any apparent cause, careful observation may generally trace it to one or other of a few fertile sources of evil to them. They have been overcrowded, they have had too much pampering, or they have had too little care. All fatal faults in feeding come under one of the last two heads.

If the apparent health and appearance of the fowls be not satisfactory, visit the hen-house after it has been some hours shut up at night, and if the air be offensive there need be no further quest after the cause of illness or other evil there may be among the living beings breathing its close atmosphere for many hours.

The remedy should at once be applied by decreasing the number of fowls, and by giving increased ventilation.

A hen-house 6 or 8 feet square will do well for seven old fowls, or one large brood of chickens. More crowding will not lead to a good result; so if the increase of the stock seems to render it necessary, consider means for housing the youngsters out of doors, in coops or by other contrivances, rather than overfill the houses.

Fowls, even the tallest, live and breathe very near the surface of the ground; and when the earth becomes foul from having had live stock on it for some time, they cannot fail to inhale the malaria engendered by it. Human beings in such an atmosphere would fall in as great proportional numbers as do the fowls of the most unfortunate amateurs; sanitary measures in their case stop epidemics, and they are the remedies to use with our fowls, or we must not look to have them prosperous and healthy.

The most valuable sanitary measure for the fowls is to renew the surface of the runs by paring from time to time. Spring is a good time to do it, when the pared-off surface, rich with guano-like manure, is a valuable strong fertilizer. Duck and pigeon manure are the strongest.

Means must be taken to dry the runs, made pure by paring. Low damp ground should be drained. Excellent runs may be made by paring the ground one spit deep, *i. e.*, a foot, good measure, and filling in with a depth of nine inches of chalk and three of gravel.

Sometimes, when paring would be too trouble-

some, a sprinkle of lime over the surface will purify it, but the fowls should be kept off it until after rain. Where the fowls have extensive ranges the immediate neighborhood of the houses only will need this cleansing process ; but the floors of the hen-houses require renewal from time to time.

The kind of pampering which leads to over-feeding fowls, giving them dainties, such as meat, greaves, hemp-seed, Indian corn, and other fattening food, and keeping them too warmly housed, is a fertile source of ill-health. Poultry, to remain thoroughly healthy, and not to become unhealthily fat, should never have a grain more of food given than they can eat up at once with a hungry, healthy appetite ; they should not be fed too often, they should not have a variety of food given at the same time, and they should have to run for all the food they eat, and have it so thrown abroad that they shall have plenty of work, and consequently plenty of amusement, to find it.

The well-being of fowls requires that they have *regular* care as well as judicious economical feeding, regular meals, a regular supply of water, and regular cleaning. The real care that they require is not pampering and superabundant, almost incessant, feeding, and sometimes the less they are run after the better they will thrive ; but the little care they need should be administered with regularity. This is the kind of care that will keep poultry in the perfect health and good looks which amateurs know so well, and so fully appreciate as good condition.

A fowl in good condition is free and bold in gait, brisk in movement, and bright in the eye. The plumage is full, firm, crisp, and glossy ; the bird feels firm in handling ; it is neither too lean nor too fat, and the comb is clear and bright in color, according to the season.

When a bird is out of condition, in which case it will do no good service to its owner, it handles flabby, however fat it may be ; it is heavy and listless in movement, often craves continually for food, and seems too lazy to wander far to seek any for itself. The comb and eye lack brightness, but the plumage tells the tale most unmistakably ; it is dull, ruffled, and broken, sets away from the body, and either comes out with a touch, or adheres to the skin with unnatural tenacity, fixed by a kind of leprous scurfiness. A tendency to roup is often seen.

ARRANGEMENT OF STOCK.

The cheapest way to get up a stock, allowing time and work for the matter, is to buy really first-class reliable eggs, from sellers of established character. We must neither expect all the eggs to hatch, all the chickens which are hatched to turn out especially good, nor find fault with the seller if this be not the case ; for if he is honest he will tell you that when eggs are set at home, without the no small trial of a journey, the hatching of two out of three is a pretty good proportion, and a first-class pair from each brood is ample return for the outlay, reckoning the value of the eggs at the usual price charged for eggs for setting, and the trouble of rearing.

If it be wished to get a good stock together, without the delay of rearing chickens, it may be done by purchasing fowls.

An old rooster should be mated with pullets, or a fine cockerel of the year before with old hens. Good breeders consider it better to mate a one year old bird with young hens, than pullets with an old bird.

In-breeding, *i. e.*, breeding among relations, must be carefully avoided. However fine the stock, it is altogether against the laws of good breeding to keep the pullets and the cockerels, and go on year after year breeding from them without the introduction of fresh blood. Doing so will produce decrease of size and weakly constitutions. In-breeding must, on no account, be carried beyond the first remove. The mother may be mated with her son, but the old game breeders did not consider the union of a rooster with the pullets bred from him nearly so good.

In the purchase of stock, therefore, take care to get hens and roosters which are not related, either by buying from different persons, or by asking the person of whom you purchase for roosters and hens of different families, which most amateurs, and all dealers, are able to manage.

It has not unfrequently happened that well-established, good stocks of fowls have been greatly injured by a carelessly introduced cross. When the introduction of fresh blood becomes necessary, the stock with which to cross should be chosen with reference to the qualities most wanted, and great care is necessary to prevent the increase of present failings by it. The purity of the breed and its stamina must also be especially considered ; for mongrel crosses, or a weakly constitution, may be introduced in one year, and may take a great many to eradicate.

With regard to the number of hens to be allowed to run with one rooster, various opinions have been given ; but while ten or a dozen may form one group for the production of eggs for that of really fine chickens the number should be limited to four, or at most six. With four hens, almost all the eggs which are laid will prove productive of fine strong chickens, provided, of course, the stock birds are good.

At the breeding season the breeding stock should most decidedly be confined to runs, if purity and precision in breeding be a desideratum ; and each family, consisting of a male bird and his harem, should be kept distinct. This separation from stock birds less to be depended upon than those which are selected, should be arranged before Christmas, and continue until eggs are no longer wanted for setting, after

which they may have a fuller range, when the houses they have occupied will be valuable for other purposes.

So particular have some game breeders been in that important point, purity of race, that they considered that the character of the chickens might be influenced by the hen that hatched them, and would set eggs only under the hen that laid them, or one of the same breed, saying that roosters lost pluck by being hatched by common hens.

HOUSES.

A simple construction is better for a hen-house than a very elaborate air-tight building ; for too confined air, while the fowls are at roost, makes the place offensive, and is more prone to engender disease than almost anything.

Poultry amateurs would be much at a loss in their building operations, if they could not have that useful commodity, the patent felt roofing. It measures 32 inches wide, and is a capital water-tight covering for a roof, or any other part of a hen-house ; it is like wood and brickwork to the builder of hen-houses, and cheap withal.

About the cheapest regularly formed house may be made with it, stretched over a wooden frame, which should be rather stout, and well put together. The roof should be made of common boards, under the felt, which without that support is apt to bag, make hollows for water to lodge in, and become rotten in consequence. It nails most easily with iron tacks heated in a frying-pan ; when up it requires tarring and thickly sprinkling with sand, which should be repeated every year to make it durable. In sunny weather a felt house is apt to be hot, so that, to keep it refreshingly cool, as well as for appearance sake, it is a good plan to plant quick-growing trees round it.

Tolerably stout wooden houses have done hundreds of amateurs excellent service. For the house to keep in good order, the wood should be well seasoned, and any amateur carpenter can put it up at small cost and trouble. Shape the house with a framework of battens. The lowest part may be 5 feet high, and the roof should have a good pitch, both to throw off the wet, and to make it airy. The cheapest description of boards will do for the roof under the felt, and scarcely any wooden roof is good without that covering, from its being liable, after being swelled with wet, to crack with the heat of the sun, and so let in water. If it be entirely of wood, the boards can either be placed horizontally, with an overlap of at least an inch and a half, or vertically, edge to edge, with fillets of wood nailed over the joints. A cheap roof, yet one which is tolerably lasting, may be made by covering the boards with gas tar and coarse brown paper. Lay on a coat of tar, then the brown paper, lapping it over a full inch where the sheets meet, and finish with another coat of tar. When the wooden roof is to be covered with either felt or brown paper, there need be no overlap of the boards, but they may lie edge to edge, either from ridge to eaves, or across. The boards, too, for covering the framework of sides, back and front of the house, can go either upright or across, whichever will use the wood to the best economy. Eaves should project well, to carry off wet.

If the boards are used rough, three-quarter inch planks will do, but if they are planed, inch deal will be required to make up for the waste.

A hatch for the fowls to go in and out, with a door to slip down over it, should be made when the house is built ; sometimes two on different sides are found very useful, in case of changes in the run, which can then be put to one side of the house, instead of the other, without further alteration.

A more solid kind of house, as well as one which will be more costly, can be built with regular walls of brick, stone, rough stone, or earth. These may be more lasting, and the first three more secure from the attacks of vermin, but, of course, the cost both in material and labor will be greater.

For a brick wall, what bricklayers call half a brick thick is sufficient, as very great strength is not required. A pattern of a few feet square, made by leaving out alternate bricks high up on the side of the house, which will admit air that will not be too cold, is a good means of ventilation, and of giving light also.

Few amateurs would go to the expense of walls of hewn stone, but in neighborhoods where rough blasted rock or stone is plentiful, and consequently cheap, it makes good walls, which come rather cheaper than brickwork. To be sufficiently solid and stable these walls should be rather over than under a foot thick, and the stones fitted together with judgment, to avoid interstices causing weakness, or great consumption of mortar, of which, however well the stones may be fitted, a great deal will be used. While building this kind of wall it should be brought to a level surface at the top every 16 inches or so, which gives the stone a look of order in the arrangement, greatly improving the appearance, and also giving strength. All laminated stone, i. e., stone which has an appearance of being formed in layers, should have these layers placed horizontally.

Where building materials of most kinds are difficult to obtain, earth walls may be used with advantage, requiring, if the material be at hand, little outlay except labor. The proper earth is neither sand nor clay, but partaking of both. Clay, chalk, any calcareous earth, or sand, is bad for the purpose. The earlier in the season the building can be done the better, that it may have time to dry ; but a time must be chosen when the earth is sufficiently dry for working, and the coarser and bolder it is the better. A foundation of brick or stone must be used, which can be brought 9 inches above the surface of the ground, or less if preferred. The wall is made by ramming in the earth, supported during the process by a mold formed of two planks of inch board. These planks for a cottage or similar building should be 12 feet long and 20 inches wide, formed of two breadths, and strengthened with cross pieces strongly nailed outside ; but for a hen-house, summer-house, or similar edifice of less importance, they might be shorter. Cross-bolts fix these planks together (two near each end), with as many inches between the two boards as the wall is to be thick, say 14 or 16 inches, and the bolts have large heads at one end to fix them, and eyelet holes and cross pegs at the other. Place the planks above the brick foundation, bolt them together, and fit bits of board into the ends, to prevent the building material running out there, the little boards fitting in between the top and bottom bolts, and making (with them) the mold into a sort of box. Then work the earth up well, a little at a time, mixing in cut straw or some

similar material to make it bind ; and when it is used it should have just moisture enough to adhere together, under the pressure of the thumb and finger. Ram in no more at a time than will make an inch and a half when well rammed ; and the rammer, to do its work well, should be no more than an inch and a half wide. When the earth is well rammed down, as high as the mold will allow, draw out the cross-bolts, remove the planks, and fix the mold further on, the bolt at one end being fitted into the hole left by that at the other, only one end board being of course required. When each layer of the wall is completed the mold must be placed higher, fitting the bottom bolts into the holes left by the top ones, and after each course pour over the surface (to make the next course adhere, and also to give a nice appearance) a small quantity of thick grout composed of one-fifth lime and fourth-fifths earth.

Before the wall dries the holes left by the bolts must be carefully filled up with mortar made of one-fourth lime and three-fourths earth. If the same mixture be used for the wall, it will dry almost like stone.

A stout frame of wood must be fixed to shape the door, hatch and windows, and the building may have a smooth facing given to it of the mortar above named, or one made with more lime, or even a little cement. As a finish it may be washed with a mixture of lime and sharp sand, mixed in small quantities, and used while hot, which may easily be done by adding a knob of lime and the sand a little at a time, as it is used.

The roofing for houses of regular walls, like those of brick, stone, or earth, should be slates or tiles.

A slate or tile roof will be cold in winter and hot in summer unless it has a lining of some kind, for which any of the following substances will do, unless a regular ceiling of plaster be preferred : felt nailed to the under side of the rafters, and tarred ; a kind of inner thatch of straw, kept in its place by laths nailed to the rafters ; stout brown paper oiled or painted and nailed to the rafters.

Every hen-house should have a good wide door, as it may sometimes be useful to carry a hen-coop through it, especially in wet ungenial seasons ; and the door should be so placed, and so fixed on its hinges, that it will open back thoroughly. A window, too, is necessary, as light within is quite wanted, and it may not be advisable to fix the door open at all times in our climate. Perforated zinc, or close lattice, is good, and will give no more air than enough, except in very intense weather, when it may be covered with a bit of thin board or a sheet of brown paper.

Give the hen-houses a good lime-washing at first, to prevent vermin making a settlement in the wood or small cracks to be found about, and repeat it once a year at *furthest.*

When the house is complete, with door and window for convenient access and ventilation, a hatch for the use of the fowls, a good firm floor, which can neither be too cold, too easily saturated with impurity, nor too facile a harbor for vermin, and which can be kept clean without difficulty, all sweet from the hand of the whitewasher, it must be fitted with perches and nests. All heavy fowls should have the perch made of a fir pole, not less than 4 inches across. One pole sawed in halves will make two perches ; they should be about 2 feet, or a little more, from the ground, and they should drop into sockets, so that they can be taken down to clean or lime-wash. Light active fowls often crave to soar higher for roosting, but heavy birds should on no account be allowed to do so.

Almost anything, provided it be steady and clean, does for a nest. Some wild fowls like it to be secret and out of the way, but those that are tame and much noticed care little about that ; only take care that it stands firm (to provide against losses), and that it is filled with clean sweet straw or hay. Straw is best in warm weather, as hay is said to be heating, and consequently to encourage vermin.

HOUSES AND RUNS.

With regard to the size of the hen-house, the important point is that it should be sufficiently large for the air to keep pure and sweet when the fowls are shut up at night. A house of medium size, with a few fowls, is preferable to a large one with a great many.

One favorite form for poultry houses, with many extensive amateurs, has always been ranges of houses, side by side, each having a run belonging to it. Another plan has been a circular, octagonal, or square building, of large size, parted into several poultry houses, and with a run to each division, arranged round the building.

Every poultry run should have a shed. A felt roof on fixed supports, with a pitch from 4 feet at the back to 3 feet in front, will do. A little common boarding under the felt will make it very good, or a roof of feather-edged board will do exceedingly well. It should have a warm aspect ; under it should be spread fine dust in which the fowls may roll and cleanse their feathers gravel to give small stones, without which fowls cannot remain healthy, and lime rubbish, or lime in some shape for eggshell, without a due supply of which they will not lay well.

Where the range is necessarily small, the important point is to have a small number of fowls in proportion to its size, and to clear off all supernumeraries before winter. Grass is excellent for fowls, but it is impossible to keep a small run in grass, as the constant tramp and scratching of even half a dozen grown birds will make it bare.

A well laid run, kept clean, *will do* for fowls, but a grass run is far preferable, if it can be managed.

FEEDING.

Perhaps there is no method of poultry feeding so injurious as throwing down a lot of food, from which they can fill their crops, scarcely moving from the spot where they stand. Fowls thus fed will grow fat internally, but they will not put on good firm meat and strong useful muscle, nor will they acquire stamina and good constitutions.

Good feeding rather requires good space, but if the run be small, it must be made the most of by throwing the food as far as can be, and making the fowls run the whole distance, as many times as possible.

In a small run, where the green food must be given to the fowls, instead of their going afar to seek it for themselves, it is a good plan to tie up cabbage stumps and lettuces for them to pull at, rather than to throw them on the ground.

Three meals a day are quite enough for any grown fowls; those that have range enough to enable them to pick up much for themselves will do well with two.

A good supply of clean pure water is as necessary as a regular supply of food. Perhaps there is nothing better in which to give the water, than firm standing crockery pans. They should be placed a little sunk in the ground, very firm and steady, in some out-of-the-way corner, where the fowls are least likely to step into them or overturn them, washed thoroughly inside and out once a day, filled once a day, and filled up whenever they require it. Each pan should hold as much water as the fowls for whose use it is intended could consume in twenty-four hours, but it should be replenished oftener in case of accidents.

The different kinds of food used in feeding poultry, are, grain of many varieties, the meal made from them by grinding, root and green vegetables, and meat, either given by hand, or found by themselves in the shape of worms, grubs, and such like. It is the best economy to buy food of the best quality, for poor or damaged things are dear at any price. The food, of whatever kind, should be fine of its kind, and in good condition. Worm-eaten corn, and meal which is full of mites, is deficient in nourishing properties and unwholesome.

Next in importance to good food is good variety in diet. Animals need change of food, and always thrive best and produce best upon it. Barley, oats, wheat, buckwheat, Indian corn, the meal made from all these, potatoes, lettuces, and all kinds of garden stuff offer a good variety, and may be yet further varied with rice, mangold, linseed, vetches, turnips, etc. A change, altered week about, has often been found to succeed.

Barley is used as whole corn more than almost any other kind of food, and it is good, but the stock will not thrive on it or any other grain, without variation.

Wheat is very nourishing, but rather too heating for poultry which has not full liberty.

Buckwheat makes an excellent change, and promotes laying; on the continent it is more used than any other grain. Fowls like it very much when they get used to it, but when it is strange they will sometimes overlook it on account of its dark color.

Indian corn is good as an *occasional* change; its fault is that it promotes internal fat rather than general plumpness, on which account it should be used with caution, and not for too long at a time.

The diet of fowls should never, however, be entirely corn. Since their gizzards are made for getting nutriment from corn, we do not think the use of it should be excluded, but they are omnivorous, and it is best to feed them at all times partly on soft food, *i. e.*, meal, and such like, and partly on corn. If two meals a day are given, we would give one of meal and other soft food, and one of corn; if three, one of corn and two of soft food, generally, and sometimes, for a change, two of corn and one of soft food.

Meal of different kinds is the staple material for soft food. Perhaps the best of all is oats ground up, as already mentioned.

Barley meal is a good plain meal of moderate price, for common use, and one which the fowls always seem to relish well.

Oatmeal is dearer. Good round Scotch oatmeal is excellent from its nourishing properties.

Malt dust is said to be very nourishing and good.

In buying meal, great care must be taken to get it good, as if it be old, stale, and mity, or made from bad corn, no stock can thrive upon it. It should be newly ground, from good corn, and kept until used in a cool dry place.

Potatoes are very good poultry food, in change with food of other kinds. The more mealy they are the better they are for food, so that if they are boiled they should be cooked in an iron pot, and put to dry after the water is strained from them. When they are given they may be broken to pieces, and scattered far and wide, like other food. For developing the mealiness, they may be better steamed than boiled, and yet better, by far, baked.

In feeding young stock, take care that the food is thoroughly good and appetizing, fresh and well made. Satisfy hunger at every meal, leave time between the meals for hunger to return, and never pamper appetite. If the chickens refuse to eat, they often know better what is good for them, than we do when we try to press or force them.

As the chickens approach maturity they will eat enormously. Let them do so. Let them have as much exercise as you can give them, and plenty of food will not hurt them. If they become too expensive, eat them or sell them; clear them off any way you can, and leave space at liberty for future use.

All fowls, old and young, want green food. Giving them free access to grass is the best way of supplying it, and if we have not the opportunity we may give them turfs of grass in their runs. If the turfs are too large and heavy for the fowls to knock to pieces, they may be removed to a safe place and watered, and used again and again as often as the grass grows. Fresh cuttings of a lawn may be thrown into the runs, and will be relished.

Lettuces may be given to fowls and ducks; turnip greens are good for them, and cabbage leaves, and any refuse from the garden may be given, if grass, lettuce, or turnip greens are not to be had. In the absence of green, boiled roots are better than no vegetable food.

Animal food also is necessary. That which they get for themselves in the shape of worms, grubs, etc., is the best, and in its absence the want must be supplied with a little cooked meat, cut small.

Forcing breeding—wheat, beans, peas and meat—may induce fowls to lay abundantly, but will not produce lastingly strong healthy fowls, and those thus fed will seldom either live out their natural term of life, or produce chickens of natural strength and stamina.

EGGS AND HATCHING.

Warm housing and abundant feeding make the hens lay early, provided they do not become too fat. Meat will bring them on to lay, and buckwheat, oats fried in fat, and brewers' grains are all good stimulants.

As the chicken season approaches, the best hens should be watched, that their eggs may be known, written on, and put

aside in order, as they are laid. If any have imperfect shells, a smooth round mark on one side, an appearance of a grown up crack, a look of weakness anywhere, or any irregularity of shape, they had better be rejected for setting, as they would be little likely to hatch, and very likely to break in the nest before the term of incubation was up, thus doing harm by soiling the other eggs, and possibly inducing the sitter to become an egg-eater by the temptation of a cracked egg, too strong to be resisted. The eggs, until they are wanted for setting, may be arranged in a box, according to freshness, and kept in a place where they will be cool, if the weather be hot, and safe from the frost if the weather be severe.

Eggs should on no account be stale when they are set, as, if they are, they will very likely not hatch, and if they do hatch the produce will be weakly. If the eggs are set at once, without becoming cold after they are laid, they will often hatch a day sooner.

There is no doubt as to its being best for a hen to let her set once a year, or even twice, especially if she be a good layer, as the rest and good feeding she gets while she is on the nest and rearing her chickens, prove very restorative. If, however, it is necessary to break her of the wish to set, it may best be done by changing her to a grass run, where she can find no nest to take possession of, or coop her on the grass, out of sight of her favorite nest, and avoid overfeeding.

If the broody hens are to be set, an appropriate place must be prepared for them. It never answers to let hens sit in the hen-house where other fowls are kept, as they will be continually interfering with them, and interrupting their work. They must, therefore, be removed to some quiet place which they can have to themselves, and even then they will want watching until each one gets thoroughly established on her own nest, lest they squabble together. The place for the sitters should be warm in spring, and not excessively hot in summer, as heat occasions too much evaporation for the well-being of the eggs, and often besides makes the hen feverish and ill, and consequently restless, and apt to come off too often and to break or crack her eggs by fidgeting. A damp warm atmosphere is that which is most favorable to incubation; cold and dry heat are both bad.

A box or basket well filled with clean straw, rammed down tight, a foot or more in thickness, under the hen at first, is good. Never use a nest, unless it be a hole in the earth, which has not a good massive thickness of straw under the hen; for if her attention to her own arrangements displaces the straw, and leaves the eggs on the bare bottom of the nest, there is positively no chance of success. A good sod of turf, covered with grass or close heather, the size of the nest, fitted to the bottom of it, with a nest of straw over, makes a very good nest.

Let every sitter have a clean new-made nest, as one taken from the hen-house, or which has been in use before, may be infested with insects; and never let the same nest be used twice for setting without having it thoroughly cleaned, washed and filled with fresh straw. The nest should be quite full to the top, so that the hen may never run the risk of breaking the eggs by having to jump down upon them.

When the sitting place and nests are duly prepared, the sitters must be removed to them. Place them on the new nests, with not less than four nest eggs, or hard-boiled eggs, under each, and cover them up, or hang things round them, so as to keep them in the dark, until they are settled to the new nests. Let them keep to the nest eggs until they have been off to feed once only in the day, and returned to the right nests steadily of their own accord. Then the eggs may be given to each, from nine to thirteen, according to the size, with some certainty that the sitters will do well. It is a good plan to set two hens at once, and three are still better, as, if the broods are not large, they may be put together, or if any *contretemps* happen to one hen the eggs may be saved. If two broods be given to one hen to bring up, to save trouble, the second hen may be broken off from sitting, taking care to place her where she cannot hear the chickens; it does not often answer to set a hen on a second time with fresh eggs.

The requirements of the sitter are, fresh water, and a good meal of barley every time she leaves her nest to feed, which is generally once a day only, in the early part of the day. Barley is better than barley meal dough, and a sitting hen is very hearty; she will eat a good deal. It is best to let her come off of herself, and to know when she leaves her nest. Give her down plenty of food, without keeping her waiting for it, and see that she satisfies her hunger without molestation from other fowls, and that she returns quietly to her eggs. Besides food and water, the sitting hen wants a little green food, stones to promote digestion, and dry dust in which to roll and cleanse her feathers. If sitters have not the opportunity of keeping themselves free from insects in the dust bath, they will get infested with chickens' fleas, which torment them so that it becomes quite impossible for them to remain quiet, and they will often leave the nest and forsake the eggs. A good heap of dust, in which to roll, is almost as necessary to a sitting hen as her daily meal. After she gets thoroughly accustomed to the place and the nest, a run out of doors to pick up insects, and peck at grass, will do her good, care being taken to see that she goes back in due time. Some hens return to the nest in a very short time; others remain off the great part of an hour. It is better not to allow them to wander too long or too far.

The eggs ought to hatch the day three weeks from that on which they are set. Under favorable circumstances the chickens make their appearance the day before.

The growing and expanding chicken does all the work of breaking the shell; the sitter takes no part in it, but only gives her genial warmth. As soon as she hears the chick within the shell her eye puts on a bright pleased look, by which any one who watches hens closely, may know that the maternal instinct is gratified by the certainty of success, and her note changes to the pleased "took, took," the mother's call.

The first sound within the shell is a soft tapping, occasioned by the first action of the lungs of the now fully formed chicken, expanding with the air gaining admittance to the air cavity at the broad end of the egg, through the pores of the shell. The chick, growing, expanding, and unfolding from the cramped closely-packed position in which it has grown, presses the tip of the beak against the shell with sufficient force to start it. Still expanding and unfolding, it extends the cracks which the

little beak has made, until the shell opens completely into two unequal parts, and the little wet weakly chicken emerges; then the mother's warmth nourishes it into dryness and strength. When the chicken first comes out of the shell, the moist down lies close to the skin, each particle enveloped in a kind of sheath. As the down dries, it throws off these sheaths, which may be seen scattered over the nest, and expands into the soft full covering which clothes the young chickens in warmth and beauty. The next thing is, it wants to eat; but this does not happen until it has been many hours hatched.

It is best not to interfere with the mother and vex her by taking her chickens from her; but as soon as the little ones are seen to pop out from among her feathers, a little sopped bread in a cup may be placed before her; she will be hungry, and will eat herself, and will feed her little ones as soon as instinct tells her they require food. Offer her also a little water to drink, which she will often be very glad of.

If the hatching is protracted, it is necessary sometimes to take the hen off, and look at the eggs, in case of untoward accidents, such as a weakly chick falling to the bottom of the nest, unable to recover itself, or an unhatched egg getting firmly fixed inside an empty eggshell. This last is not very unfrequent, as some hens have a habit of systematically packing away the eggshells, one in another, like market baskets, and sometimes push in an egg by mistake, when the chicken in it may be sacrificed. Hens which are so ill-tempered that they will not be touched without putting themselves in a tantram, had better be left on the nest undisturbed, as, if touched, they may do more mischief to the eggs and chickens than is likely to arise from accident. Give the hen food while you tidy the nest, if necessary, and remove the empty eggshells. Keep the chickens which are hatched warm while this is done, let the hen go back, and when she is settled upon the eggs give her her chickens, putting them carefully, one by one, under her wings. Many hens are so good and quiet that you may raise them up and look under them, without taking them off, which is better.

The hen should never be unnecessarily interfered with. On the day of hatching, get her off to feed at her usual time in the morning, and then once in eight or twelve hours will be often enough to go to her, to see how the hatching progresses; but do not take her off the nest as often as that, unless circumstances render it necessary.

The more the hatching is left to nature the better, but there are rare instances when fine chickens would be lost, if not a little helped out of the eggshell.

At the end of the twenty-first day, put the eggs which remain unhatched to the ear, give them a turn over, and if the inside flops, take them away. If any eggs seem good, put them under the hen again; she will be more likely to hatch them in the night, when she sits down closer, than by day, when the early hatched chickens will be beginning to get active, and to move about around her in the nest.

If it is wished to hatch a good many chickens, the eggs may be examined when they have been set a week, when, if there are many bad ones, two batches may be united, and new lots given to the other hens. Hold the eggs, one by one, against a circular hole, an inch and a quarter across, in a rather darkened place, with the sun shining outside. The chickens in the eggs, and the ramifications of veins inside the shells, will be plainly seen, and the eggs which have no chickens in them will show clear. So small an accident may interfere with the growth of the chicken in the egg, that unless more sitters are much wanted, I think it best to leave the nests undisturbed, except in taking away unmistakably bad eggs when they are known.

REARING CHICKENS.

When the hatching is done, the sooner the hen can be removed to a clean nest, free from vermin, the better. That which has been set in three weeks will have chickens' fleas, encouraged and increased by the unusual warmth, and if the chickens remain in it, they will swarm to their soft down in a manner to preclude the comfort and health of the brood. As soon, therefore, as the eggs are all hatched, or found not likely to hatch, put the mother and her brood into a comfortable warm clean nest.

An old clothes basket does as well as anything, for there should be plenty of room, or the chickens may get crushed.

If the weather be cold, warm the straw before the fire for a few minutes, or warm it in the sunshine if there be any, that the latest hatched, some of them possibly scarcely dry, may not be chilled by the change; and when the hen has settled down quietly, with her little ones under her, place food and water before her, that she may eat and feed her young family. The food thus early may be chopped eggs (shell and all), and bread crumbs, sop, oatmeal and barley meal mixed, dry and crumbly, and crushed corn, giving now as later only one thing at a time. The drinking-pan should be shallow, that the chickens may not get wet by going into it, or turning it over; and constantly replenished, that the old hen may not want.

If the weather is mild and dry, the sooner mother and family can be placed on the gravel, out of doors, the better; but at first it must not be for long at a time. They may be put down, with advantage to themselves, on the floor of a greenhouse, and if the hen can be allowed a roll in some dust in one corner, it will be good for her and for her chickens too.

Under a shed, where the ground is clean dust, mixed with small stones, is a good place for cooping the hen for the first ten days or so, and she may after that be placed on the grass in dry weather, but not before the dew is off it. During a portion of each day she should be cooped where she and her little ones may enjoy a roll in dry dusty earth.

In choosing a place for cooping the hen, care should be taken that she can have the shelter necessary for comfort. When she is loose she can lead her chickens into the shade, or into the sunshine, or to warm nooks sheltered from cold winds, and it is cruel to confine her to one spot without consulting her wants in these matters. The imprisonment alone is quite bad enough for the poor hen to bear. In the kind of coop used, and in placing the coop, take care that there is ample and complete shelter from wet. When the wind is cold, place the coop where the hen and her chickens may be sheltered from its chilling influence. During the heat of the day, shade from the broiling heat of the sun is as necessary as shelter from wet and cold. It is good to attain these ends by moving the coops about three times a day, or as often as necessary.

If the brood is housed at night, the hen may brood them on the ground, if it be bare earth, not cold pavement. She may either have a little straw thrown down, or take the chickens into a large shallow firm-standing basket. The main thing is, whatever the bed be, let it be clean and sweet; whether it be the earth or straw, let it be well cleaned every day, and renewed when it becomes soiled.

If two or more broods are put to roost in one hen-house, the old hens should be confined with coops, or they may interfere with each other, or injure each other's chickens.

The spite of hens towards chickens not belonging to them, must always be guarded against. The best way is, if it can be managed, to place the coops so that they cannot see each other.

From the time the hen is cooped out, especially after the wing feathers begin to show, the chickens must be plentifully fed on good food, well varied. Rice pudding, made of rice, sharps, or Indian meal, and milk, and baked, makes excellent nourishing food, to which eggs and chopped meat, one or both, may be added. Rice, boiled, and rolled in sharps or Indian meal, instead of the pudding, is good. Other kinds of food are oatmeal and barley meal, mixed into a dry friable mass, canary seed, crushed oats, and crushed barley. These may be varied with cooked potatoes (baked are best), bread sopped in milk or in water (brown bread is preferable to white) and buckwheat. To get size, meat may be given every other day. They should have green food of some kind every day. Varying the meals, and sometimes giving an entire change, feed the chickens constantly, as often as they get hungry, with as much food as they and the mother like, leaving none to get stale, waste upon the ground, and encourage hosts of sparrows. When they no longer eat eagerly, with a good appetite, throw no more down. At first, they will want a bit about every hour, and by degrees they will get hungry less often, until six meals a day will be enough.

Chickens which are hatched before the natural time—that is to say, before the nights become mild and the days sunny, and before the earth teems with insects which they can catch for themselves, and the absence of which no meat will compensate—must have a little artificial warmth.

Chickens hatched thus early must be fed after dark, as a fast from dark to daylight is too long. About ten o'clock at night put down a candle or a lantern, and place food and water before the hen, and the little ones soon get into the habit of expecting a meal at that time, and of making a good one.

It is a mistake to feed chickens on plenty of excellent food for the first three weeks, and then to some extent leave them to take their chance. As the fledging advances, they require better and more nourishing food than they do while in the down. The call which the growth of the feathers makes on the resources of the chickens is attested by the wonderfully rapid growth which immediately commences as soon as they are fledged, and this increased rate of growth renders good feeding still no less necessary, and so on until growth is complete.

About the best kind of coop is a wooden box, with a span roof (either 2 or 3 feet square, according to the space at command, and the size of the stock kept), to give shelter and shade, with a run of wirework rather larger to place in front of it, to increase the range for the hen. She may make use of both and the chickens have full liberty, running in and out through the wirework.

By the time the chickens are turned off by their mothers, it is generally necessary to clear them from the ground they have hitherto occupied, to make room for more young broods. It is far better if each brood can then have a house and run to itself. If so much room cannot be spared, care must, at any rate, be taken only to put together chickens of about the same age.

A few chickens well bred, well accommodated, well cared for, and well fed, will turn out a pleasure and a credit; a good many chickens crowded together, however carefully looked after and fed, will give a great deal of trouble, constant work, constant care, and constant disappointment, and make no commensurate return, either in satisfaction or profit.

The difference between cockerels and pullets may sometimes be detected while they are very young. In some the cock's comb soon shows. In most kinds the arrangement of the first wing feathers is rounder and wider in pullets than in cockerels, whose first wing feathers come more to a point; the pullets' heads are often narrower and finer than the roosters, and they fledge earlier on the back, down the sides of the breast, and at the back of the head. In fine robust chickens it is sometimes difficult to pick out the cockerels and pullets until the back is partly feathered, when the pointed saddle hackle feathers soon begin to sprout; the surest test of all.

As the chickens approach maturity, good feeding must still be continued, supplying the place of the rice puddings, canary seed, and other young chicken dainties with abundant supplies of oatmeal, barley meal, and good corn, and using discretion as to the supply of meat. The bits from the table may always be collected and divided among the chickens.

As they approach maturity, too, they must be allotted to their destinations.

The young birds which are picked out for the table may also be put to their destination. Plenty of exercise develops strength and firmness of muscle, and is good for chickens which have the duties of a long life before them; *i. e.*, a life which is long for chickens, four or five years or so. For eating we want tender, not strong, firm muscle; therefore the chickens which are to be eaten need not have an extensive range. They may be made happy in a small run, and well fed with several meals a day of oatmeal and barley meal mixed, just so dry that the balls will fall to pieces when they are thrown down, and a little corn, with good supplies of clean fresh water. Those who like good chickens in natural condition may follow this plan, giving them for a little time before they are wanted rice boiled in water, in milk, or made into puddings, as for young chickens; but those who like to fatten their fowls for the table can put them up in fatting coops.

When they are put up, feed with moderation at first, as repletion then, or at any time, would retard the fatting process. As soon as they are reconciled to captivity, feed them on oatmeal three times a day. Milk for mixing the oatmeal is best;

every meal must be given in a well scalded, clean trough: keep the coops supplied with clean water, and between the meals place gravel before them, for them to peck at, and a turf of grass. Keep the coops scrupulously clean, give the first meal at sunrise, or thereabouts, and the last at roosting time, and the chickens will be ready to kill in about ten days or a fortnight. As soon as they are fat enough they must be killed, or they will become unhealthy. When one lot is fatted, take down the fattening coops, scrub and limewash them, and put them out in the air for a time before using them again.

Those who wish to make fowls very fat by the unpleasant process of cramming, may either choose the finest and healthiest from the fatting coop, or any good fleshy young fowls. The food used is oatmeal, mixed stiff with milk, made up into boluses the size to be put down the chicken's throat without danger of choking it. To fatten more rapidly mutton suet may be boiled in the milk used to mix the oatmeal. The person employed in the cramming process opens the chicken's beak, and puts six or eight boluses down its throat morning and evening. If it seem to wish for food at noon a little can be given it in the trough, which must be supplied also with water and gravel. Those which have been put up will be finished off in a week; those which have to be fatted by the cramming will take fourteen or sixteen days. While they are fattening by either process they must be kept free from draft, as they will fatten all the better for being comfortably warm.

Some persons kill fowls by bleeding them in the mouth; others wring their necks. The quickest and most merciful way is with a dexterous jerk to *break* the neck.

FANCY VARIETIES.

DORKINGS, SPANISH, AND COCHINS.

The chief large fowls occupying the attention of fanciers are Dorkings, Spanish, Cochins, Brahmas, Malays, and Crèvecœurs, and the other French breeds.

Dorkings.—The chickens are delicate until they get into their feathers, and Dorkings of all ages are more subject to roup than most kinds. Unless they have a good or well-drained soil, or an extensive grass range, they do not lay well, and do not thrive well. On the other hand, they are excellent and economical for persons to keep who supply the markets, provided they possess facilities for keeping and rearing them with success, because they come forward early; they make their growth early in life, may be fatted off, and cleared off early, and thus leave the ground at liberty soon, and enable the owner to realize his returns in a short time. If Dorkings are kept, they must have great care in feeding, and perfect cleanliness. The stamina of the chickens may be improved by crossing with Brahmas, Cochins, or Game.

The hens are good sitters, and attentive good mothers, and where the locality suits them, they are very good layers of nice, well-flavored, and rather large eggs. There are few kinds which vary more, as layers, than they.

The white Dorking is the original type of the race. It should have a square, plump, compact form, plumage of spotless white, delicate white skin, white legs, which should be delicate, not coarse, five toes well developed, clear white or pale yellow beak, and a well-formed, full-colored rose-comb. Size is an important point, and one in which white Dorkings have sometimes failed, but which the careful introduction of fresh blood from time to time improves.

The fifth toe on each foot is a matter of primary importance in all Dorkings, white and colored. Careful breeding has firmly fixed this property in the Dorking, and no fowl without it would have a chance of success at an exhibition, or of being purchased as a Dorking fowl anywhere. The fifth toe should be distinct and well developed on each foot; a sixth is no merit. The legs must have no suspicion of feathering

The colored Dorkings, like the white, must be plump made compact, and wide, with plenty of meat on the breast, short legs, and little offal. The comb may be single or rose, but all the combs in a pen must match well. The legs must be short, white, and delicate—*i. e.*, not coarse in the scales.

The plumage of colored Dorkings varies much, as may be expected in fowls which have been bred chiefly with reference to useful properties.

Spanish.—Brilliant black plumage, bright scarlet combs and wattles, and distinct and clear white faces make these fowls very attractive, and they are among the oldest as well as greatest favorites of poultry lovers; for early in this century, specimens which were at the time thought very choice, were brought to England from Holland. It seems probable that the kind may have been introduced into Holland from Spain, and taken up and improved by the keen Dutch fanciers, but now amateurs can find no vestige of the kind in the country which gives them their name.

Spanish roosters, especially, have a tall, majestic carriage, and the kind have the merit of doing well, and looking handsome and ornamental, if kept in a confined place, provided it be not overcrowded. They lay eggs which are very fine in size, but they are apt to be more woolly and less delicate in the white than those of many other fowls.

Cold, especially if it be damp cold, spoils the appearance of the old birds, by injuring the combs and turning them black. The combs of the hens shrink very much, and lose their beauty, while they are moulting, or when they are laying.

Spanish hens do not sit, so other sitters must be provided to hatch and rear the chickens; and for this purpose it is best to choose Dorkings, if possible, or, at any rate, some kind which does not throw off the chickens early. Spanish chickens had better not be hatched very early in the season, as they fledge late, and are delicate until they get into feathers; from March to May is the best time.

The Minorca is a variety of the Spanish, which, although wanting in valuable fancy points, is a good-looking, useful fowl, large in size, better for the table than Spanish, and a good layer of fine large eggs.

The Andalusian fowl is rather an attractive-looking bird; in form and carriage much like the Spanish, and evidently of the same family, with plumage either of a uniform slate color, or slate shaded or laced with black, and showy, well-developed scarlet combs and wattles. It has been stated that they were

brought from Andalusia, but some affirm that they have been bred from the Spanish—an accidental sport.

Cochins have the merit of being excellent layers. Good Cochin hens will lay every day, or two days out of three, until they want to sit; and they have the merit of being good layers in the winter, when fresh eggs are rarities.

The thing which most interferes with the production of eggs is the Cochin's constant habit of wanting to sit; but if she is allowed to sit, she very soon lays again.

Cochins are tame, docile, and manageable; little children may tend them without a chance of getting hurt, and they are friendly among themselves. When the hens sit, we may do what we like with them, and they are kind mothers as long as their nice little hardy chickens require their care. We can keep Cochins where we can keep no other fowls, and make them profitable with no other drawback to counteract all their merits than a too-frequent wish to sit, and the character they have of not being good for the table, which any careful breeder might remedy to a great extent.

Cochins, like all fowls that lay so many eggs, are rather greedy eaters, and they are very ready to fatten internally (hence often the shelless eggs, and two eggs a day); so that in feeding them care must be taken to feed moderately, and to avoid food of too fattening a nature. The fowls and the chickens will do well if fed and treated as recommended in the chapters on feeding and chicken-rearing. The dangerous time is from the time the wing-feathers are grown until the head is covered; and then they want plenty of good nourishing food. They are nicest for the table at from five to seven or eight months old: as young chickens, they are not nearly so good, but are better fowls when nearer maturity.

COCHINS, BRAHMAS, MALAYS, AND THE FRENCH FOWLS.

White Cochins must, of course, be perfectly white in plumage, and shown very clean.

Black Cochins have almost disappeared, on account of their incorrigible habit of moulting to a mixture of colored feathers among the black. The hens remain black, but the roosters almost invariably display a mixture of red or yellow after the first moult, if not before.

Brahmas. — No one knows the original stock; no one knows whence they came originally; this is the accusation that is brought against the Brahmas, the best fowls we have ever had, as regards the number of useful properties they possess.

The Brahmas are tame, docile, of a contented disposition, and almost as easy to keep in as the Cochins; but they like a good range when they can get it, and make the most of it far more industriously. The pullets do not lay so early as Cochin pullets, but taking the year round, the Brahmas produce more eggs than Cochins do, from not wanting to sit so often. They are good sitters and mothers, lay early after hatching, and often tend their chickens for weeks after they begin to lay.

They are good table fowls, being ready in putting on flesh, compact in make, full in the breast, juicy, and good in flavor. They should be large and heavy, of a free majestic bearing, removed alike from the waddle of the Cochin, and the upright carriage of the Malay, compactly made, not long in the leg or neck, wide and full in the breast, wide and deep in make; legs are yellow and well feathered. The head is delicate in character, with a fullness over the eye which gives breadth to the top of the head, and a full clear eye. The tail is short and full.

In color, Brahmas range from an almost white plumage, with more or less black penciling on the hackle, and black in the feathers of the tail and wings, to dark-gray plumage. Perfection in a light Brahma is a white surface, with well-marked hackle, wings and tail, and such uniform pearly-gray under color, that the feathers cannot ruffle without showing it.

The Malay. Malays are great favorites with a few, but from their peculiar gaunt form they are by no means generally liked or kept. They are large heavy birds, with such hard close feathers that they are more bulky and weighty than they look. They are tall, with an upright gait; the tail is drooping and small, with beautiful, but not long, sickle feathers. The thighs are remarkably long, strong, and firm, and the tarsi round, stout and yellow. Their head is snake-like, with great fullness over the eye, giving it a flattened form on the top. The Malay has a bold eye, a red skinny face, and a strong curved hawk-beak. The comb is short, small, very thick, and close to the head, resembling half a strawberry; the wattles are very small, and the wings rather set up.

The favorite colors are different shades of rich chestnut brown, or cinnamon. There are also black-breasted reds, black, and white.

As fowls to keep, they have the great merit of doing well in any back-yard, and looking handsomer there than at a show. The hens are often pretty good winter layers. The eggs are of medium size, with tinted shells; they are good in flavor and hatch well. The Malay hen is a good sitter and a good mother, that will hold her own, and defend her brood with her good strong beak, if necessary. The chickens are hardy little things, if well bred; but they fledge late, and look gaunt and ugly when half grown.

Crevecœurs and some other French breeds fill up our list of large fowls. It is curious that the change from a more favorable to a worse climate should seem to affect the well-being of fowls detrimentally, in coming only across the Channel, as the Crèvecœurs, La Flèche, and Houdans do, and not in coming half the circumference of the globe, as in the case of Cochins, Malays, and other Asiatics: but so it is. As far as I have had an opportunity of judging, importations from the farther side of Asia arrive here and do well from the time of their arrival; but many who have had the French fowls have found the Crèvecœurs more subject to roup than even the Dorkings, and the La Flèche change from the good productive fowls, which I suppose they are in their own country, to but indifferent layers.

The Crèvecœur, when it thrives, is an excellent fowl for the table, being square, plump-made, and large, ready to fatten easily (if in thorough health and good condition), compactly formed, and short in the leg. The hens are said to be good layers; their eggs are very large, and they are not sitters. The chickens come to maturity early, and Mrs. F. Blair says

the pullets often exceed the cockerels in size. They are evidently allied to the Polish, which are nice tame fowls to keep, but delicate in our damp chilly variable climate. For exhibition, the color of cocks and hens should be unvarying black throughout, with metallic luster on the feathers, but to breed them so, requires great care as they are very apt to have a mixture of colored or white feathers. As in black Cochins and some other black fowls, it is easier to breed the pullets quite black than the cockerels. The crest is full, large, and globular, and in front of it is a comb in the form of two well defined pikes, and these horns sometimes grow large and spread into branches. The fowls are bearded, and the legs blue and short.

The **La Fleche** is also a black fowl, with metallic luster, large and plump-made. It is good for the table, but the legs are long and dark—a great objection. The eggs are very large, but the hen does not produce well, and she is a non-sitter. The head is very peculiar, being graced with a comb in the form of upstanding spikes, in front of a dark-crest, a peculiar rising over the nostrils, large white ear-lobes, red face, and long red wattles. The plumage is very close and firm; the tail large. The legs dark-blue or slate.

The **Houdan** is the last of the French fowls which have gained a certain popularity among fanciers. It is compactly made, the body round and well-formed, the legs short, thick, and blue, or slate-colored, and five-toed. It is good for the table.

HAMBURGHS.

The Hamburgh family is a large one, including two totally distinct races of fowls, the Spangled and the Pencilled—Hamburghs they are both called—but they are about as distinct as Cochins and Dorkins. Both kinds are divided into two—the Golden and the Silver, thus making four distinct classes at our shows.

The Golden-Spangled Hamburghs, or Golden Pheasant Fowls, were very generally known by the last name until recent fancy dubbed them Hamburghs.

They are good useful fowls to keep, and excellent layers, and non-sitters. The eggs are not large, but larger than those of the Pencilled Hamburghs. The fowls are pretty hardy, and easy to keep in condition, but the chickens are rather tender. They are nice plump fowls for the table, although small. In breeding them the parents should be exact in the marking and rich in color, the rooster darker than the hen: it is best for maintaining precision in marking and other points, to give the cock very few mates.

It is well to avoid stimulating food, when giving it may induce precocious laying. A young fowl, be it pullet or cockerel, should be well developed in firmness of bone, muscle, size, and furnishing, before it assumes the position of a productive adult, that it may turn out one which will do us good service for the natural term of its life.

All the Hamburghs are inherently fond of liberty; they want a good range, a trifle will not prevent their breaking bounds to obtain it for themselves, and their lightness and agility enable them to fly like sparrows.

Silver-Spangled Hamburghs are the same as the Golden, in general properties. If there is any difference between them, the Silver are the stronger; they are the best layers, and the eggs are rather the larger.

Golden and Silver Pencilled Hamburghs.—The Pencilled Hamburghs are so distinct from the Spangled in some important characteristics, that it seems wrong to include both under one general name. They are more fragile in form and constitution, and different in shape and in plumage, although all the Hamburghs agree in comb, and several other points before mentioned. The Pencilled fowls are known under the different names of Bolton Bays and Grays (the gold and silver), Chittiprats, Corals, Creoles, Dutch every-day layers, everlasting layers, and many others.

THE POLISH AND THE VARIOUS CLASS.

The Polish fowls are pretty, compactly-made fowls, rather under than over medium size; for the Polish of the present time are decidedly smaller than these fowls used to be from twenty to thirty-five years back. The eggs, too, are smaller. This degeneracy may be the result of in-and-in-breeding, which may also account for their exceeding delicacy of constitution.

Their beauty renders them great favorites; they are mild-tempered, timid birds, loving a genial sunny spot, and much disliking to be handled. They are good layers of white eggs, which are large for the size of the hens, and for the table the flesh is white and tender, but the chickens are small for that purpose. The hens are non-sitters.

All the Polish sub-varieties are decidedly fancy fowls, requiring and repaying great care on the part of the amateur.

Silver-Spangled Polish.—The crest of the cock should be white streaked with black; that of the hen white laced with black. The hackle of both cock and hen white streaked with black, and the wings accurately barred and laced. In the cock, the more the remainder of the plumage can be spangled the better, and the tail should be white, with a rich, well defined spangle at the end of each feather. In the hen, the remainder of the plumage should be accurately spangled, and the tail white, each feather spangled with black. The legs are blue, and the head free from comb or gills.

Golden-Spangled Polish.—The ground color throughout is a rich golden-brown. The hackle of both cock and hen streaked with black, the wings barred and laced, the breast spangled, and the tails black, so well bronzed with the rich ground color of the plumage as to harmonize with it. If there be a beard, a good mixture of the ground color is better than a prevalence of black. The top-knot, too, should be streaked in the cock and laced in the hen. Black feathers and white in the crest are faults, but the white feathers *will* come in both cocks and hens as they grow old.

The original Spangled Polish fowl appears to have been a bird in character like our Polish, the ground color of the plumage of a rich golden-brown, with spangles of white and black united in each spot, and white legs. These and two other beautiful varieties are entirely or almost lost to us.

BANTAMS.

The distinguishing characteristics of the Sebright bantam, besides their exactly-laced plumage, are diminutive beauty,

and jaunty, impudent carriage. Roosters of a year old should not exceed 21 oz. in weight, nor hens 18 oz.; and some advocate much smaller size still. Smallness of size is an important point in all Bantams, so that the smaller they are the better. To gain this point they are generally bred late in the season, sometimes very late, but seldom earlier than July. Many have been so dwarfed as to interfere with their reproductive qualities, and the breeders have had recourse to larger specimens as home stock-birds, reserving the very small ones for exhibition and for show. To breed productive stock-birds the in-breeding, which favors small size, must be avoided.

The proud gait of the Sebright is like that of the fantail pigeon; the head and tail are held erect until they almost touch each other; the wing is not closely packed away, but is allowed to droop with jaunty gallantry; the body is plump, and the breast protuberant.

The head should be small and delicate, with a well-formed, firmly-set-rose-comb, close to the head, exactly in the center, with a well-defined pike, a little turned up at the end. The legs should be blue.

The rooster must have no hackle on neck or saddle, and no sickle feathers in the tail.

The chicken should be bred from mature birds. They must be kept from damp, but in a dry spot they are tolerably hardy. Their diminutive size and compact beauty render them the prettiest among chickens. There is scarcely a prettier sight than a Sebright mother and her little brood. The little ones fledge quickly, and require constant good feeding during the process.

The Booted Bantam is probably the earliest type of the Bantam race; it is, at any rate, the one which has been the longest known among us, having been introduced as long back as the beginning of the seventeenth century. It is a small, compactly-made, jaunty little bird, with abundant furnishing in hackle, flowing tail, and heavily-booted legs. The plumage is generally perfectly white, but there are also some of other colors. In the early part of the present century, Booted Bantams were more thought of than any others; afterwards they were almost lost sight of; but within the last very few years they have appeared again, and often win prizes in a Bantam class for other varieties.

White and Black Bantams are beautifully diminutive, bold and saucy in gait, plentifully furnished in hackle and tail, and spotlessly white in plumage, or perfectly black, as the case may be. The white and the black have each a distinct class at the shows, where they are always well represented. The white bantam rooster must have a fully sickled tail of snowy whiteness, brilliantly red rose-comb and wattles, and white beak and legs,—the last perfectly free from feathers. The hen must agree. Many may be seen weighing, the rooster not more than 15 ounces, and the hen 12 ounces, and smaller weights are mentioned. The black Bantams are compact in form and bold in carriage. They are hardier than the whites, very prolific, and often very small. The plumage should be unmixed black with metallic luster. Other points are a rose-comb, small but rather wide wattles, and rather short blue or black legs. In both the white and the black the ear-lobes should be white, but in the black especially; they must be pure in the white, and free from any tinge of red.

Game Bantams must be exact Game fowls in miniature.

TURKEYS AND WATER-FOWL.

TURKEYS.

When America was discovered, turkeys were found in a domesticated as well as in a wild state, and the French name Dinde (D'Inde) seems to indicate that they came from the West Indies, the East Indies possessing no such bird.

Turkeys do not attain full growth and maturity until the moult after they are two years old. The stock-birds should therefore be not less than three years old, for poults bred from young birds are sure to be tender. To obtain fine turkey poults, let the hen sit on the first eggs she lays in the season, as soon as she will, that the brood may have all the best of the year in which to make their growth. Some turkey roosters are very spiteful to their hens, and to the young ones, so that it is necessary to put the nest in a place of safety. The presence of the rooster is not necessary after the early part of the season, as the entire clutch of eggs is said on good authority to be fertilized at once.

The turkey cock should be vigorous and healthy, broad in the chest, clean in the legs, and with well developed wings and tail. His eyes should be bright, and the corunculated skin of the neck full, and rapid in its changes of color. He is in his prime from three years old to seven or more. The year he is appointed as master at home, or the year after, a fine cock poult should be selected and reared to take his place when necessary. From the peculiar property in turkeys of the whole batch of eggs being fertilized at once, one turkey cock would well serve a whole neighborhood; but that he should be a first-class mature bird is all-important.

The hen should, of course, match her lord; she should be plump, lively, and animated, and her plumage should be correct. If she be black, white feathers are a fault. Her eggs will produce the hardiest poults *after* she is three years old.

A number of companions may be allowed one cock in the course of a year, but never let him have more than two mates at the same time.

The hen foretells laying by a peculiar note and strut, and by hunting about for a sly corner to lay in. In the domesticated, as in the wild state, the cock is apt to destroy the eggs, and the hen is commensurately anxious to hide them from danger. She should be watched and humored to the nest prepared for her.

If the turkey hen is well settled to the nest before the eggs are given to her, the poults may be looked for on the twenty-sixth day; but four weeks is the time of incubation usually reckoned on for turkeys' eggs, and some persons say thirty-one days. Whether the sitter is interfered with or not, when she hatches must depend on her disposition.

The hen turkey will sometimes lay and hatch a second time in the season, but late broods require great care.

Even in a wild state the turkey poults are delicate, and unable to endure wet: the young of the domesticated race are

yet more so, and must be kept from wet and cold. The little poults will peck for themselves as soon as nature prompts the necessity: until then leave them with what appears to be their only requirement—their mother's warmth.

At first the little ones may be fed on hard-boiled eggs, chopped fine and mixed with bread-crumbs and herbs finely minced, or on curd and bread-crumbs. The herbs to use with their food are chives, young onion tops, fennel, lettuce, nettles, and parsley. The water should be given in shallow pans, that they may not get the down wet. As they get older they will feed on food made of barleymeal and oatmeal, and on grain. Meal boiled in milk until quite thick is good food.

The little turkey poults want a tolerably free range, and they must be so constantly well fed from the first, as never to lose condition; for if they once get poor they can never be restored.

The most important thing of all is never to let the little turkeys get wet, or even damp. Keep them in in the morning until the dew is off the grass, put them up before the damp of evening, and never let them be out in the rain. Cottagers in the country, who think it worth while to keep in the brood in wet weather, and to drive them in when rain threatens, rear them successfully, as it is generally after a wetting that the little poults go bad.

When the turkeys are finished up with cramming, it may be done by giving about six rolls of barleymeal and sugar before roosting-time every night for a week or ten days. In France, the usual food is meal paste mixed with chopped suet and milk, or with ale and molasses. Whole pepper, garlic, aniseed, and tonic herbs are also given. Whole walnuts given daily, from 4 to 40, are said to fatten well. If turkey chicks look heavy and ruffled, a little crushed malt, or carroway or coriander seed, will do good. Let them be fed very constantly, and never be in want for an hour. If they do not run at large; they must have a little meat, turves of grass, and gravel. Most hens require cooping to prevent their running the chicks too far. The old turkeys are very fond of Indian corn.

GEESE.

Common Goose.—It is almost superfluous to say that the usual mode of keeping geese is to drive them out to pasture in the morning, and to house them at night. If there be any right of common to which the flock can be turned out, they will almost get their own living, as grass is their main food. Turning their heads sideways, they nip it off quite close, and consume a good quantity. Whether it is worth while to keep geese on land that would feed larger stock, is a question for economists; but they are worth keeping where they can partly live on grass which cannot be turned to better account.

It is well to have a house for the geese and one for the young stock, but any shed will do, and it need not be too closely shut in. Care should be taken that the roof does not let in rain, and that the shelter which the house affords excludes bitter windy draughts upon the geese at night. The floors should be dry, and if litter is used, it must be renewed as often as cleanliness requires. If the geese can have a pond at command within the day's range, so much the better; but they will do without it.

Geese are essentially vegetable feeders; they will eat any kind of corn, pulse, or greens, such as cabbage, lettuce, mangold, lucern, tares, and now and then sliced carrots and turnips.

The old geese require a little corn twice a day; a mere sprinkle in the morning, if they have the opportunity of doing much for themselves, and a good feed at night. In mild seasons the goose will lay early: she should have a good, large nest, in a secure, quiet corner, and she will cover about fifteen eggs: the time of incubation is thirty days. Give her plenty of food and water, to which to help herself, when she leaves the nest. She is a patient, good sitter, and a good mother.

In choosing stock-birds, select those which are long in the body and small in bone. The pouch sagging down loose behind is generally a mark of age. Allow three geese to a gander; let all be of mature age, and they will all do well up to twenty years old, if not longer.

DUCKS.

Ducks are very hardy, and easy to feed, as regards quality of food; for they will eat almost anything with appetite and relish.

The humble accommodation of a mere shed offers quite good housing enough. The roof should be water-tight, and the ground of the shed pretty dry, to render it a good place for the sitters; as, if the nest be very damp, the eggs are apt to break, however quiet the sitter may be.

Four ducks to a drake are better than a larger number. The stock-birds should be long in the frame, fleshy (not fat), and small in bone.

A good-sized duck will cover fourteen eggs well: according to the size of the duck the number allotted her may be from eleven to fifteen. Give her oats and water near her nest, that she may come off and feed when she likes; and a run down to the pond and dip therein will do no harm to her eggs, but rather the contrary, by imparting from the sitter's moist feathers the warm damp which is favorable to incubation. Hens may be set on ducks' eggs, when it is considered that the extra care which can be bestowed on them may realize greater size for exhibition purposes; but ducklings so reared had better not be kept as stock-birds.

For the first few weeks it is better to let the ducklings have no pan of water in which they can immerse themselves, so as to wet the down underneath them.

The bill of fare for young ducks may include cold boiled oatmeal porridge, cooked vegetables, mixed up with barley-meal or sharps, crushed oats thrown into water, and a little milk when convenient; but in giving milk to young things, scouring must always be guarded against.

Ducks, old and young, should have a little litter for a bed—straw, dry fern, pea-haum, rushes, or anything which is dry will do. The eggs do not keep so well as hens' eggs, so they should be set as fresh as possible.

Aylesbury Ducks must be very large, perfectly white in plumage, with yellow legs and feet, and flesh-colored bills. Dark spots or streaks on the bills have lost many fine pens

their prizes. Such blemishes may arise from the ducks frequenting peaty land; to get fair unsullied bills is a great trouble to exhibitors. A good pen of three drakes and two ducks will weigh 23 lbs. or 24 lbs., and 26 1-4 lbs. have been reached.

Rouen Ducks, in plumage, resemble the wild duck, but they are of splendid size.

The **Buenos Ayres**, or East Indian ducks, like Bantams among fowls, are the dwarfs among ducks, and are bred as small as possible, and shown young, to make the most of this important point—diminutive size. They must be very small, and quite black, with brilliant green metallic luster on the plumage. They have dark legs and bills. They often incline to mate in pairs, so that if only one drake is kept to two or more ducks, many eggs will prove infertile; the eggs are colored, and, of course, small.

The **Musk, Muscovy, or Brazilian Duck** is very distinct. They vary in color, the usual color being a dull black, with white on the under surface, and some other portions of their bodies. A curious red warty cere near the bill characterizes them; and the great difference of size between the drake and the duck is peculiar.

A large black duck, with brilliant luster on the plumage, called the *Cayuga Black duck*, is mentioned. It is a native of America and is said to have been domesticated from some wild stock.

Call Ducks.—The beautiful little Call or Decoy ducks are ornamental and very small.

These are the kinds most frequently seen. There are occasionally sent to the shows the *Hook-billed*, the *Penguin*, and the *Top-knotted ducks*.

DISEASES.

There is little *economy* in an attempt to doctor sick fowls; as a labor of love and a matter of humanity, the case may be different, and we often like to cure or lessen the sufferings of a favorite.

Warmth, shelter, and safety from the molestation of other fowls is often a main remedial measure. A bask by a kitchen fire, for a few days, a retreat where tyrants cannot hunt or peck the sufferer, and simple or nourishing food, according to whether the patient is suffering from weakness or repletion, is frequently by itself a curative treatment.

If little chickens pine and droop the wings, a pill of Barbadoes aloes, the size of a pea, or a pellet of rue and butter, may do good if the ailment be taken in good time. Insects must always be duly looked after, dislodged with a dusting of flour of sulphur, and guarded against by cleanliness, and a good provision of dust-bath. Most poultry diseases may be traced to the effect of our chilly, damp, and variable climate, so that a warm sheltered locality, and good shelter for young chickens, are all important.

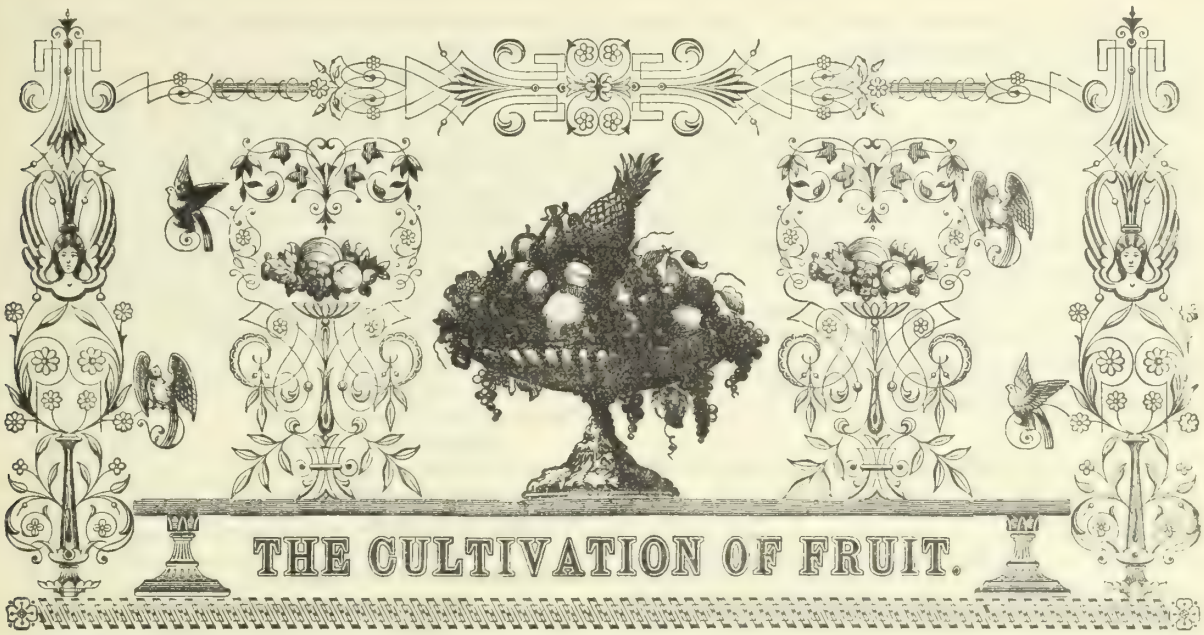
Douglass' mixture is excellent for giving strength and stamina to old fowls, or young. Dissolve together with a little water 1-2 lb. of sulphate of iron, and 1 oz. of diluted sulphuric acid, add spring water enough to make up two gallons, let it stand for a fortnight, mix a teaspoonful of the mixture with a pint of water, and give it to fowls or chickens to drink instead of water.

Decoction of citrate of iron mixed with water in the proportion to give it a very perceptible taste of iron, is also good as a strengthener.

If inflammation in the egg passage be denoted by the production of soft or misshapen eggs, give one grain of calomel, with 1-12th of a grain of tartar emetic. It should be repeated three times in a week at intervals.

If mature fowls appear feverish and drooping, and seem to require a dose of medicine, give one of Plummer's pill, a bit of Barbadoes aloes the size of a large pea, or five grains of jalap in a bolus of barley meal, according to the strength of the dose required. If, however, they are judiciously fed and properly cared for, medical treatment will rarely be required.


TRANSPLANTING.
PRUNING.
POMONA.
THE VINE.



THE CULTIVATION OF FRUIT.

HAVING decided upon the cultivation of fruit and establishing an orchard, it becomes necessary to fix upon its dimensions and extent. In consideration of this question of extent, two other important matters are to be taken into account—these are, the quantity of ground you may have suitable and to spare, and the amount of means you can set apart for the purpose. In settling these points you should possess, first, a knowledge of the kind of ground necessary; and second, a determination to do the work well, at whatever cost.

For an ordinary family of five to ten persons, not less than three acres will suffice for home consumption use, and as many more as can be made profitable for market use. On these three acres can be stocked from two to three hundred standard trees of the different sorts of fruit, besides a due proportion of all the smaller kinds—an amount which, if properly managed, will in a few years afford an ample supply for family use.

COST.

The cost of first planting will vary widely in different localities—depending on the condition of the ground, the quality of the soil, prices of trees, price of labor, etc. An approximate calculation may be made, however, by estimating the cost of preparing the ground and planting the trees, at an amount equal to the cost of the trees in the nursery; and, when ditching and underdraining is necessary, at double that amount. The following rule laid down by Thomas Gregg in his admirable work on fruit culture should be inflexibly observed in all cases: *Never slight the work, nor plant an inferior tree, because it is cheaper to do so!* Work half done is very poor economy in planting an orchard, as well as in most other things; and a tree costing only half price in the nursery may turn out to be a very dear one in the end. The very best varieties (and these are not always the most costly), as well as the very best trees, are those from which you must expect to realize the most profit.

ESTIMATE FOR THREE ACRES.

The following estimate will answer for an orchard of three acres of ground, with such variations as circumstances may require. [The number of trees will vary somewhat as the shape of the ground is

varied; the calculation is based on a plat twenty-four rods long by twenty wide.]

Eighty apple trees, thirty-three feet apart, covering two acres.

Seventy peach-trees, sixteen and a half feet apart, set around three sides of the whole.

There will then be left in front one acre, which may be divided into two equal plats of 132 by 166 feet. These may be filled as follows:

In No. 1.—Twenty standard pears, thirty-three feet apart, in continuation of the apple rows.

Thirty-two dwarf pears, in the same rows, seven feet apart and thirteen feet from the standards. And—

Twenty-seven pyramid and dwarf plums, quinces, cherries, etc., in the alternate rows, sixteen and a half feet apart.

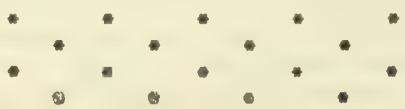
In No. 2.—Such number of almonds, apricots, grapes, nectarines, gooseberries, currants, raspberries, blackberries, and strawberries, as fancy may dictate, and as will stock it properly.

The above estimate will constitute an orchard of about 250 orchard trees—standard and dwarf—and perhaps as many more of the garden or bush fruits.

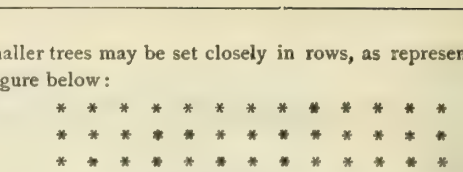
DISTANCES.

Every planter has his own opinion regarding the distance which trees should be planted from each other. Besides, some kinds of soils and localities require greater distance than others; and some varieties will bear to stand closer than other varieties of the same fruit. A good rule is that, when full grown, the tops should not be nearer to each other than one third their diameter. An apple-tree, for example, when fully grown, will spread, on an average, to a distance of twenty-five feet; the rule will give thirty-three feet as the proper distance apart. Peaches seldom spread, or should not, if properly pruned, more than twelve to fifteen feet; the rule gives sixteen to twenty feet as the distance to plant. In planting an orchard of apples, with plenty of ground, thirty-three feet is probably the safest distance; yet, if ground is an object, they will do at twenty-five feet. Apples may be planted a little wider—say forty feet—and rows of peach-trees planted both ways between: as the peach, not being so long-lived, will die out before the apple has attained to a large growth.

When the saving of ground is an important consideration, and none but standard trees are to be planted, more space may be obtained by planting in rows, according to the following diagram:



Smaller trees may be set closely in rows, as represented in the figure below:



This last method is recommended for village plats, where it is desirable to combine the raising of vegetables with that of fruit; as the spaces between the rows may be appropriated to any kind of root crop, with decided advantage to the trees.

The following table of distances for the various kinds of fruit, condensed from Thomas's *Fruit Culturist*, seems to have been acquiesced in by most fruit-growers:

Apples.—For large trees	25 to 40 feet.
For pyramids and dwarfs	6 to 8 "
Pears.—Large trees on pear stocks	20 "
Pyramids on " "	8 to 10 "
Pyramids on quince "	6 "
Dwarf standards on quince	8 "
Peaches.—Full growth	20 "
Shortened in	12 to 15 "
Cherries.—Common standards	20 "
Pyramids on common stocks	10 "
(Dukes and Morellos require less).	
Plums.—Standards	15 "
Pyramids	6 to 8 "
Apricots	15 to 20 "
Quinces	6 to 8 "
Grapes.—On 8-feet trellis	25 "
On 12 " "	16 "
Trimmed to stakes	4 to 6 "
Gooseberries and Currants	4 to 5 "
Raspberries and Blackberries	4 "

For the above distances, the following is the number of trees required for an acre:

40 feet apart	27 trees.	12 feet apart	302 trees.		
33 " "	40 "	10 " "	435 "		
25 " "	69 "	8 " "	680 "		
20 " "	108 "	6 " "	1,208 "		
15 " "	193 "	4 " "	2,720 "		

LOCATION

Much has been said and written concerning the location of orchards. Situation and aspect doubtless have their effects, yet no one should neglect to plant merely because he cannot give his trees such an aspect as he may desire. Trees in favorable situations will undoubtedly produce more good crops than those less fortunately situated; yet many seasons occur when the causes of the difference do not arise, and trees in any exposure will produce abundantly. To this general rule there can be very few exceptions, namely—*Elevated situations are better than lowlands, and the brows and sides of hills are to be chosen in preference to the valleys.* Numerous proofs have been adduced to show that the peach might be successfully grown much farther north than it usually is, if the most elevated positions were chosen instead of the warm valleys. So, farther south, frequent severe frosts cut off the crops on the low grounds,

while those on the more elevated and exposed situations are not affected.

The old rule was to choose a southern or south-eastern exposure. A northern exposure is now very generally preferred. This is because the action of the warm sun, in a southern exposure, will too soon thaw away the frost about the roots, and occasion the buds to swell—leaving them exposed to alternations of frost and thaw. In the West, the rolling prairies near the woodland, the hazel ruffs that skirt the prairie and wood, and the richest portions of the timbered bluffs or highlands that overlook the rivers, are regarded as the best locations. The best bearing orchards are those on the bluff overlooking the Mississippi at the Lower Rapids.

SOIL.

Fruit trees, like corn and cabbages, will grow on almost any kind of soil; yet some soils are more suited to their natures than others. They require a soil strong enough to give the tree a vigorous growth, and the better and more vigorous the growth of the tree, the better will be the character of the fruit. As a general thing, any soil that will produce a good crop of corn will be good for fruit-trees. A strictly alluvial soil, however, is not to be recommended; as, while it will produce a rank growth of wood, it will not make so hardy or fruitful a tree; nor will the quality of the fruit be equal to that grown on a less fertile soil. A calcareous soil is the best adapted to most kinds of fruit; yet in other than limestone regions a gravelly or sandy loam will be found to answer a good purpose. Stiff, clayey soils are not promotive of a good growth; yet they can be rendered available by a proper incorporation of sand, manure, and vegetable mold. Most soils—even those in the limestone region—require an addition of more or less lime and potash, as these ingredients enter largely into the composition of most fruits.

PREPARATION OF THE GROUND.

Not one in a hundred of those who plant trees bestows the necessary care and attention to the preparation of the ground. A very common mode is to dig a hole about a foot wide and five or six inches deep, stick in the tree, bending the roots or cutting them off to bring them within the proper compass—shovel in a few spadefuls of dirt or sod, tread it down with the foot, and the job is done! If the tree grows, well; if not, the planter has only been *unlucky*, and all the neighbors conclude not to plant, *it is so hard to make trees grow!* Is it any wonder that three out of every four trees taken from the nursery die without having reached the stage of fruit-bearing?

In the first place, the soil must be dry before planting. If not so naturally, it must be made so by deep plowing, and, if this will not suffice, then by underdraining. A clay subsoil should be underdrained to the depth of three feet; but any soil not very retentive of water may be sufficiently drained by the use of a subsoil plow and a strong team. With good underdraining and a proper admixture of manure, ashes, sand, and loam, the toughest clay soils may be reduced to a proper condition for fruit trees. All soils that are sufficiently porous to drain well should be first prepared with the plow, harrow, and sub-soiler; and then the holes for the trees should be made only of proper size and depth to admit the roots in their natural position, and at two or three inches greater depth than they stood in the nursery. Deep holes in a hard and tenacious subsoil will injure the trees by retaining too much water. Such soils should be avoided for a fruit orchard; or if used, should first be properly underdrained. Many young trees die from the effects of standing in deep holes, prepared for them at great expense.

Previous to planting, the soil should be enriched with well-rotted barn-yard manure, thoroughly intermixed and pulverized by the harrow. If planting is to be done in the spring, the plowing should have been gone through with the fall previous, and then thoroughly stirred again just before planting. When the whole field is thoroughly prepared by the plow, it can be cultivated to some useful crop, and the trees will be more likely to receive the necessary tillage than they would if standing in the field alone.

MANURING.

It is a quite common experience that the quality of fruit in orchards will, after a few years, gradually decline, yielding only small and imperfect specimens. Some varieties will show this decline much sooner than others. Negligence in regard to manuring is generally the cause of this deterioration. The application of barn-yard manure will cure the evil, though, with some fruits, other ingredients are very valuable. Ashes is a good fertilizer for most fruits, and is worth more to the fruit-grower, as such, than for any other purpose. In the peach orchard there is little danger of getting too much. A free use of lime on some soils is very beneficial, and in many cases salt may be used to advantage. This latter has been strongly recommended as a preventive to blight in the pear.

TRANSPLANTING.

LAYING OFF THE GROUND.

The best way to lay off the ground, after it has been fully prepared and the distances decided upon, is to measure along the sides and ends, setting a stake at the proper distances, and then driving small stakes, say one foot high, at all the points where the lines thus indicated intersect each other. After the ground is staked, commence digging the holes—and this should be completed before the trees are removed from the nursery.

SEASON FOR TRANSPLANTING.

The proper season for transplanting a tree is any time between the falling of the leaf in autumn and the swelling of the buds in spring; and, in the case of a hardy tree, as the apple, it probably makes but little difference whether it be done before the winter or after it. With other trees it is different; the less hardy ones, with diminished strength, cannot so easily withstand the severe frosts and piercing nor'westers of that season. Hence they should be transplanted only in the spring. Apples may be removed either in November or April, provided it be done well, with probably about equal success.

SETTING OUT TREES.

It requires three men, or two men and a boy, to set out trees as it should be done. Before inserting the roots into the hole

prepared to receive them, they should first be dipped into mud made of the rich surface mold, to cause the earth to adhere to all their parts. This done, place the tree in its proper position in the hole, shovel in a small quantity of the finely pulverized mold, and then give it a gentle shaking suddenly up and down, in order to settle the dirt closely about the roots—one person to hold the tree to its proper position, while another shovels in the earth. When a sufficient quantity of the earth has been placed upon the roots to bring it level with the surface of the ground, tread it down gently with the foot, and then add more, rounding it to a slight mound, with the stem of the tree for a center. The tree should be placed in the hole so as to allow it to stand about as deep, when the earth becomes settled around it, as it stood in the nursery.

It is recommended by some to plant the tree in the orchard in the same relative position to the points of the compass that it occupied in the nursery. This may or may not be beneficial; at any rate, it can do no harm, and it is quite an easy matter to mark the tree before it is lifted, so as to indicate its position.

If the planting be done in autumn, there should be a mound of earth ten inches to a foot high, and three feet in diameter, raised around the tree to steady it, and protect its roots from frost and the bark from mice. When the ground becomes well settled in the spring, the mound should be removed.

TRIMMING.

Before setting out, each tree should undergo a proper degree of trimming. This requires considerable judgment. As the branches and roots of a tree depend upon each other for support, it will readily be understood that neither should be overtasked. In removing it from the nursery, all the small fibrous roots, and sometimes many of the larger, are lost; hence the top must be trimmed to correspond. To do this properly, all the leading shoots should be shortened back one-half or two-thirds of the current year's growth; and, if the roots have been much injured, the leading branches should be headed back still more.

TAKING FROM THE NURSERY.

Trees should be injured as little as possible in removing them from the nursery. Taking them from the row, and tying in such a manner as to be easily transported, is properly the nurseryman's business; yet it is always best to keep a watchful eye to the work. Especial care should be taken that the roots are not broken or bruised, or cut away by the spade in taking them from the ground; and when any of the roots do become injured, they should be nicely cut off with a sharp knife. As soon as dug, the trees should be carefully arranged in convenient bunches, as much damp earth as possible placed about their roots, and then closely enveloped in some coarse sacking, or other suitable thing, and firmly tied with strong cord. If they are to be re-set at but a short distance from the nursery, these precautions are unnecessary, though, if they are to be carried any considerable distance, too much care cannot be used in this respect. In all cases the roots should be carefully secured against exposure to the air and sun.

If from any cause the trees are not to be immediately planted, they should be placed in the ground, root and stock, by digging a trench and shoveling loose dirt upon them, to a depth sufficient to exclude the air. The weather will not always permit of immediate re-planting, but it should in no case be delayed longer than is absolutely necessary. This covering should be done in the orchard or garden, and the trees should be removed from the trench one by one as they are planted.

SELECTION OF TREES.

There is a great diversity of opinion in regard to the proper size of a tree for transplanting, though the best informed and most experienced planters now prefer a two-year-old tree rather than one of a larger size. In thrifty, well-tilled nurseries, trees of that age will average about five feet high; and such a tree can be more easily handled, and is also in a better condition to sustain the violence done to its nature by transplanting, and better able to recover from it, than those of an older and larger growth. Care should also be taken to select trees of well-branched and well-formed heads, and of as near the same size, vigor, and general condition as possible.

AFTER-CULTURE.

PLOWING AND HOEING.

One of the most common errors among the people in regard to fruit-growing is that pertaining to after-culture. Many suppose that all that is necessary to get good fruit is to set the tree in the ground, right end downward, to be sure, and nature will do the rest. This is a most fatal error—nothing can be more unreasonable. It is as absolutely necessary that the tree which you have planted should receive culture and care afterward, as that the corn which rustles in the breeze should be plowed and hoed, and harrowed, to make it yield its golden harvest. Trees, as well as vegetables, must have food and drink. It is by culture that they obtain them.

Hence, in the orchard, the growing of some crop is very desirable. Roots are perhaps the best of all. Potatoes, beets, beans, carrots, parsnips, onions—all require thorough culture, and do not shade the trees; while Indian corn, clover, grass, and all the cereal grains, should be rigidly excluded.

PRUNING.

In the matter of pruning we find there is a great diversity of opinion among experienced fruit-growers. Some advise a free use of the knife; others prune but little, or none at all. The first are doubtless right, as regards some sorts of trees; while, in regard to other varieties, the second class are correct. And the point must be settled between them by considering the objects sought to be attained by pruning.

To our mind there are four objects to be had in view in pruning a fruit-tree. These are:—

1. To relieve it of its dead and decaying branches.
2. To promote the growth of the tree.
3. To encourage the production, and increase the size and quality of the fruit.
4. To change its shape.

Now, the above being ALL the objects for which a tree ought to be pruned (except as heretofore stated, under the head of "Trimming," to preserve an equilibrium between roots and

branches in transplanting), it is evident that, while a permanent vigor and productiveness are maintained without it, the less pruning the better. Many planters insist that a tree should never be pruned except for the first of these objects; because, as they allege, if a tree be faithfully kept free from all dead and decaying wood, its growth and productiveness will both be promoted. This is doubtless true to some extent with some sorts of fruit, and, unless some peculiar form is desired, it is better to do but little other pruning. Yet withal it is sometimes necessary to prune more freely. Some varieties of the apple, for instance, will grow, if left alone, to too thick a head, and require thinning out; others grow so straggling that it is frequently necessary to cut away drooping, or crooked and deformed branches, to give the tree some symmetry of appearance. After the first object is attained, the apple, the pear, and the cherry, as standards, require little more, except in the cases last alluded to. Other trees require much more, which will be treated of in the proper place.

PROTECTION.

All orchards and fruit gardens, whether of old or young trees, should be carefully protected against the depredations of cattle or other animals. Good fences to secure them are indispensable, as it is utter folly to expend time and money in planting and rearing a fine orchard, and then allow animals to disfigure, maim, and destroy the trees. Cattle, horses, or sheep should never be allowed to run in orchards; nor should swine be admitted except at intervals of very short periods, in order that they may have time only to eat up the fallen fruit, and not to bark the trees or root up the ground.

In some sections birds are great depredators upon fruit, but as a general thing they do more good in devouring the insects than harm in consuming the fruit. If they become too numerous, they can be frightened away with guns.

MULCHING.

This is simply the process of distributing some proper material around the root of each tree to retain the moisture. When not thus protected, the ground will frequently bake and greatly retard the growth of the tree. Any coarse litter, straw, or forest leaves will be suitable for mulching. It should be used plentifully—spread on to a depth of at least six inches. When properly mulched, trees will retain moisture about their roots, and make a vigorous growth, through the dry and sultry summer months, while others not protected in this way cease to grow altogether, and in many cases wither and die.

The Vine.

AS vine culture is so rapidly developing into a source of national wealth, the following instructions will be found of considerable value.

PROPAGATION.

The grape is easily grown from cuttings—some sorts, however, much more readily than others. Those that are not so easily produced in this way are usually grown in the hot-house or hot-beds, bottom heat being required for the production of roots. This method we shall leave to those who are prepared for it.

For out-door growth the cuttings should be made late in the fall, or during the winter, or in the early spring. They should be cut from well-ripened wood of the new growth, and should be made about a foot in length, including two eyes, one near each end; if the wood is short-jointed, more eyes may be used, but in no case should a cutting be used with less than two. When cut, they should be tied in bunches of fifty, with the butts all one way, and should be protected from the weather until time for planting. The safest plan to do this is to bury in the ground in a well-drained soil, below the reach of frost. Or they may be packed in very slightly moistened sawdust or sand, in boxes, in a dry cellar.

In the spring, when the weather becomes sufficiently settled, they may be taken up and planted in good garden soil, previously well-prepared. In planting, make a trench with the plow, or spade, ten inches deep; place the cuttings in the trench at a slight angle, and from eight to twelve inches apart, close against the side and with the top-bud just even with the surface. Then fill in a few inches of earth at the bottom, and press tightly with the foot, continuing the process with less pressure to the top. Level and smooth, and the work is done.

In a favorable season and with free-growing sorts, nineteen-twentieths of them will grow, and with proper tillage will become good plants. The only cultivation necessary will be to keep the weeds down with the hoe, and the ground mellow and moist. If not intended for sale, or transplanting the next season, they may remain another year. Otherwise they should be taken up in the fall, and stored in cellar during winter, packed in earth or sand.

In transplanting, the tops should be cut back to two buds, and the roots shortened in to fifteen or twenty inches.

PREPARATION OF THE SOIL.

Much has been said and written about preparation of the soil for grapes that is calculated to mislead the planter. Some have urged the entire trenching of the ground to a depth of three to five feet, with heavy manuring; others require the digging of deep holes, four by four feet, and filling in with manure and other enriching material; while a third and more reasonable class would only subsoil and drain, in addition to good depth of culture. In all soils suited to the growth of a good crop of corn or potatoes, grapes will flourish, and the plow, harrow, and sub-soiler are the tools necessary for its preparation.

If new ground is used, the stumps and roots should be carefully grubbed out, as they will be much in the way while plant

ing and in after-cultivation, and can be easier taken out before than after planting.

The timbered lands of our bluffs are more suited to grapes than the richer and heavier soils of the Western prairies, or the alluvial soils of the river bottoms. Thin soils, with proper cultivation, will produce grapes of a richer and better quality than others, though the size may not be so great, or the growth of wood so abundant.

TRANSPLANTING

may be safely done in spring or fall, according to latitude. In northern locations spring planting is preferable. Southward, fall is preferred. No certain line of division can be fixed; but we should say that, as a rule, all south of the latitude of Philadelphia, Columbus in Ohio, and Quincy in Illinois, may most safely plant in the fall, while north of those points it is better to plant in the spring.

In fall planting there is this advantage—the young plants can be taken directly from the nursery bed and planted, without remaining out of ground for any great length of time. Whereas, if planting be delayed till spring, the vines must be taken care of for the winter—as heretofore noted—with more or less loss. In any case it is important that the roots shall not be exposed to the weather, or allowed to become dry. In removing from the nursery row, they should be securely packed in damp moss, straw, hay, or litter of some sort, until they are finally disposed of by planting or packing for the winter.

After frost, and the leaves have begun to fall, the fall planting may commence. In spring it should be done as early as the weather becomes settled and the soil in good condition. The last of October, and through November, will do for fall planting; in spring, the 1st of May.

Fall planting is preferable on this account also—that the soil will become packed to the roots during winter, the new growth of roots will be ready to start, and the plant will commence growing by the usual time of spring planting.

To prevent heaving by the action of the frost, and throwing out the plants—a very serious matter if not prevented—a furrow should be turned on the plants from each side after planting in fall; or they should be mounded up with the hoe. This should be leveled down again in the spring.

Having prepared the ground well, as before stated, with plow, sub-soiler, and harrow, run off the distances for the rows with a plow, making a clean furrow nine or ten inches deep—being careful, if crooked, to straighten with a hoe or spade. Then set stakes the proper distances along the furrow, and plant at the stakes. Stand the plant at a slight angle against the perpendicular side of the furrow, and spread the roots nicely each way. Cover and pack the soil well around the roots

DISTANCE.

Most vineyardists choose to plant in rows about eight feet apart, and eight feet in the row. Some adopt six feet, or even less—according to the variety, and the mode of training. Some of the strong-growing sorts require greater distances. Concord, Isabella, Hartford Prolific, Ives seedling, Clinton, and such, need eight feet or more; while the little Delaware may do with four or five, and the Catawba, Iona, and similar ones, with five or six. Where ground is plenty, it is best to allow plenty of room.

NUMBER PER ACRE.

An acre of ground contains 43,560 square feet, or 4,840 square yards. It will require for planting the numbers specified in the following estimate, viz.:

At distance of 10 by 10 feet.....	435 plants.
At distance of 9 by 9 feet.....	537 plants.
At distance of 8 by 8 feet.....	680 plants.
At distance of 6 by 6 feet.....	1,210 plants.

For Concords 10 by 10—certainly not less than 9 by 9—is desirable, giving plenty of room for the plow and cultivator, and also sufficient distance to train on the trellis.

Where the ground is level, or nearly so, the rows should be run north and south, thereby giving more sunshine and freer circulation of air. If it be hilly—and it is presumed that grapes will be more frequently planted on hilly and uneven ground than elsewhere—the rows should be run across the slope, so as to make the cultivation as near on a level as possible, in order that the ground shall not wash.

SELECTION OF PLANTS.

In purchasing from a nursery, No. 1 yearling plants are generally preferred. Two-year-old plants cost more in price and for transportation, and are not so likely to live, and will gain little, if any, in point of time. Good No. 1 plants, from honest nursery men, should have four to eight roots not less than two feet long, and a corresponding growth of top. Before transplanting, all roots should be cut back to eighteen or twenty inches, and the top shortened to two eyes, and these should be set nearly level with the ground.

CULTIVATION.

The young plant should be allowed to take its own course the first year after transplanting. No pinching, no tying-up, is necessary. But the ground should be kept well tilled and clear of weeds, by the free use of the cultivator and hoe. A row of early cabbages, beans, beets, or other root crop, may be beneficially grown between. In a favorable season, the strong-growing sorts will usually make a growth of five or six feet in length, and, in some cases, as much as ten or fifteen feet, the first year.

TRAINING AND AFTER-CULTURE.

We have now got our plants with two-year-old roots and stems one year old. The after-management is various. It is best, however, that this one-year vine should not be permitted to bear fruit the next season: which it would do if left to itself. It should now be cut back to two eyes, and protected during winter by a slight covering of straw, or some other light litter.

And here comes up the question of winter protection. What shall be done with our vines, now that we have got them planted and growing? Shall they be protected, or shall they be left exposed to the rigors of the winter, and run the risk of life or death? Some will say—Let them alone; plant only such varieties as will not need winter protection. Others, claiming that whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well, advise protection. It is very desirable, certainly, that we shall be able to secure such varieties as will withstand the

rigors of our winters without this labor and care; and there are such; but it must be confessed that they—as in the case of many other fruits—are not of the best sorts. It is also equally evident that, as a rule, the great mass of grape-growers—the million—*will not*, however much they may be urged, be induced to adopt any system of winter protection that involves care and trouble.

The Concords, the Clintons, the Ives, the Nortons, and others, may get along safely through most winters without protection. But if we expect to obtain the luscious Delaware, the Rebecca, the Maxitawny, or even the Catawba, we must make up our minds to protect.

The mode of protection usually practiced is to lay the vine down upon the ground, and cover with earth to the depth of an inch or two. This requires that the annual trimming shall be done in the fall, before the freezing weather commences. In most vineyards, where protection is not practiced, this work is omitted till in the winter or early spring.

This question of protection we shall leave for each one to judge for himself, according to circumstances; with the additional remark, that of the varieties named in the succeeding list probably one-half had better be protected, north of Ohio and Pennsylvania, while the other half may get along without it.

Different modes of training are adopted. Some tie to stout stakes, six or seven feet high, one to each plant. Where wood is scarce and costly, this is an expensive mode. The most common method is to use a trellis of wire. For this purpose posts are set in the ground at proper distances—say twenty feet—and wire fastened to these horizontally. The posts at the ends should be firmly set and braced, in order that the strain of the wire shall not loosen them. The wire is fastened to the posts by means of small staples, to be had at the hardware stores. Three wires are usually required, placed twenty inches or two feet apart, and the lower one a foot or so from the ground.

Manufacturers now supply a wire especially for the purpose. This annealed wire, No. 12, is strong, and will answer; but No. 10 is heavier, and will last longer. To wire an acre of trellis, the cost will be from thirty to sixty dollars, while the posts, at ten cents each, may bring the sum total form sixty to one hundred dollars, according as wood and labor are costly or cheap. Inferior trellis, made of split or sawed slats, may be obtained at cheaper rates in places where wood is plentiful. A primitive mode of building a trellis is to use split poles, obtained from the woods when the bark will peel; these, while answering a present purpose, will be of short duration.

PRUNING.

On this subject there is a great diversity of opinion, and the limits of this work will not permit of a lengthy treatise on the subject. It is proper to say, that the tendency to vine-growth is a check to the fruiting; and that cultivators consider it necessary to counteract this excessive growth by pinching and pruning. Many carry this practice to excess; and with spring and summer pinching, and fall and winter pruning, we believe, very materially injure their vines.

In this description of the pruning process, we shall condense from various treatises on the subject. Buchanan, a practical Cincinnati vineyardist of several years ago, says:—

"In the second spring after planting, cut down to two or three eyes, or joints, and the third year to four or five; pinching off laterals and tying up. * * Pruning the fourth year requires good judgment, as the standard stem or stalk has to be established. * * Select the best stem or cane of last year, and cut it down to six or eight joints; * * the other cane cut down to a spur of two or three eyes, to make bearing-wood for the next season."

His mode has reference to tying to upright stakes, instead of trellis, and must be varied accordingly. He says: "In the succeeding and all subsequent years, cut away the old bearing-wood, and form a new bow, or arch, from the best branch of the new wood of the last year, leaving a spur as before, to produce bearing-wood for the coming year; thus keeping the old stalk of the vine down to within eighteen to twenty-four inches from the ground. The vine is then always within reach and control." This is the renewal system.

Spur pruning consists in continuing the old or main stem, and annually cutting back the laterals to two or three good buds. A blending of the two is often practiced.

For summer prunning, we can do no better than to quote from Husmann, a noted grape-grower, and writer in Missouri. He says:—

"We are glad to see that the attention of the grape-growers of the country is thoroughly aroused to the importance of this subject, and that the practice of cutting and slashing the young growth in July and August is generally discountenanced. It has murdered more promising vineyards than any other practice. But people are apt to run into extremes, and many are now advocating the 'let alone' doctrine. We think both are wrong, and that the true course to steer is in the middle.

"1. Perform the operation EARLY. Do it as soon as the shoots are six inches long. At this time you can oversee your vine much easier. Every young shoot is soft and pliable. * * Remember that the knife has nothing to do with summer pruning. Your thumb and finger should perform all the work, and they can do it easily if it is done early.

"2. Perform it thoroughly and systematically. Select the shoots you intend for bearing wood for next year. These are left unchecked; but do not leave more than you really need. Remember that each part of the vine should be thoroughly ventilated, and if you crowd it too much, none of these canes will ripen their wood as thoroughly, nor be as vigorous, as when each has room, air, and light. Having selected these, commence at the bottom of the vine, rubbing off all superfluous shoots, and all which appear weak and imperfect. Then go over each arm or part of the vine, pinching every fruit-bearing branch above the last bunch of grapes.

"We come now to the second stage of summer pruning. After the first pinching, the dormant buds in the axils of the leaves, on fruit-bearing shoots, will each push out a lateral shoot opposite the young bunches. Our second operation consists in pinching each of these laterals back to one leaf *as soon* as we can get hold of the shoot above the first leaf, so that we get a young, vigorous leaf additional, opposite to each bunch of grapes. These serve as elevators of the sap, and also as an excellent protection and shade to the fruit. Remember, our aim is not to rob the plant of its foliage, but to make *two*

eaves grow where there was but one before, and at a place where they are of more benefit to the fruit."

INSECTS AND DISEASES.

Mildew and *rot* are the chief diseases affecting the grape, and are both believed to be caused by atmospheric influences. Excessive rains and damp, sultry weather are deemed the chief causes of these allied diseases. No specific remedy has been found, as no means of preventing the recurrence of the unfavorable causes are within human reach.

Of *insects*, there are several that are quite destructive to the grape plant, among which the most formidable is the phylloxera, a tiny insect which, in its several stages, is lately making deadly havoc among the vineyards of both Europe and America —affecting the roots as well as the foliage. In its work upon the foliage it does comparatively little injury, but its work upon the roots is very destructive—eating away the fibrous portions, and causing them to decay and die.

Against the ravages of this insect there is as yet no known satisfactory remedy. Large rewards have been offered in Europe to stimulate discovery, and in America the entomologists and others are diligently pursuing their investigations.

The *leaf-hopper* is a troublesome insect on some varieties. It is an active little beetle, and works on the underside of the leaves, causing them to assume a deadly appearance in spots, and finally killing the leaf entirely. Soapsuds have been recommended as a remedy; also tobacco infusion thrown upon them with a syringe.

The *leaf-folder* is a green worm that folds itself up in the leaf, where it goes into the chrysalis state. The parent moth appears in the spring and deposits her eggs, which hatch and fold themselves up during the summer. The increase of both this and the leaf hopper may be checked by raking up and burning the leaves in the fall.

There is also a *grape curculio*, inferior in size to the plum curculio, but with habits somewhat similar. It punctures the fruit and deposits an egg, which hatches a worm to live on the juices. This larva leaves the berry during summer, and passes into the ground. It is believed, however, to issue again in the fall as a beetle, and thus pass the winter.

Many other more or less destructive insect enemies of the grape might be mentioned.

CARVING.

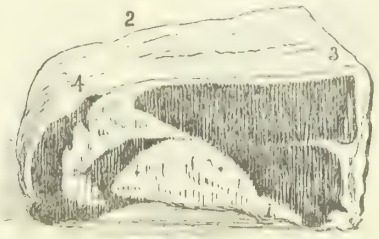
EVERYBODY should know how to carve. Parents should instruct their children in this necessary art, and on given occasions practically exercise the youngsters in the use of the "big" knife and fork.

Ladies ought especially to make carving a study; at their own houses they grace the table, and should be enabled to perform the task allotted to them with sufficient skill to prevent remark, or the calling forth of eager proffers of assistance from good-natured visitors near, who probably would not present any better claim to a neat performance.

Carving presents no difficulties; it simply requires knowledge. All displays of exertion or violence are in very bad taste; for, if not proved an evidence of the want of ability on the part of the carver, they present a very strong testimony of the toughness of a joint.

Lightness of hand and dexterity of management are necessary, and can only be acquired by practice. The flakes, which in such fish as salmon and cod are large, should not be broken in serving, for the beauty of the fish is then destroyed, and the appetite for it injured. In addition to the skill in the use of the knife, there is also required another description of knowledge, and that is an acquaintance with the best part of the joint, fowl or fish being carved. Thus in a haunch of venison the fat, which is a favorite, must be served with each slice; in the shoulder of mutton there are some delicate cuts in the under part. The breast and wings are the best part of a fowl, and the trail of a woodcock on a toast is the choicest part of the bird. In fish a part of the roe, melt or liver should accompany the piece of fish served. The list, however, is too numerous to mention here; and, indeed, the knowledge can only be acquired by experience. In large establishments the gross dishes are carved at the buffet by the butler, but in middle society they are placed upon the table. In the following directions, accompanied by diagrams, we have endeavored to be as explict as possible; but while they will prove as landmarks to the uninitiated, he will find that practice alone will enable him to carve with skill and facility.

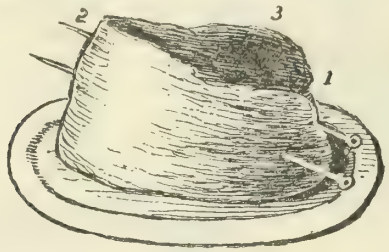
Part of a Sirloin of Beef.—There are two modes of



helping this joint: either by carving long thin slices from 3

to 4, and assisting a portion of the marrowy fat, which is found underneath the ribs, to each person; or by cutting thicker slices in the direction 1 to 2. When sent to the table the joint should be laid down on the dish with the surface 2 uppermost.

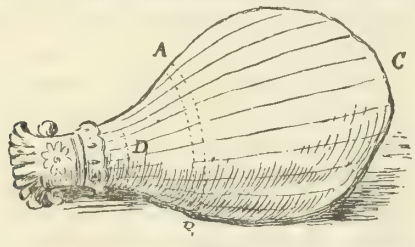
An Aitch-Bone of Beef.—This is a simple joint to carve, but the slices from it must be cut quite even, and of a very moderate thickness. When the joint is boiled, before cutting to serve, remove a slice from the whole of the upper part of sufficient thickness, say a quarter of an inch, in order to ar-



AITCH-BONE.

rive at the juicy part of the meat at once. Carve from 1 to 2; let the slices be moderately thin—not too thin; help fat with the lean in one piece, and give a little additional fat which you will find below 3; the solid fat is at 1, and must be cut in slices horizontally. The round of beef is carved in the same manner.

Ham.—It is served as placed in the engraving, and should come to the table ornamented. Carve from A to B, cutting thin slices slantingly, to give a wedge-like appearance. Those



HAM.

who prefer can carve the hock at D, in the same direction as from A to B, then carve from D to C, in thin slices, as indicated in the diagram.

The Sirloin of Beef.—The under part should be first served, and carved as indicated in the engraving, across the



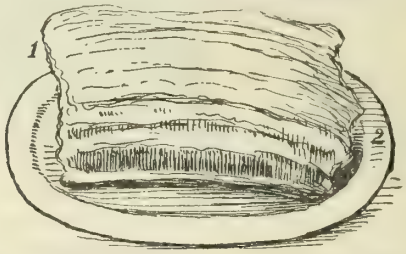
SIRLOIN OF BEEF.

bone. In carving the upper part the same directions should be followed as for the ribs, or in the center, from A to B, and helping the fat from D.

Sucking Pig.—The cook should send a roast pig to table garnished with head and ears. Carve the joints, then divide the ribs, serve with plenty of sauce: should one of the joints be too much, it may be separated: bread sauce and stuffing should accompany it. An ear and the jaw are favorite parts with many people.

Boiled Tongue.—Carve across the tongue, but do not cut through; keep the slices rather thin, and help the fat from underneath.

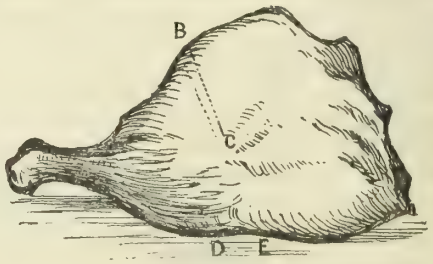
Brisket of Beef must be carved in the direction 1 and 2 quite down to the bone, after cutting off the outside, which should be about three-quarters of an inch thick.



Ribs of Beef are carved similar to the sirloin, commencing at the thin end of the joint, and cutting long slices, so as to assist fat and lean at the same time.

Round or Buttock of Beef.—Remove the upper surface in the same manner as for an aitch-bone of beef, carve thin horizontal slices of fat and lean, as evenly as possible. It requires a sharp knife and steady hand to carve it well.

Leg of Mutton.—The under or thickest part of the leg should be placed uppermost, and carved in slices moderately thin, from B to C. Many persons have a taste for the knuckle,



LEG OF MUTTON.

and this question should be asked, and, if preferred, should be assisted. When cold the back of the leg should be placed uppermost, and thus carved; if the cramp bone is requested, and some persons regard it as a dainty, hold the shank with your left hand, and insert your knife at D, passing it round to E, and you will remove it.

Ribs of Beef.—There are two modes of carving this joint. The first, which is now becoming common, and is easy to an amateur carver, is to cut across the bone commencing in the center, and serving fat from A, as marked in the engraving of the sirloin; or it should be carved in slices from A to C, commencing either in the center of the joint or at the sides. Occasionally the bones are removed, and the meat formed into a fillet; it should then be carved as a round of beef.

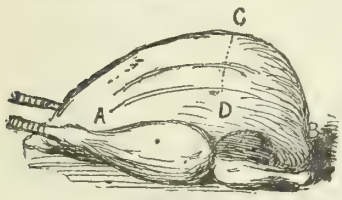
The Loin of Mutton, if small, should be carved in chops, beginning with the outer chop; if large, carve slices the whole

length. A neat way is to run the knife along the chine bone and under the meat along the ribs: it may then be cut in slices; and by this process fat and lean are served together. Your knife should be very sharp, and it should be done cleverly.

Neck of Mutton, if the scrag and chine bone are removed, is carved in the direction of the bones.

The Scrag of Mutton should be separated from the ribs of the neck, and when roasted the bone assisted with the meat.

Haunch of Mutton is carved as haunch of venison.



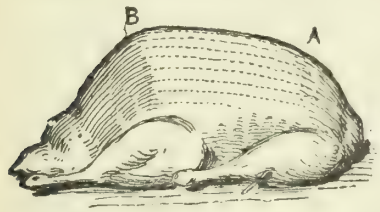
ROAST FOWL.

Roast Fowl.—This operation is a nice and skillful one to perform; it requires both observation and practice. Insert the knife between the legs and the side, press back the leg with the blade of the knife, and the joint will disclose itself: if young, it will part, but at best, if judiciously managed, will require but a nick where the joints unite. Remove your wing from D to B, cut through and lay it back as with the leg, separating the joint with the edge of your knife, remove the merrythought and neck bones next: this you will accomplish by inserting the knife and forcing it under the bones: raise it, and it will readily separate from the breast. You will divide the breast from the body by cutting through the small ribs down to the vent, turn the back uppermost, now put your knife into about the center between the neck and rump, raise the lower part firmly yet gently, it will easily separate; turn the neck or rump from you, take off the side bones and the fowl is carved.

In separating the thigh from the drumstick, you must insert the knife exactly at the joint, as we have indicated in the engraving; this, however, will be found to require practice, for the joint must be accurately hit, or else much difficulty will be experienced in getting the parts asunder. There is no difference in carving roast and boiled fowls, if full grown; but in a very young fowl when roasted, the breast is served whole. The wings and breast are in the highest favor, but the leg of a young fowl is an excellent part. Capons, when very fine and roasted, should have slices carved from the breast.



Geese.—Follow with your knife the lines marked in the engraving, A to B, and cut slices, then remove the wing, and if the party be large, the legs must also be removed, and here the *disjointer* will again prove serviceable. The stuffing, as in the turkey, will be obtained by making an insertion at the apron.



GOOSE.

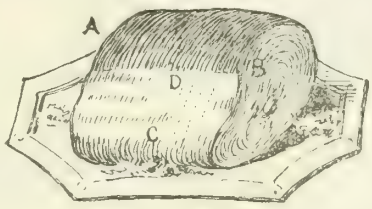
Guinea Fowl are carved in the same manner.

Quails, Landrail, Wheatears, Larks, and all small birds are served whole.

Grouse and Plover are carved as partridges.

Snipe and Woodcock are divided into two parts; the trail being served on a toast.

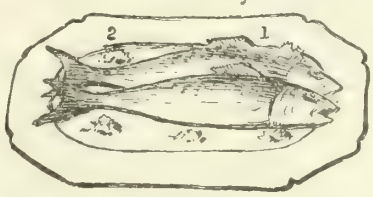
Fish should never be carved with steel; assisting requires more care than knowledge; the principal caution is to avoid breaking the flakes. In carving a piece of salmon as here engraved, cut thin slices, as from A to B, and help with it pieces of the belly in the direction marked from C to D. The best flavored is the upper or thick part.



MIDDLE CUT OF SALMON.

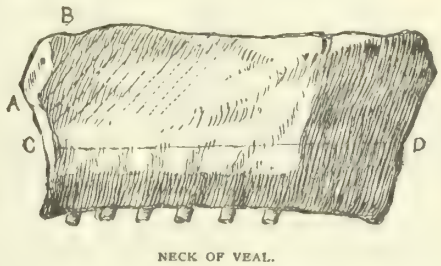
Haddock.—It is dressed whole, unless unusually large. When sent to the table it is split its whole length, and served one-half the head to the tail of the other part; it is carved across.

Mackerel should always be sent to table head to tail. Divide the meat from the bone by cutting down the back lengthwise from 1 to 2: upper part is the best. All small fish, such as herrings, smelts, etc., are served whole.



MACKEREL.

Neck of Veal.—Were you to attempt to carve each chop and serve it, you would not only place a gigantic bit upon the plate of the person you intended to help, but you would waste time, and if the vertebræ had not been jointed by the butcher

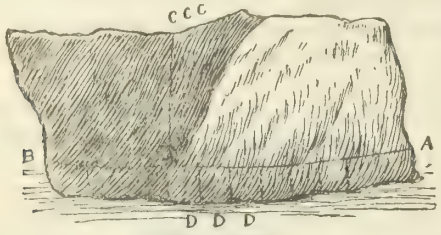


NECK OF VEAL.

you would find yourself in the position of the ungraceful carver, being compelled to exercise a degree of strength which should never be suffered to appear; very possibly, too, assisting gravy in a manner not contemplated by the person unfortunate enough to receive it. Cut diagonally from B to A, and help in slices of moderate thickness; you can cut from C to D in order to separate the small bones; divide and serve them, having first inquired if they are desired.

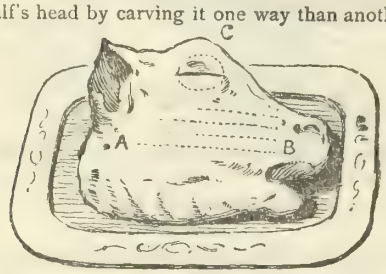
The Breast of Veal.—Separate the ribs from A to B; these small bones, which are the sweetest and mostly chosen, you will cut them as D D D, and serve. The long ribs are divided as at C C C; and having ascertained the preference of

the person, help accordingly. At good tables the scrag is not served, but is found, when properly cooked, a very good stew.



BREAST OF VEAL.

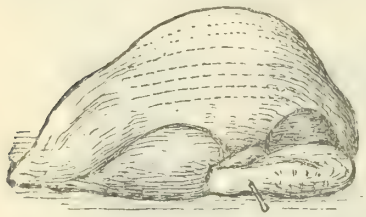
Calf's Head.—There is much more meat to be obtained from a calf's head by carving it one way than another. Carve



CALF'S HEAD.

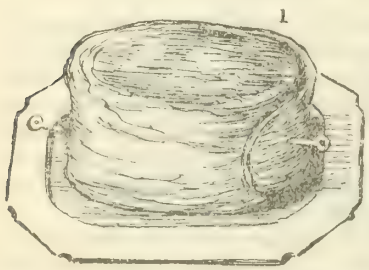
from A to B, cutting quite down to the bone. At the fleshy part of the neck end you will find the throat sweetbread, which you can help a slice of with the other part; you will remove the eye with the point of the knife, and divide it in half, helping those to it who profess a preference for it: there are some tasty, gelatinous pieces around it which are palatable. Remove the jaw-bone, and then you will meet with some fine-flavored lean; the palate, which is under the head, is by some thought a dainty, and should be proffered when carving.

Boiled Turkey is trussed in a different fashion to the the roast, but the same directions given for the first apply to the second. The legs in the boiled turkey being drawn into the body may cause some little difficulty at first in their separation,


BOILED TURKEY.

but a little practice will soon surmount it.

Fillet of Veal.—Cut a slice off the whole of the upper part in the same way as from a round of beef: this being, if well roasted, of a nice brown, should be helped in small pieces with the slices you cut for each person. The stuffing is skewered in the flap, and where the bones come out there is some placed; help this with the meat, with a piece of the fat

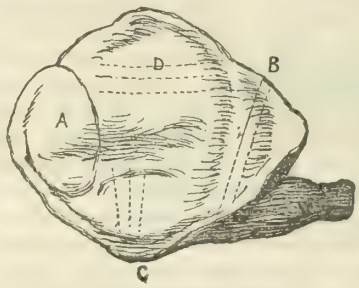


FILLET OF VEAL.

Loin of Veal.—This joint is sent to table served as a sirloin of beef. Having turned it over, cut out the kidney and the fat, return it to its proper position, and carve it as in the neck of veal, from B to A; help with it a slice of kidney and fat. The kidney is usually placed upon a dry toast when removed from the joint.

Shoulder of Veal is sent to table with the under part placed uppermost. Help it as a shoulder of mutton, beginning at the knuckle end.

A Shoulder of Mutton.—This is a joint upon which a great diversity of opinion exists, many professing a species of horror at its insipidity, others finding much delicacy of flavor in certain parts. In good mutton there is no doubt but that, if properly managed, it is an excellent joint, and, if judiciously served, will give satisfaction to all who partake of it. It should be served hot. It is sent to table lying on the dish as shown in the annexed engraving.



SHOULDER OF MUTTON.

Commence carving from A to B, taking out moderately thin slices in the shape of a wedge; some nice pieces may then be helped from the blade-bone, from C to B, cutting on both sides of the bone. Cut the fat from D, carving it in thin slices. Some of the most delicate parts, however, lie on the under part of the shoulder; take off thin pieces horizontally from B to C, and from A; some tender slices are to be met with at D, but they must be cut through as indicated.

The shoulder of mutton is essentially a joint of titbits, and therefore, when carving it, the tastes of those at the table should be consulted. It is a very insipid joint when cold, and should therefore be hashed if sent to table a second time.

Wild Duck and Widgeon.—The breast of these fowls, being the best portion, is carved in slices, which being removed, a glass of old port made hot is poured in, the half of a lemon seasoned with cayenne and salt should then be squeezed in, the slices relaid in their places, and then served the joints being removed the same as in other fowl.

Partridge.—Separate the legs, and then divide the bird into three parts, leaving each leg and wing together. The breast is then divided from the back, and helped whole, the latter being assisted with any of the other parts. When the party consists of gentlemen only, the bird is divided into two by cutting right through from the vent to the neck.

Pigeon.—Like woodcock, these birds are cut in half, through the breast and back, and helped.

Roast Turkey.—Cut long slices from both sides of the breast down to the ribs at the breast-bone. If a large bird the legs may be removed, and the drumsticks taken off. The stuffing may be removed by making an incision in the apron.

Boiled Fowl.—There is but little difference in the mode of carving roast and boiled fowl, and that little lies in the breast of the former being generally served entire—the thigh bone, too, is preferred by many to the wing.

ETIQUETTE FOR LADIES.

ETIQUETTE may be defined as the minor morality of life. Its laws, like all other social laws, are the accumulated results of the wisdom and experience of many generations. They form a code with which every educated person is bound to be acquainted; and the object of this portion of Collier's Cyclopedia is to place that code before the reader in as succinct, as agreeable, and as explanatory a light as the subject admits of. We hope and believe that it will be found in all respects a trusty and pleasant guide.

INTRODUCTIONS.

To introduce persons who are mutually unknown is to undertake a serious responsibility, and to certify to each the respectability of the other. Never undertake this responsibility without, in the first place, asking yourself whether the persons are likely to be agreeable to each other; nor, in the second place, without ascertaining whether it will be acceptable to both parties to become acquainted.

Always introduce the gentleman to the lady—never the lady to the gentleman. The chivalry of etiquette assumes that the lady is invariably the superior in right of her sex, and that the gentleman is honored in the introduction.

Never present a gentleman to a lady without first asking her permission to do so.

When you are introduced to a gentleman, never offer your hand. When introduced, persons limit their recognition of each other to a bow.

Persons who have met at the house of a mutual friend without being introduced should not bow if they afterwards meet elsewhere. A bow implies acquaintance; and persons who have not been introduced are not acquainted.

If you are walking with one friend, and presently meet with, or are joined by, a second, do not commit the too frequent error of introducing them to each other. You have even less right to do so than if they encountered each other at your house during a morning call.

There are some exceptions to the etiquette of introduction. At a ball, or evening party where there is dancing, the mistress of the house may introduce any gentleman to any lady without first asking the lady's permission. But she should first ascertain whether the lady is willing to dance; and this out of consideration for the gentleman, who may otherwise be refused. No man likes to be refused the hand of a lady, though it be only for a quadrille.

A sister may present her brother, or a mother her son, without any kind of preliminary.

Friends may introduce friends at the house of a mutual acquaintance; but, as a rule, it is better to be introduced by the mistress of the house. Such an introduction carries more authority with it.

Introductions at evening parties are now almost wholly dispensed with. Persons who meet at a friend's house are ostensibly upon an equality, and pay a bad compliment to the host by appearing suspicious and formal. Some old-fashioned country hosts still persevere in introducing each new comer to all the assembled guests. It is a custom that cannot be too soon abolished, and one that places the last unfortunate visitor in a singularly awkward position. All that she can do is to make a semicircular courtesy, like a concert singer before an audience, and bear the general gaze with as much composure as possible.

An introduction given at a ball for the mere purpose of conducting a lady through a dance does not give the gentleman any right to bow to her on a future occasion. If he commits this error, she may remember that she is not bound to see, or return, his salutation.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

Do not lightly give or promise letters of introduction. Always remember that when you give a letter of introduction you lay yourself under an obligation to the friend to whom it is addressed. If she lives in a great city, such as Chicago or Boston, you in a measure compel her to undergo the penalty of escorting the stranger to some of those places of public entertainment in which the capital abounds. If your friend be a married lady, and the mistress of a house, you put her to the expense of inviting the stranger to her table. We cannot be too cautious how we tax the time and purse of a friend, or weigh too seriously the question of mutual advantage in the introduction. Always ask yourself whether the person introduced will be an acceptable acquaintance to the one to whom you present her; and whether the pleasure of knowing her will compensate for the time or money which it costs to entertain her. If the stranger is in any way unsuitable in habits or temperament, you inflict an annoyance on your friend instead of a pleasure. In questions of introduction never oblige one friend to the discomfort of another.

Those to whom letters of introduction have been given should send them to the person to whom they are addressed, and inclose a card. Avoid delivering a letter of introduction in person. It places you in the most undignified position imaginable, and compels you to wait while it is being read, like a servant who has been told to wait for an answer. If the receiver of the letter be a really well-bred person, she will call upon you or leave her card the next day, and you should return her attention within the week.

If, on the other hand, a stranger sends you a letter of introduction and her card, you are bound by the laws of politeness and hospitality, not only to call upon her the next day, but to follow up that attention with others. If you are in a position to do so, the most correct proceeding is to invite her to dine with you. Should this not be within your power, you can probably escort her to some of the exhibitions, bazaars, or concerts of the season; any of which would be interesting to a provincial visitor. In short, etiquette demands that you shall exert yourself to show kindness to the stranger, if only out of compliment to the friend who introduced her to you.

If you invite her to take dinner with you, it is a better compliment to ask some others to meet her than to dine with her *tête-à-tête*. You are thereby giving her an opportunity of making other acquaintances, and are assisting your friend in still farther promoting the purpose for which she gave her the introduction to yourself.

A letter of introduction should be given unsealed, not alone because your friend may wish to know what you have said of her, but also as a guarantee of your own good faith. As you should never give such a letter unless you can speak highly of the bearer, this rule of etiquette is easy to observe. By requesting your friend to fasten the envelope before forwarding the letter to its destination, you tacitly give her permission to inspect its contents.

VISITING CARDS.

Visits of ceremony should be short. If even the conversation should have become animated, beware of letting your call exceed half-an-hour's length. It is always better to let your friends regret rather than desire your withdrawal.

On returning visits of ceremony you may, without impoliteness, leave your card at the door without going in. Do not fail, however, to inquire if the family be well.

Should there be daughters or sisters residing with the lady upon whom you call, you may turn down a corner of your card to signify that the visit is paid to all. It is in better taste, however, to leave cards for each.

Unless when returning thanks for "kind inquiries," or announcing your arrival in, or departure from, town, it is not considered respectful to send round cards by a servant.

Leave-taking cards have P.P.C. (*pour prendre congé*) written in the corner. Some use P.D.A. (*pour dire adieu*).

Autographic facsimiles for visiting cards are affectations in any persons but those who are personally remarkable for talent, and whose autographs, or facsimiles of them, would be prized as curiosities.

Visits of condolence are paid within the week after the event which occasions them. Personal visits of this kind are made by relations and very intimate friends only. Acquaintances should leave cards with narrow mourning borders.

On the first occasion when you are received by the family after the death of one of its members, it is etiquette to wear slight mourning.

Umbrellas should invariably be left in the hall.

Never take favorite dogs into a drawing-room when you make a morning call. Their feet may be dusty, or they may bark at the sight of strangers, or, being of a too friendly disposition, may take the liberty of lying on a lady's gown, or jumping on the sofas and easy chairs. Where your friend has a favorite cat already established before the fire, a battle may ensue, and one or both of the pets be seriously hurt. Besides, many persons have a constitutional antipathy to dogs, and others never allow their own to be seen in the sitting-rooms. For all or any of these reasons, a visitor has no right to inflict upon her friend the society of her dog as well as of herself. Neither is it well for a mother to take young children with her when she pays morning visits; their presence, unless they are unusually well trained, can only be productive of anxiety to both yourself and your hostess. She, while striving to amuse them, or to appear interested in them, is secretly anxious for the fate of her album, or the ornaments on her *étagére*; while the mother is trembling lest her children should say or do something objectionable.

If other visitors are announced, and you have already remained as long as courtesy requires, wait till they are seated, and then rise from your chair, take leave of your hostess, and bow politely to the newly arrived guests. You will, perhaps, be urged to remain, but, having once risen, it is best to go. There is always a certain air of *gaucherie* in resuming your seat and repeating the ceremony of leave-taking.

If you have occasion to look at your watch during a call, ask permission to do so, and apologize for it on the plea of other appointments.

In receiving morning visitors, it is not necessary that the lady should lay aside the employment in which she may be engaged, particularly if it consists of light or ornamental needle-work.

Politeness, however, requires that music, drawing, or any occupation which would completely engross the attention, be at once abandoned.

You need not advance to receive visitors when announced, unless they are persons to whom you are desirous of testifying particular attention. It is sufficient if a lady rises to receive her visitors, moves forward a single step to shake hands with them, and remains standing till they are seated.

When your visitors rise to take leave you should rise also, and remain standing till they have quite left the room.

A lady should dress well, but not too richly, when she pays a morning visit.

CONVERSATION.

There is no conversation so graceful, so varied, so sparkling, as that of an intellectual and cultivated woman. Excellence in this particular is, indeed, one of the attributes of the sex, and should be cultivated by every gentlewoman who aspires to please in general society.

In order to talk well, three conditions are indispensable, namely—tact, a good memory, and a fair education.

Remember that people take more interest in their own affairs than in anything else which you can name. If you wish your conversation to be thoroughly agreeable, lead a mother to talk of her children, a young lady of her last ball, an author of his forthcoming book, or an artist of his exhibition picture. Having furnished the topic, you need only listen; and you are sure to be thought not only agreeable, but thoroughly sensible and well-informed.

Be careful, however, on the other hand, not always to make a point of talking to persons upon general matters relating to their profession. To show an interest in their immediate concerns is flattering; but to converse with them too much about their own arts looks as if you thought them ignorant of other topics.

Remember in conversation that a voice "gentle and low" is, above all other extraneous acquirements, "an excellent thing in woman." There is a certain distinct but subdued tone of voice which is peculiar to only well-bred persons. A loud voice is both disagreeable and vulgar. It is better to err by the use of too low rather than too loud a tone.

Remember that all "slang" is vulgar.

The use of proverbs is equally vulgar in conversation; and puns, unless they rise to the rank of witticisms, are to be scrupulously avoided. A lady-punster is a most unpleasing phenomenon, and we would advise no young woman, however witty she may be, to cultivate this kind of verbal talent.

Long arguments in general company, however entertaining to the disputants, are tiresome to the last degree to all others. You should always endeavor to prevent the conversation from dwelling too long upon one topic.

Religion is a topic which should never be introduced into society. It is the one subject on which persons are most likely to differ, and least able to preserve temper.

Never interrupt a person who is speaking. It has been aptly said that "if you interrupt a speaker in the middle of his sentence, you act almost as rudely as if, when walking with a companion, you were to thrust yourself before him, and stop his progress."

To listen well is almost as great an art as to talk well. It is not enough *only* to listen. You must endeavor to seem interested in the conversation of others.

It is considered extremely ill bred when two persons whisper in society, or converse in a language with which all present are not familiar. If you have private matters to discuss, you should appoint a proper time and place to do so, without paying others the ill compliment of excluding them from your conversation.

If a foreigner be one of the guests at a small party, and does not understand English sufficiently to follow what is said, good breeding demands that the conversation shall be carried on in his own language. If at a dinner-party, the same rule applies to those at his end of the table.

If upon the entrance of a visitor you carry on the thread of a previous conversation, you should briefly recapitulate to him what has been said before he arrived.

Do not be *always* witty, even though you should be so happily gifted as to need the caution. To outshine others on every occasion is the surest road to unpopularity.

Always look, but never stare, at those with whom you converse.

In order to meet the general needs of conversation in society, it is necessary that a gentlewoman should be acquainted with the current news and historical events of, at least, the last few years.

Never talk upon subjects of which you know nothing, unless it be for the purpose of acquiring information. Many young ladies imagine that because they play a little, sing a little, draw a little, and frequent exhibitions and operas, they are qualified judges of art. No mistake is more egregious or universal.

Those who introduce anecdotes into their conversation are warned that these should invariably be "short, witty, eloquent, new, and not far-fetched."

Scandal is the least excusable of all conversational vulgarities.

DRESS.

To dress well requires something more than a full purse and a pretty figure. It needs taste, good sense, and refinement. Dress may almost be classed as one of the fine arts. It is certainly one of those arts the cultivation of which is indispensable to any person moving in the upper or middle classes of society. Very clever women are too frequently indifferent to the graces of the toilette; and women who wish to be thought clever affect indifference. In the one case it is an error, and in the other a folly. It is not enough that a gentlewoman should be clever, or well educated, or well-born. To take her due place in society, she must be acquainted with all that this little book proposes to teach. She must, above all else, know how to enter a room, how to perform a graceful salutation, and how to dress. Of these three important qualifications, the most important, because the most observed, is the latter.

Let your style of dress always be appropriate to the hour of the day. To dress too finely in the morning, or to be seen in a morning dress in the evening, is equally vulgar and out of place.

Light and inexpensive materials are fittest for morning wear; dark silk dresses for the promenade or carriage; and low dresses of rich or transparent stuffs for the dinner and ball. A young lady cannot dress with too much simplicity in the early part of the day. A morning dress of some simple material, and delicate whole color, with collar and cuffs of spotless linen, is, perhaps, the most becoming and elegant of morning toilettes.

Never dress very richly or showily in the street. It attracts attention of no enviable kind, and is looked upon as a want of good breeding. In the carriage a lady may dress as elegantly as she pleases. With respect to ball-room toilette, its fashions are so variable, that statements which are true of it to-day may be false a month hence. Respecting no institution of modern society, is it so difficult to pronounce half-a-dozen permanent rules.

We may, perhaps, be permitted to suggest the following leading principles; but we do so with diffidence. Rich colors harmonize with rich brunette complexions and dark hair. Delicate colors are the most suitable for delicate and fragile styles of beauty. Very young ladies are never so suitably attired as in white. Ladies who dance should wear dresses of light and diaphanous materials, such as *tulle*, gauze, crape, net, etc., over colored silk slips. Silk dresses are not suitable for dancing. A married lady who dances only a few quadrilles may wear a *décolleté* silk dress with propriety.

Very stout persons should never wear white. It has the effect of adding to the bulk of the figure.

Black and scarlet, or black and violet, are worn in mourning.

A lady in deep mourning should not dance at all.

However fashionable it may be to wear very long dresses, those ladies who go to a ball with the intention of dancing, and enjoying the dance, should cause their dresses to be made short enough to clear the ground. We would ask them whether it is not better to accept this slight deviation from an absurd fashion, than to appear for three parts of the evening in a torn and pinned-up skirt?

Well-made shoes, whatever their color or material, and faultless gloves, are indispensable to the effect of a ball-room toilette.

Much jewelry is out of place in a ball-room. Beautiful flowers, whether natural or artificial, are the loveliest ornaments that a lady can wear on these occasions.

At small dinner parties, low dresses are not so indispensable as they were held to be some years since. High dresses of transparent materials, and low bodices with capes of black lace, are considered sufficiently full dress on these occasions. At large dinners only the fullest dress is appropriate.

Very young ladies should wear but little jewelry. Pearls are deemed most appropriate for the young and unmarried.

Let your jewelry be always the best of its kind. Nothing is so vulgar, either in youth or in age, as the use of false ornaments.

There is as much propriety to be observed in the wearing of jewelry as in the wearing of dresses. Diamonds, pearls, rubies, and all transparent precious stones, belong to evening dress, and should on no account be worn before dinner. In the morning let your rings be of the more simple and massive kind; wear no bracelets; and limit your jewelry to a good brooch, gold chain, and watch. Your diamonds and pearls would be as much out of place during the morning as a low dress, or a wreath.

It is well to remember in the choice of jewelry that mere costliness is not always the test of value; and that an exquisite work of art, such as a fine cameo, or a natural rarity, such as black pearl, is a more *distingué* possession than a large brilliant which any rich and tasteless vulgarian can buy as easily as yourself. Of all precious stones, the opal is one of the most lovely and least common-place. No vulgar woman purchases an opal. She invariably prefers the more showy ruby, emerald, or sapphire.

A true gentlewoman is always faultlessly neat. No richness of toilette in the afternoon, no diamonds in the evening, can atone for unbrushed hair, a soiled collar, or untidy slippers at breakfast.

Never be seen in the street without gloves. Your gloves should fit to the last degree of perfection.

In these days of public baths and universal progress, we trust that it is unnecessary to do more than hint at the necessity of the most fastidious personal cleanliness. The hair, the teeth, the nails, should be faultlessly kept; and a muslin dress that has been worn once too often, a dingy pocket-handkerchief, or a soiled pair of light gloves, are things to be scrupulously avoided by any young lady who is ambitious of preserving the exterior of a gentlewoman.

Remember that the make of your *corsage* is of even greater importance than the make of your dress. No dressmaker can fit you well, or make your bodices in the manner most becoming to your figure, if the *corsage* beneath be not of the best description.

Your shoes and gloves should always be faultless.

Perfumes should be used only in the evening, and then in moderation. Let your perfumes be of the most delicate and *recherché* kind. Nothing is more vulgar than a coarse, ordinary scent; and of all coarse, ordinary scents, the most objectionable are musk and patchouli.

Finally, every lady should remember that to dress well is a duty which she owes to society; but that to make it her idol is to commit something worse than a folly. Fashion is made for woman; not woman for fashion.

MORNING AND EVENING PARTIES.

The morning party is a modern invention. It was unknown to our fathers and mothers, and even to ourselves till quite lately. A morning party is given during the months of June, July, August, September, and sometimes October. It begins about two o'clock and ends about seven, and the entertainment consists for the most part of conversation, music, and (if there be a garden) croquet, lawn tennis, archery, etc. The refreshments are given in the form of a *déjeûner à la fourchette*. Receptions are held during the winter season.

Elegant morning dress, general good manners, and some acquaintance with the topics of the day and the games above named, are all the qualifications especially necessary to a lady

at a morning party, and "At Homes;" music and elocution at receptions.

An evening party begins about nine o'clock p.m., and ends about midnight, or somewhat later. Good-breeding neither demands that you should present yourself at the commencement, nor remain till the close of the evening. You come and go as may be most convenient to you, and by these means are at liberty, during the height of the season when evening parties are numerous, to present yourself at two or three houses during a single evening.

When your name is announced, look for the lady of the house, and pay your respects to her before you even seem to see any other of your friends who may be in the room. At very large and fashionable receptions, the hostess is generally to be found near the door. Should you, however, find yourself separated by a dense crowd of guests, you are at liberty to recognize those who are near you, and those whom you encounter as you make your way slowly through the throng.

If you are at the house of a new acquaintance and find yourself among entire strangers, remember that by so meeting under one roof you are all in a certain sense made known to one another, and should, therefore, converse freely, as equals. To shrink away to a side-table and affect to be absorbed in some album or illustrated work; or, if you find one unlucky acquaintance in the room to fasten upon her like a drowning man clinging to a spar, are *gaucheries* which no shyness can excuse.

If you possess any musical accomplishments, do not wait to be pressed and entreated by your hostess, but comply immediately when she pays you the compliment of inviting you to play or sing. Remember, however, that only the lady of the house has the right to ask you. If others do so, you can put them off in some polite way, but must not comply till the hostess herself invites you.

Be scrupulous to observe silence when any of the company are playing or singing. Remember that they are doing this for the amusement of the rest; and that to talk at such a time is as ill-bred as if you were to turn your back upon a person who was talking to you and begin a conversation with some one else.

If you are yourself the performer, bear in mind that in music, as in speech, "brevity is the soul of wit." Two verses of a song, or four pages of a piece, are at all times enough to give pleasure. If your audience desire more they will ask for it; and it is infinitely more flattering to be encored than to receive the thanks of your hearers, not so much in gratitude for what you have given them, but in relief that you have left off. You should try to suit your music, like your conversation, to your company. A solo of Beethoven's would be as much out of place in some circles as a comic song at a Quakers' meeting. To those who only care for the light popularities of the season, give Verdi, Suppé, Sullivan, or Offenbach. To connoisseurs, if you perform well enough to venture, give such music as will be likely to meet the exigencies of a fine taste. Above all, attempt nothing that you cannot execute with ease and precision.

If the party be of a small and social kind and those games called by the French *les jeux innocents* are proposed, do not object to join in them when invited. It may be that they demand some slight exercise of wit and readiness, and that you do not feel yourself calculated to shine in them; but it is better to seem dull than disagreeable, and those who are obliging can always find some clever neighbor to assist them in the moment of need.

Impromptu charades are frequently organized at friendly parties. Unless you have really some talent for acting and some readiness of speech, you should remember that you only put others out and expose your own inability by taking part in these entertainments. Of course, if your help is really needed, and you would disoblige by refusing, you must do your best, and by doing it as quietly and coolly as possible, avoid being awkward or ridiculous.

Even though you may take no pleasure in cards, some knowledge of the etiquette and rules belonging to the games most in vogue is necessary to you in society. If a fourth hand is wanted at euchre, or if the rest of the company sit down to a round game, you would be deemed guilty of an impoliteness if you refused to join.

The games most commonly played in society are euchre, draw-poker, and whist.

THE DINNER-PARTY.

To be acquainted with every detail of the etiquette pertaining to this subject is of the highest importance to every lady. Ease, *savoir-faire*, and good-breeding are nowhere more indispensable than at the dinner-table, and the absence of them is nowhere more apparent. How to eat soup and what to do with a cherry-stone are weighty considerations when taken as the index of social status; and it is not too much to say, that a young woman who elected to take claret with her fish, or ate peas with her knife, would justly risk the punishment of being banished from good society.

An invitation to dinner should be replied to immediately, and unequivocally accepted or declined. Once accepted, nothing but an event of the last importance should cause you to fail in your engagement.

To be exactly punctual is the strictest politeness on these occasions. If you are too early, you are in the way; if too late you spoil the dinner, annoy the hostess, and are hated by the rest of the guests. Some authorities are even of opinion that in the question of a dinner-party "never" is better than "late"; and one author has gone so far as to say, "if you do not reach the house till dinner is served, you had better retire, and send an apology, and not interrupt the harmony of the courses by awkward excuses and cold acceptance."

When the party is assembled, the mistress or master of the house will point out to each gentleman the lady whom he is to conduct to the table.

The lady who is the greatest stranger should be taken down by the master of the house, and the gentleman who is the greatest stranger should conduct the hostess. Married ladies take precedence of single ladies, elder ladies of younger ones, and so forth

When dinner is announced, the host offers his arm to the lady of most distinction, invites the rest to follow by a few words or a bow, and leads the way. The lady of the house

should then follow with the gentleman who is most entitled to that honor, and the visitors follow in the order that has been previously arranged. The lady of the house frequently remains, however, till the last, that she may see her guests go in their prescribed order; but the plan is not a convenient one. It is much better that the hostesss should be in her place as the guests enter the dining-room, in order that she may indicate their seats to them as they enter, and not find them all crowded together in uncertainty when she arrives.

The plan of cards, with the names of the guests on them, opposite their chairs, is a very useful one.

The lady of the house takes the head of the table. The gentleman who led her down to dinner occupies the seat on her right hand, and the gentleman next in order of precedence, that on her left. The master of the house takes the foot of the table. The lady whom he escorted sits on his right hand, and the lady next in order of precedence on his left.

As soon as you are seated at table, remove your gloves, place your table napkin across your knees, and remove the roll which you will probably find within it to the left side of your plate.

The soup should be placed on the table first. All well-ordered dinners begin with soup, whether in summer or winter. The lady of the house should help it, and send it round without asking each individual in turn. It is as much an understood thing as the bread beside each plate, and those who do not choose it are always at liberty to leave it untasted.

In eating soup, remember always to take it from the side of the spoon, and to make no sound in doing so.

If the servants do not go round with wine, the gentlemen should help the ladies and themselves to sherry or sauterne immediately after the soup.

You should never ask for a second supply of either soup or fish; it delays the next course, and keeps the table waiting.

Never offer to "assist" your neighbors to this or that dish. The word is inexpressibly vulgar—all the more vulgar for its affectation of elegance. "Shall I send you some mutton?" or "may I help you to canvas back?" is better chosen and better bred.

As a general rule, it is better not to ask your guests if they will partake of the dishes; but to send the plates round, and let them accept or decline them as they please. At very large dinners it is sometimes customary to distribute little lists of the order of the dishes at intervals along the table. It must be confessed that this gives somewhat the air of a dinner at an hotel; but it has the advantage of enabling the visitors to select their fare, and, as "forewarned is forearmed," to keep a corner, as the children say, for their favorite dishes.

As soon as you are helped, begin to eat; or, if the viands are too hot for your palate, take up your knife and fork and appear to begin. To wait for others is now not only old-fashioned, but ill-bred.

Never offer to pass on the plate to which you have been helped.

In helping soup, fish, or any other dish, remember that to overfill a plate is as bad as to supply it too scantily.

Silver fish knives will now always be met with at the best tables; but where there are none, a piece of crust should be taken in the left hand, and the fork in the right. There is no exception to this rule in eating fish.

We presume it is scarcely necessary to remind our fair reader that she is never, under any circumstances, to convey her knife to her mouth. Peas are eaten with the fork; tarts, curry, and puddings of all kinds with the spoon.

Always help fish with a fish-slice, and tart and puddings with a spoon, or, if necessary, a spoon and fork.

Asparagus must be helped with the asparagus-tongs.

In eating asparagus, it is well to observe what others do, and act accordingly. Some very well-bred people eat it with the fingers; others cut off the heads, and convey them to the mouth upon the fork. If would be difficult to say which is the more correct.

In eating stone fruit, such as cherries, damsons, etc., the same rule had better be observed. Some put the stones out from the mouth into a spoon, and so convey them to the plate. Others cover the lips with the hand, drop them unseen into the palm, and so deposit them on the side of the plate. In our own opinion, the latter is the better way, as it effectually conceals the return of the stones, which is certainly the point of highest importance. Of one thing we may be sure, and that is, that they must never be dropped from the mouth to the plate.

In helping sauce, always pour it on the side of the plate.

If the servants do not go round with the wine (which is by far the best custom), the gentlemen at a dinner-table should take upon themselves the office of helping those ladies who sit near them.

Unless you are a total abstainer, it is extremely uncivil to decline taking wine if you are invited to do so.

It is particularly ill-bred to empty your glass on these occasions.

Certain wines are taken with certain dishes, by old-established custom—as sherry or sauterne, with soup and fish; hock and claret with roast meat; punch with turtle; champagne with sweet-bread or cutlets; port with venison; port or burgundy, with game; sparkling wines between the roast and the confectionery; madeira with sweets; port with cheese; and for dessert, port, tokay, madeira, sherry, and claret. Red wines should never be iced, even in summer. Claret and burgundy should always be slightly warmed; claret-cup and champagne should, of course, be iced.

Instead of cooling their wines in the ice-pail, some hosts introduce clear ice upon the table, broken up in small lumps, to be put inside the glasses. This cannot be too strictly reprehended. Melting ice can but weaken the quality and flavor of the wine. Those who desire to drink *wine and water* can ask for iced water if they choose; but it savors too much of economy on the part of a host to insinuate the ice inside the glasses of his guests when the wine could be more effectually iced outside the bottle.

A silver knife and fork should be placed to each guest at dessert.

It is wise never to partake of any dish without knowing of what ingredients it is composed. You can always ask the servant who hands it to you, and you thereby avoid all danger of having to commit the impoliteness of leaving it, and showing that you do not approve of it.

Never speak while you have anything in your mouth.

Be careful never to taste soups or puddings till you are sure they are sufficiently cool ; as, by disregarding this caution, you may be compelled to swallow what is dangerously hot, or be driven to the unpardonable alternative of returning it to your plate.

When eating or drinking, avoid every kind of audible testimony to the fact.

Finger-glasses, containing water slightly warmed and perfumed, are placed to each person at dessert. In these you may dip the tips of your fingers, wiping them afterwards on your table-napkin. If the finger-glass and doyley are placed on your dessert-plate, you should immediately remove the doyley to the left of your plate, and place the finger-glass upon it. By these means you leave the right for the wine-glasses.

Be careful to know the shapes of the various kinds of wine-glasses commonly in use, in order that you may never put forward one for another. High and narrow, and very broad and shallow glasses, are used for champagne ; large goblet-shaped glasses for burgundy and claret ; ordinary wine-glasses for sherry and madeira ; green glasses for hock ; and somewhat large, bell-shaped glasses for port.

Port, sherry, and madeira are decanted. Hocks and champagnes appear in their native bottles. Claret and burgundy are handed round in a claret-jug.

The servants leave the room when the dessert is on the table.

Coffee and liqueurs should be handed round when the dessert has been about a quarter of an hour on the table. After this the ladies generally retire.

The lady of the house should never send away her plate, or appear to have done eating, till all her guests have finished.

If you should unfortunately overturn or break anything, do not apologize for it. You can show your regret in your face, but it is not well-bred to put it into words.

To abstain from taking the last piece on the dish, or the last glass of wine in the decanter, only because it is the last, is highly ill-bred. It implies a fear on your part that the vacancy cannot be supplied, and almost conveys an affront to your host.

To those ladies who have houses and servants at command, we have one or two remarks to offer. Every housekeeper should be acquainted with the routine of a dinner and the etiquette of a dinner-table. No lady should be utterly dependent on the taste and judgment of her cook. Though she need not know how to dress a dish, she should be able to judge of it when served. The mistress of the house, in short, should be to a cook what a publisher is to his authors—that is to say, competent to form a judgment upon their works, though himself incapable of writing even a magazine article.

If you wish to have a good dinner, and do not know in what manner to set about it, you will do wisely to order it from some first-rate *restaurateur*. By these means you insure the best cookery and a faultless *carte*.

Bear in mind that it is your duty to entertain your friends in the best manner that your means permit. This is the least you can do to recompense them for the expenditure of time and money which they incur in accepting your invitation.

"To invite a friend to dinner," says Brillat Savarin, "is to become responsible for his happiness so long as he is under your roof."

A dinner, to be excellent, need not consist of a great variety of dishes ; but everything should be of the best, and the cookery should be perfect. That which should be cool should be cool as ice ; that which should be hot should be smoking ; the attendance should be rapid and noiseless ; the guests well assorted ; the wines of the best quality ; the host attentive and courteous ; the room well lighted, and the time punctual.

Every dinner should begin with soup, be followed by fish, and include some kind of game. "The soup is to the dinner," we are told by Grisnod de la Regnière, "what the portico is to a building, or the overture to an opera."

To this aphorism we may be permitted to add that a *chasse* of cognac or curaçoa at the close of a dinner is like the epilogue at the end of a comedy.

Never reprove or give directions to your servants before guests. If a dish is not placed precisely where you would have wished it to stand, or the order of a course is reversed, let the error pass unobserved by yourself, and you may depend that it will be unnoticed by others.

The duties of hostess at a dinner-party are not onerous ; but they demand tact and good breeding, grace of bearing, and self-possession of no ordinary degree. She does not often carve. She has no active duties to perform ; but she must neglect nothing, forget nothing, put all her guests at their ease, encourage the timid, draw out the silent, and pay every possible attention to the requirements of each and all around her. No accident must ruffle her temper. No disappointment must embarrass her. She must see her old china broken without a sigh, and her best glass shattered with a smile.

STAYING AT A FRIEND'S HOUSE—BREAKFAST, LUNCHEON, ETC.

A visitor is bound by the laws of social intercourse to conform in all respects to the habits of the house. In order to do this effectually, she should inquire, or cause her personal servant to inquire, what those habits are. To keep your friend's breakfast on the table till a late hour ; to delay the dinner by want of punctuality ; to accept other invitations, and treat his house as if it were merely an hotel to be slept in ; or to keep the family up till unwonted hours, are alike evidences of a want of good feeling and good-breeding.

At breakfast and lunch absolute punctuality is not imperative ; but a visitor should avoid being always the last to appear at table.

No order of precedence is observed at either breakfast or luncheon. Persons take their seats as they come in, and, having exchanged their morning salutations, begin to eat without waiting for the rest of the party.

If letters are delivered to you at breakfast or luncheon, you may read them by asking permission from the lady who presides at the urn.

Always hold yourself at the disposal of those in whose house you are visiting. If they propose to ride, drive, walk, or otherwise occupy the day, you may take it for granted that these plans are made with reference to your enjoyment. You

should, therefore, receive them with cheerfulness, enter into them with alacrity, and do your best to seem pleased, and be pleased, by the efforts which your friends make to entertain you.

You should never take a book from the library to your own room without requesting permission to borrow it. When it is lent, you should take every care that it sustains no injury while in your possession, and should cover it, if necessary.

A guest should endeavor to amuse herself as much as possible, and not be continually dependent on her hosts for entertainment. She should remember that, however welcome she may be, she is not always wanted.

A visitor should avoid giving unnecessary trouble to the servants of the house.

The signal for retiring to rest is generally given by the appearance of the servant with wine, water, and biscuits, where a late dinner hour is observed and suppers are not the custom. This is the last refreshment of the evening, and the visitor will do well to rise and wish good night shortly after it has been partaken of by the family.

GENERAL HINTS.

Do not frequently repeat the name of the person with whom you are conversing. It implies either the extreme of *hauteur* or familiarity.

Never speak of absent persons by only their Christian or surnames; but always as Mr. ——, or Mrs. ——. Above all, never name anybody by the first letter of his name. Married people are sometimes guilty of this flagrant offense against taste.

Look at those who address you.

Never boast of your birth, your money, your grand friends, or anything that is yours. If you have traveled, do not introduce that information into your conversation at every opportunity. Any one can travel with money and leisure. The real distinction is to come home with enlarged views, improved tastes, and a mind free from prejudice.

If you present a book to a friend, do not write his or her name in it, unless requested. You have no right to presume that it will be rendered any the more valuable for that addition; and you ought not to conclude beforehand that your gift will be accepted.

Never undervalue the gift which you are yourself offering; you have no business to offer it if it is valueless. Neither say that you do not want it yourself, or that you should throw it away if it were not accepted, etc., etc. Such apologies would be insults if true, and mean nothing if false.

No compliment that bears insincerity on the face of it is a compliment at all.

Presents made by a married lady to a gentleman can only be offered in the joint names of her husband and herself.

Married ladies may occasionally accept presents from gentlemen who visit frequently at their houses, and who desire to show their sense of the hospitality which they receive there.

Acknowledge the receipt of a present without delay.

Give a foreigner his name in full, as Monsieur de Vigny—never as *Monsieur* only. In speaking of him, give him his title, if he has one. Foreign noblemen are addressed *viva voce* as Monsieur. In speaking of a foreign nobleman before his face, say Monsieur le Comte, or Monsieur le Marquis. In his absence, say Monsieur le Comte de Vigny.

Converse with a foreigner in his own language. If not competent to do so, apologize, and beg permission to speak English.

To get in and out of a carriage gracefully is a simple but important accomplishment. If there is but one step, and you are going to take the seat facing the horses, put your left foot on the step, and enter the carriage with your right, in such a manner as to drop at once into your seat. If you are about to sit with your back to the horses, reverse the process. As you step into the carriage, be careful to keep your back towards the seat you are about to occupy, so as to avoid the awkwardness of turning when you are once in.

ETIQUETTE FOR GENTLEMEN.

INTRODUCTIONS.

TO introduce persons who are mutually unknown is to undertake a serious responsibility, and to certify to each the respectability of the other. Never undertake this responsibility without in the first place asking yourself whether the persons are likely to be agreeable to each other; nor, in the second place, without ascertaining whether it will be acceptable to both parties to become acquainted.

Always introduce the gentleman to the lady—never the lady to the gentleman. The chivalry of etiquette assumes that the lady is invariably the superior in right of her sex, and that the gentleman is honored by the introduction.

Never present a gentleman to a lady without first asking her permission to do so.

When you are introduced to a lady, never offer your hand. When introduced, persons limit their recognition of each other to a bow.

Persons who have met at the house of a mutual friend without being introduced, should not bow if they afterwards meet elsewhere; a bow implies acquaintance, and persons who have not been introduced are not acquainted.

If you are walking with one friend, and presently meet with, or are joined by, a second, do not commit the too frequent error of introducing them to each other. You have even less right to do so than if they encountered each other at your house during a morning call.

There are some exceptions to the etiquette of introductions. At a ball or evening party, where there is dancing, the mistress of the house may introduce any gentleman to any lady without first asking the lady's permission. But she should first ascertain whether the lady is willing to dance; and this out of consideration for the gentleman, who may otherwise be refused. No man likes to be refused the hand of a lady, though it be only for a quadrille.

A brother may present his sister, or a father his son, without any kind of preliminary: but only when there is no inferiority on the part of his own family to that of the acquaintance.

Friends may introduce friends at the house of a mutual acquaintance, but, as a rule, it is better to be introduced by the mistress of the house. Such an introduction carries more authority with it.

Introductions at evening parties are now almost wholly dispensed with. Persons who meet at a friend's house are ostensibly upon an equality, and pay a bad compliment to the host by appearing suspicious and formal. Some old-fashioned country hosts yet persevere in introducing each newcomer to all the assembled guests. It is a custom that cannot be too soon abolished, and one that places the last unfortunate visitor in a singularly awkward position. All that he can do is to make a semicircular bow, like a concert singer before an audience, and bear the general gaze with as much composure as possible.

If, when you enter a drawing-room, your name has been wrongly announced, or has passed unheard in the buzz of conversation, make your way at once to the mistress of the house, if you are a stranger, and introduce yourself by name. This should be done with the greatest simplicity, and your professional or titular rank made as little of as possible.

An introduction given at a ball for the mere purpose of conducting a lady through a dance does not give the gentleman any right to bow to her on a future occasion. If he commits this error, he must remember that she is not bound to see or return his salutation.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

Do not lightly give or promise letters of introduction. Always remember that when you give a letter of introduction you lay yourself under an obligation to the friend to whom it is addressed.

No one delivers a letter of introduction in person. It places you in the most undignified position imaginable, and compels you to wait while it is being read, like a footman who has been told to wait for an answer.

If, on the other hand, a stranger sends you a letter of in-

troduction and his card, you are bound by the laws of politeness and hospitality, not only to call upon him the next day, but to follow up that attention with others. If you are in a position to do so, the most correct proceeding is to invite him to dine with you. Should this not be within your power, you have probably the *entrée* to some private collections, club-houses, theaters, or reading-rooms, and could devote a few hours to showing him these places.

A letter of introduction should be given unsealed, not alone because your friend may wish to know what you have said of him, but also as a guarantee of your own good faith. As you should never give such a letter unless you can speak highly of the bearer, this rule of etiquette is easy to observe. By requesting your friend to fasten the envelope before forwarding the letter to its destination you tacitly give him permission to inspect its contents.

Let your note paper be of the best quality and proper size.

VISITING.—MORNING CALLS.—CARDS.

A morning visit should be paid between the hours of 2 and 4 P.M. in winter, and 2 and 5 in summer.

Visits of ceremony should be short. If even the conversation should have become animated, beware of letting your call exceed half an hour's length. It is always better to let your friends regret rather than desire your withdrawal.

On returning visits of ceremony you may, without impoliteness, leave your card at the door without going in. Do not fail, however, to inquire if the family be well.

Should there be daughters or sisters residing with the lady upon whom you call, you may turn down a corner of your card, to signify that the visit is paid to all. It is in better taste, however, to leave cards for each.

Unless when returning thanks for "kind inquiries," or announcing your arrival in, or departure from, town, it is not considered respectful to send cards round by a servant.

Leave-taking cards have P.P.C. (*pour prendre congé*) written in the corner. Some use P.D.A. (*pour dire adieu*).

The visiting cards of gentlemen are half the size of those used by ladies.

Visits of condolence are paid within the week after the event which occasions them. Personal visits of this kind are made by relations and very intimate friends only. Acquaintances should leave cards with narrow mourning borders.

On the first occasion when you are received by the family after the death of one of its members, it is etiquette to wear slight mourning.

When a gentleman makes a morning call, he should never leave his hat or riding-whip in the hall, but should take both into the room. To do otherwise would be to make himself too much at home. The hat, however, must never be laid on a table, piano, or any article of furniture, it should be held gracefully in the hand. If you are compelled to lay it aside put it on the floor.

Umbrellas should invariably be left in the hall.

Never take favorite dogs into a drawing-room when you make a morning call. Their feet may be dusty, or they may bark at the sight of strangers, or, being of too friendly a disposition, may take the liberty of lying on a lady's gown, or jumping on the sofas and easy chairs. Where your friend has a favorite cat already established before the fire, a battle may ensue, and one or both of the pets be seriously hurt. Besides, many persons have a constitutional antipathy to dogs, and others never allow their own to be seen in the sitting-rooms. For all or any of these reasons a visitor has no right to inflict upon his friend the society of his dog as well as of himself.

If, when you call upon a lady, you meet a lady visitor in her drawing-room, you should rise when that lady takes her leave.

If other visitors are announced, and you have already remained as long as courtesy requires, wait till they are seated, and then rise from your chair, take leave of your hostess, and bow politely to the newly arrived guests. You will, perhaps, be urged to remain, but, having once risen, it is always best to go. There is always a certain air of *gaucherie* in resuming your seat and repeating the ceremony of leave taking.

If you have occasion to look at your watch during a call, ask permission to do so, and apologize for it on the plea of other appointments.

CONVERSATION.

Let your conversation be adapted as skillfully as may be to your company. Some men make a point of talking commonplaces to all ladies alike, as if a woman could only be a trifler. Others, on the contrary, seem to forget in what respects the education of a lady differs from that of a gentleman, and commit the opposite error of conversing on topics with which ladies are seldom acquainted. A woman of sense has as much right to be annoyed by the one, as a lady of ordinary education by the other. You cannot pay a finer compliment to a woman of refinement and *esprit* than by leading the conversation into such a channel as may mark your appreciation of her superior attainments.

In talking with ladies of ordinary education, avoid political, scientific, or commercial topics, and choose only such subjects as are likely to be of interest to them.

Remember that people take more interest in their own affairs than in anything else which you can name. If you wish your conversation to be thoroughly agreeable, lead a mother to talk of her children, a young lady of her last ball, an author of his forthcoming book, or an artist of his exhibition picture. Having furnished the topic, you need only listen; and you are sure to be thought not only agreeable, but thoroughly sensible and well-informed.

Be careful, however, on the other hand, not always to make a point of talking to persons upon general matters relating to their professions. To show an interest in their immediate concerns is flattering; but to converse with them too much about their own arts looks as if you thought them ignorant of other topics.

Do not use a classical quotation in the presence of ladies without apologizing for, or translating it. Even this should only be done when no other phrase would so aptly express your meaning. Whether in the presence of ladies or gentlemen, much display of learning is pedantic and out of place.

There is a certain distinct but subdued tone of voice which is peculiar to only well-bred persons. A loud voice is both

disagreeable and vulgar. It is better to err by the use of too low rather than too loud a tone.

Remember that all "slang" is vulgar.

Do not pun. Puns unless they rise to the rank of witticisms, are to be scrupulously avoided.

Long arguments in general company, however entertaining to the disputants, are tiresome to the last degree to all others. You should always endeavor to prevent the conversation from dwelling too long upon one topic.

Religion is a topic which should never be introduced in society. It is the one subject on which persons are most likely to differ, and least able to preserve temper.

Never interrupt a person who is speaking.

To listen well, is almost as great an art as to talk well. It is not enough *only* to listen. You must endeavor to seem interested in the conversation of others.

It is considered extremely ill-bred when two persons whisper in society, or converse in a language with which all present are not familiar. If you have private matters to discuss, you should appoint a proper time and place to do so, without paying others the ill compliment of excluding them from your conversation.

If a foreigner be one of the guests at a small-party, and does not understand English sufficiently to follow what is said, good-breeding demands that the conversation shall be carried on in his own language. If at a dinner-party, the same rule applies to those at his end of the table.

If upon the entrance of a visitor you carry on the thread of a previous conversation, you should briefly recapitulate to him what has been said before he arrived.

Always look, but never stare, at those with whom you converse.

In order to meet the general needs of conversation in society, it is necessary that a man should be well acquainted with the current news and historical events of at least the last few years.

Never talk upon subjects of which you know nothing, unless it be for the purpose of acquiring information. Many young men imagine that because they frequent exhibitions and operas they are qualified judges of art. No mistake is more egregious or universal.

Those who introduce anecdotes into their conversation are warned that these should invariably be "short, witty, eloquent, new, and not far-fetched."

Scandal is the least excusable of all conversational vulgarities.

In conversing with a man of rank, do not too frequently give him his title.

THE PROMENADE.

A well-bred man must entertain no respect for the brim of his hat. "A bow," says La Fontaine, "is a note drawn at sight." You are bound to acknowledge it immediately, and to the full amount. True politeness demands that the hat should be quite lifted from the head.

On meeting friends with whom you are likely to shake hands, remove your hat with the left hand in order to leave the right hand free.

If you meet a lady in the street whom you are sufficiently intimate to address, do not stop her, but turn round and walk beside her in whichever direction she is going. When you have said all that you wish to say, you can take your leave.

If you meet a lady with whom you are not particularly well acquainted, wait for her recognition before you venture to bow to her.

In bowing to a lady whom you are not going to address, lift your hat with that hand which is farthest from her. For instance, if you pass her on the right side, use your left hand; if on the left, use your right.

If you are on horseback and wish to converse with a lady who is on foot, you must dismount and lead your horse, so as not to give her the fatigue of looking up to your level. Neither should you subject her to the impropriety of carrying on a conversation in a tone necessarily louder than is sanctioned in public by the laws of good breeding.

When you meet friends or acquaintances in the streets, at the exhibitions, or any public places, take care not to pronounce their names so loudly as to attract the attention of the passers-by. Never call across the street; and never carry on a dialogue in a public vehicle, unless your interlocutor occupies the seat beside your own.

In walking with a lady, take charge of any small parcel, parasol, or book with which she may be encumbered.

DRESS.

A gentleman should always be so well dressed that his dress shall never be observed at all. Does this sound like an enigma? It is not meant for one. It only implies that perfect simplicity is perfect elegance, and that the true test of taste in the toilet of a gentleman is its entire harmony, unobtrusiveness, and becomingness. If any friend should say to you, "What a handsome waistcoat you have on!" you may depend that a less handsome waistcoat would be in better taste. If you hear it said that Mr. So-and-So wears superb jewelry, you may conclude beforehand that he wears too much. Display, in short, is ever to be avoided, especially in matters of dress. The toilet is the domain of the fair sex. Let a wise man leave its graces and luxuries to his wife, daughters, or sisters, and seek to be himself appreciated for something of higher worth than the stud in his shirt or the trinkets on his chain.

To be too much in the fashion is as vulgar as to be too far behind it. No really well-bred man follows every new cut that he sees in his tailor's fashion-book.

In the morning wear frock coats, double-breasted waistcoats, and trousers of light or dark colors, according to the season.

In the evening, though only in the bosom of your own family, wear only black, and be as scrupulous to put on a dress coat as if you expected visitors. If you have sons, bring them up to do the same. It is the observance of these minor trifles in domestic etiquette which marks the true gentleman.

For evening parties, dinner parties, and balls, wear a black dress coat, black trousers, black silk or cloth waistcoat, white cravat, white or gray kid gloves, and thin patent leather boots.

A black cravat may be worn in full dress, but is not so elegant as a white one.

Let your jewelry be of the best, but the least gaudy description, and wear it very sparingly. A single stud, a gold watch and guard, and one handsome ring, are as many ornaments as a gentleman can wear with propriety.

It is well to remember in the choice of jewelry that mere costliness is not always the test of value; and that an exquisite work of art, such as a fine cameo, or a natural rarity, such as a black pearl, is a more *distingué* possession than a large brilliant, which any rich and tasteless vulgarian can buy as easily as yourself. For a ring, the gentleman of fine taste would prefer a precious antiqe *intaglio* to the handsomest diamond or ruby that could be bought at Tiffany's.

Of all precious stones, the opal is one of the most lovely and the least common-place. No vulgar man purchases an opal. He invariably prefers the more showy diamond, ruby, sapphire, or emerald.

Unless you are a snuff-taker, never carry any but a white pocket-handkerchief.

If in the morning you wear a long cravat fastened by a pin, be careful to avoid what may be called *alliteration* of color. We have seen a turquois pin worn in a violet-colored cravat, and the effect was frightful. Choose, if possible, complementary colors, and their secondaries. For instance, if the stone in your pin be a turquois, wear it with brown, or crimson mixed with black, or black and orange. If a ruby, contrast it with shades of green. The same rule holds good with regard to the mixture and contrast of colors in your waistcoat and cravat. Thus, a buff waistcoat and a blue tie, or brown and blue, or brown and green, or brown and magenta, green and magenta, green and mauve, are all good arrangements of color.

Colored shirts may be worn in the morning; but they should be small in pattern and quiet in color.

In these days of public baths and universal progress, we trust that it is unnecessary to do more than hint at the necessity of the most fastidious personal cleanliness. The hair, the teeth, the nails, should be faultlessly kept; and a soiled shirt, a dingy pocket-handkerchief, or a light waistcoat that has been worn once too often, are things to be scrupulously avoided by any man who is ambitious of preserving the exterior of a gentleman.

RIDING AND DRIVING.

riding, as in walking, give the lady the wall.

If you assist a lady to mount, hold your hand at a convenient distance from the ground that she may place her foot in it. As she springs, you aid her by the impetus of your hand. In doing this, it is always better to agree upon a signal, that her spring and your assistance may come at the same moment.

For this purpose there is no better form than the old dueling one of "one, two, *three.*"

When the lady is in the saddle, it is your place to find the stirrup for her, and guide her left foot to it. When this is done, she rises in her seat and you assist her to draw her habit straight.

Even when a groom is present, it is more polite for the gentleman himself to perform this office for his fair companion; as it would be more polite for him to hand her a chair than to have it handed by a servant.

If the lady be light, you must take care not to give her too much impetus in mounting. We have known a lady nearly thrown over her horse by a misplaced zeal of this kind.

If a gate has to be opened, we need hardly observe that it is your place to hold it open till the lady has passed through.

In driving, a gentleman places himself with his back to the horses, and leaves the best seat for the ladies.

When the carriage stops, the gentleman should alight first, in order to assist the lady.

To get in and out of a carriage gracefully is a simple but important accomplishment. If there is but one step, and you are going to take your seat facing the horses, put your left foot on the step, and enter the carriage with your right in such a manner as to drop at once into your seat. If you are about to sit with your back to the horses, reverse the process. As you step into the carriage, be careful to keep your back towards the seat you are about to occupy, so as to avoid the awkwardness of turning when you are once in.

A gentleman cannot be too careful to avoid stepping on ladies' dresses when he gets in or out of a carriage. He should also beware of shutting them in with the door.

MORNING AND EVENING PARTIES.

Elegant morning dress, general good manners, and some acquaintance with the topics of the day and the games above named, are all the qualifications especially necessary to a gentleman at a morning party.

An evening party begins about nine o'clock P.M., and ends about midnight, or somewhat later. Good-breeding neither demands that you should present yourself at the commencement, nor remain till the close of the evening. You come and go as may be most convenient to you, and by these means are at liberty, during the height of the season when evening parties are numerous, to present yourself at two or three houses during a single evening.

At very large and fashionable receptions, the hostess is generally to be found near the door. Should you, however, find yourself separated by a dense crowd of guests, you are at liberty to recognize those who are near you, and those whom you encounter as you make your way slowly through the throng.

If you are at the house of a new acquaintance and find yourself among entire strangers, remember that by so meeting under one roof you are all in a certain sense made known to one another, and should therefore converse freely, as equals. To shrink away to a side-table and affect to be absorbed in some album or illustrated work; or, if you find one unlucky acquaintance in the room, to fasten upon him like a drowning man clinging to a spar, are *gaucheries* which no shyness can excuse. An easy and unembarrassed manner, and the self-possession requisite to open a conversation with those who happen to be near you, are the indispensable credentials of a well-bred man.

At an evening party do not remain too long in one spot

To be afraid to move from one drawing-room to another is the sure sign of a neophyte in society.

If you have occasion to use your handkerchief, do so as noiselessly as possible. To blow your nose as if it were a trombone, or to turn your head aside when using your handkerchief, are vulgarities scrupulously to be avoided.

Never stand upon the hearth with your back to the fire or stove, either in a friend's house or your own.

Never offer any one the chair from which you have just risen, unless there be no other disengaged.

If, when supper is announced, no lady has been specially placed under your care by the hostess, offer your arm to whichever lady you may have last conversed with.

If you possess any musical accomplishments, do not wait to be pressed and entreated by your hostess, but comply immediately when she pays you the compliment of inviting you to play or sing. Remember, however, that only the lady of the house has the right to ask you. If others do so, you can put them off in some polite way; but must not comply till the hostess herself invites you.

If you sing comic songs, be careful that they are of the most unexceptionable kind, and likely to offend neither the tastes nor prejudices of the society in which you find yourself.

If the party be of a small and social kind, and those games called by the French *les jeux innocents* are proposed, do not object to join in them when invited. It may be that they demand some slight exercise of wit and readiness, and that you do not feel yourself calculated to shine in them; but it is better to seem dull than disagreeable, and those who are obliging can always find some clever neighbor to assist them in the moment of need. The game of "consequences" is one which unfortunately gives too much scope to liberty of expression. If you join in this game, we cannot too earnestly enjoin you never to write down one word which the most pure-minded woman present might not read aloud without a blush. Jests of an equivocal character are not only vulgar, but contemptible.

Impromptu charades are frequently organized at friendly parties. Unless you have really some talent for acting and some readiness of speech, you should remember that you only put others out and expose your own inability by taking part in these entertainments. Of course, if your help is really needed and you would disoblige by refusing, you must do your best, and by doing it as quietly and coolly as possible, avoid being awkward or ridiculous.

Should an impromptu polka or quadrille be got up after supper at a party where no dancing was intended, be sure not to omit putting on gloves before you stand up. It is well always to have a pair of white gloves in your pocket in case of need; but even black are better under these circumstances than none.

Even though you may take no pleasure in cards, some knowledge of the etiquette and rules belonging to the games most in vogue is necessary to you in society.

Never let even politeness induce you to play for high stakes. Etiquette is the minor morality of life; but it never should be allowed to outweigh the higher code of right and wrong.

Be scrupulous to observe silence when any of the company are playing or singing. Remember that they are doing this for the amusement of the rest; and that to talk at such a time is as ill-bred as if you were to turn your back upon a person who was talking to you, and begin a conversation with some one else.

If you are yourself the performer, bear in mind that in music, as in speech, "brevity is the soul of wit." Two verses of a song, or four pages of a piece, are at all times enough to give pleasure. If your audience desire more they will ask for it; and it is infinitely more flattering to be encored than to receive the thanks of you hearers, not so much in gratitude for what you have given them, but in relief that you have left off. You should try to suit your music, like your conversation, to your company. A solo of Beethoven's would be as much out of place in some circles as a comic song at a Quakers' meeting. To those who only care for the light popularities of the season, give Verdi. To connoisseurs, if you perform well enough to venture, give such music as will be likely to meet the exigencies of a fine taste. Above all, attempt nothing that you cannot execute with ease and precision.

In retiring from a crowded party it is unnecessary that you should seek out the hostess for the purpose of bidding her a formal good-night. By doing this you would, perhaps, remind others that it was getting late, and cause the party to break up. If you meet the lady of the house on your way to the drawing-room door, take your leave of her as unobtrusively as possible, and slip away without attracting the attention of her other guests.

THE DINNER TABLE.

To be acquainted with every detail of the etiquette pertaining to this subject is of the highest importance to every gentleman. Ease, *savoir faire*, and good-breeding are nowhere more indispensable than at the dinner-table, and the absence of them is nowhere more apparent.

An invitation to dine should be replied to immediately, and unequivocally accepted or declined. Once accepted, nothing but an event of the last importance should cause you to fail in your engagement.

To be exactly punctual is the strictest politeness on these occasions. If you are too early, you are in the way; if too late, you spoil the dinner, annoy the hostess, and are hated by the rest of the guests. Some authorities are even of opinion that in the question of a dinner-party "never" is better than "late"; and one author has gone so far as to say, "if you do not reach the house till dinner is served, you had better retire to a restaurateur's, and thence send an apology, and not interrupt the harmony of the courses by awkward excuses and cold acceptance."

When the party is assembled, the mistress or master of the house will point out to each gentleman the lady whom he is to conduct to table. If she be a stranger, you had better seek an introduction; if a previous acquaintance, take care to be near her when the dinner is announced; offer your arm, and go down according to precedence. This order of precedence must be arranged by the host or hostess.

When dinner is announced, the host offers his arm to the lady of most distinction, invites the rest to follow by a few words or a bow, and leads the way. The lady of the house should then follow with the gentleman who is most entitled to that honor, and the visitors follow in the order that the master of the house has previously arranged. The lady of the house frequently remains, however, till the last, that she may see her guests go down in their prescribed order; but the plan is not a convenient one. It is much better that the hostess should be in her place as the guests enter the dining-room, in order that she may indicate their seats to them as they come in, and not find them all crowded together in uncertainty when she arrives. If cards with names are on the table seek that of the lady whom you have taken to dinner.

The number of guests at a dinner-party should always be determined by the size of the table. When the party is too small, conversation flags, and a general air of desolation pervades the table. When they are too many, every one is inconvenienced. A space of two feet should be allowed to each person. It is well to arrange a party in such wise that the number of ladies and gentlemen be equal.

The lady of the house takes the head of the table. The gentleman who led her down to dinner occupies the seat on her right hand, and the gentleman next in order of precedence that on her left. The master of the house takes the foot of the table. The lady whom he escorted sits on his right hand, and the lady next in order of precedence on his left.

The gentlemen who support the lady of the house should offer to relieve her of the duties of hostess. Many ladies are well pleased thus to delegate the difficulties of carving, and all gentlemen who accept invitations to dinner should be prepared to render such assistance when called upon. To offer to carve a dish, and then perform the office unskillfully, is an unpardonable *gaucherie*. Every gentleman should carve, and carve well.

As soon as you are seated at table, remove your gloves, place your table napkin across your knees, and remove the roll which you find probably within it to the left side of your plate.

The soup should be placed on the table first.

In eating soup, remember always to take it from the side of the spoon, and to make no sound in doing so.

If the servants do not go round with wine the gentlemen should help the ladies and themselves to sherry or sauterne immediately after the soup.

You should never ask for a second supply of either soup or fish; it delays the next course and keeps the table waiting.

Never offer to "assist" your neighbors to this or that dish. The word is inexpressibly vulgar—all the more vulgar for its affectation of elegance. "Shall I send you some mutton?" or "may I help you to canvas back?" is better chosen and better bred.

If you are asked to take wine, it is polite to select the same as that which your interlocutor is drinking. If you invite a lady to take wine, you should ask her which she will prefer, and then take the same yourself. Should you, however, for any reason prefer some other vintage, you can take it by courteously requesting her permission.

As soon as you are helped, begin to eat; or, if the viands are too hot for your palate, take up your knife and fork and appear to begin. To wait for others is now not only old-fashioned, but ill-bred.

Never offer to pass on the plate to which you have been helped.

In helping soup, fish, or any other dish, remember that to overfill a plate is as bad as to supply it too scantily.

Silver fish-knives will now always be met with at the best tables; but where there are none, a piece of crust should be taken in the left hand, and the fork in the right. There is no exception to this rule in eating fish.

We presume it is scarcely necessary to remind the reader that he is never, under any circumstances, to convey his knife to his mouth. Peas are eaten with the fork; tarts, curry, and puddings of all kinds with the spoon.

Always help fish with a fish-slice, and tart and puddings with a spoon, or, if necessary, a spoon and fork.

Asparagus must be helped with the asparagus-tongs.

In eating asparagus, it is well to observe what others do, and act accordingly. Some very well-bred people eat it with the fingers; others cut off the heads, and convey them to the mouth upon the fork. It would be difficult to say which is the more correct.

In eating stone fruit, such as cherries, damsons, etc., the same rule had better be observed. Some put the stones out from the mouth into a spoon, and so convey them to the plate. Others cover the lips with the hand, drop them unseen into the palm, and so deposit them on the side of the plate. In our own opinion, the latter is the better way, as it effectually conceals the return of the stones, which is certainly the point of highest importance. Of one thing we may be sure, and that is, that they must never be dropped from the mouth to the plate.

In helping sauce, always pour it on the side of the plate.

If the servants do not go round with the wine (which is by far the best custom), the gentlemen at a dinner table should take upon themselves the office of helping those ladies who sit near them. Ladies take more wine in the present day than they did fifty years ago, and gentlemen should remember this, and offer it frequently. Ladies cannot very well ask for wine, but they can always decline it. At all events they do not like to be neglected, or to see gentlemen liberally helping themselves, without observing whether their fair neighbors' glasses are full or empty.

The habit of taking wine with each other has almost wholly gone out of fashion. A gentleman may ask the lady whom he conducted down to dinner, or he may ask the lady of the house to take wine with him. But even these last remnants of the old custom are fast falling into disuse.

Unless you are a total abstainer, it is extremely uncivil to decline taking wine if you are invited to do so. In accepting, you have only to pour a little fresh wine into your glass, look at the person who invited you, bow slightly, and take a sip from the glass.

It is particularly ill-bred to empty your glass on these occasions.

Certain wines are taken with certain dishes, by old-established custom—as sherry or sauterne, with soup and fish.

hock and claret, with roast meat; punch with turtle; champagne with sweet-bread and cutlets; port with venison; port or burgundy, with game; sparkling wines between the roast and the confectionery; madeira with sweets; port with cheese; and for dessert, port, tokay, madeira, sherry and claret. Red wines should never be iced, even in summer. Claret and burgundy should always be slightly warmed; claret-cup and champagne-cup should, of course, be iced.

Instead of cooling their wines in the ice pail, some hosts introduce clear ice upon the table, broken up in small lumps, to be put inside the glasses. This cannot be too strongly reprehended. Melting ice can but weaken the quality and flavor of the wine. Those who desire to drink *wine and water*, can ask for iced water if they choose, but it savors too much of economy on the part of the host to insinuate the ice inside the glasses of his guests when the wine could be more effectually iced outside the bottle.

A silver knife and fork should be placed to each guest at dessert.

If you are asked to prepare fruit for a lady, be careful to do so by means of the silver knife and fork only, and never to touch it with your fingers.

It is wise never to partake of any dish without knowing of what ingredients it is composed. You can always ask the servant who hands it to you, and you thereby avoid all danger of having to commit the impoliteness of leaving it, and showing that you do not approve of it.

Never speak while you have anything in your mouth.

Be careful never to taste soups or puddings till you are sure they are sufficiently cool; as, by disregarding this caution, you may be compelled to swallow what is dangerously hot, or be driven to the unpardonable alternative of returning it to your plate.

When eating or drinking, avoid every kind of audible testimony to the fact.

Finger-glasses, containing water slightly warmed and perfumed, are placed to each person at dessert. In these you may dip the tips of your fingers, wiping them afterwards on your table-napkin. If the finger-glass and doyley are placed on your dessert-plate, you should immediately remove the doyley to the left of your plate, and place the finger-glass upon it. By these means you leave the right for the wine-glasses.

Be careful to know the shapes of the various kinds of wine-glasses commonly in use, in order that you may never put forward one for another. High and narrow, and very broad and shallow glasses, are used for champagne; large, goblet-shaped glasses for burgundy and claret; ordinary wine-glasses for sherry and madeira; green glasses for hock; and somewhat large, bell-shaped glasses for port.

Port, sherry, and madeira are decanted. Hocks and champagnes appear in their native bottles. Claret and burgundy are handed around in a claret jug.

Coffee and liqueurs should be handed round when the dessert has been about a quarter of an hour on the table. After this, the ladies generally retire.

Should no servant be present to do so, the gentleman who is nearest the door should hold it for the ladies to pass through.

When the ladies are leaving the dining-room, the gentlemen all rise in their places, and do not resume their seats till the last lady is gone.

If you should unfortunately overturn or break anything, do not apologize for it. You can show your regret in your face, but it is not well-bred to put it into words.

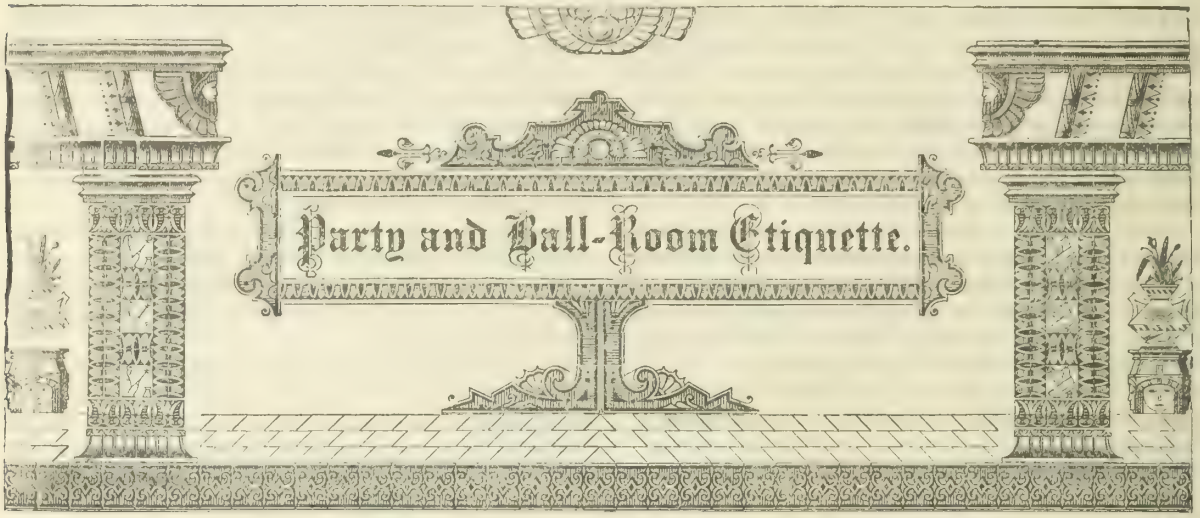
Should you injure a lady's dress, apologize amply, and assist her, if possible, to remove all traces of the damage.

To abstain from taking the last piece on the dish, or the last glass of wine in the decanter, only because it is the last, is highly ill-bred. It implies a fear that the vacancy cannot be supplied, and almost conveys an affront to your host.

In summing up the little duties and laws of the table, a popular author has said that—"The chief matter of consideration at the dinner-table—as, indeed, everywhere else in the life of a gentleman—is to be perfectly composed and at his ease. He speaks deliberately; he performs the most important act of the day as if he were performing the most ordinary. Yet there is no appearance of trifling or want of gravity in his manner, he maintains the dignity which is so becoming on so vital an occasion. He performs all the ceremonies, yet in the style of one who who performs no ceremonies at all. He goes through all the complicated duties of the scene as if he were 'to the manner born.'"

To the giver of a dinner we have but one or two remarks to offer. If he be a bachelor, he had better give his dinner at a good hotel. If a married man, he will, we presume, enter into council with his wife and his cook. In any case, however, he should always bear in mind that it is his duty to entertain his friends in the best manner that his means permit; and that this is the least he can do to recompense them for the expenditure of time and money which they incur in accepting his invitation.

In conclusion, we may observe that to sit long in the dining-room after the ladies have retired is to pay a bad compliment to the hostess and her fair visitors; and that it is still worse to rejoin them with a flushed face and impaired powers of thought. A refined gentleman is always temperate.



I.—HOW TO ORGANIZE A DANCING PARTY OR BALL.

AS the number of guests at a dinner-party is regulated by the size of the table, so should the number of invitations to a ball be limited by the proportions of the dancing or ball-room. A prudent hostess will always invite a few more guests than she really desires to entertain, in the certainty that there will be some deserters when the appointed evening comes round; but she will at the same time remember that to overcrowd her room is to spoil the pleasure of those who love dancing, and that a party of this kind when too numerously attended is as great a failure as one at which too few are present.

A room which is nearly square, yet a little longer than it is broad, will be found the most favorable for a ball. It admits of two quadrille parties, or two round dances, at the same time. In a perfectly square room this arrangement is not so practicable or pleasant. A very long and narrow room, and their number in this country is legion, is obviously of the worst shape for the purpose of dancing, and is fit only for quadrilles and country dances.

The top of the ball room is the part nearest the musicians. In a private room, the top is where it would be if the room were a dining-room. It is generally at the farthest point from the door. Dancers should be careful to ascertain the top of the room before taking their places, as the top couples always lead the dances.

A good floor is of the first importance in a ball-room. In a private house, nothing can be better than a smooth, well-stretched holland, with the carpet beneath.

Abundance of light and free ventilation are indispensable to the spirits and comfort of the dancers.

Good music is as necessary to the prosperity of a ball as good wine to the excellence of a dinner. No hostess should tax her friends for this part of the entertainment. It is the most injurious economy imaginable. Ladies who would prefer to dance are tied to the pianoforte; and as few amateurs have been trained in the art of playing dance music, with that strict attention to time and accent which is absolutely necessary to the comfort of the dancers, a total and general discontent is sure to be the result. To play dance music thoroughly well is a branch of the art which requires considerable practice. It is as different from every other kind of playing as whale fishing is from fly fishing. Those who give private balls will do well ever to bear this in mind, and to provide skilled musicians for the evening. For a small party, a piano and cornopean make a very pleasant combination. Unless where several instruments are engaged we do not recommend the introduction of the violin; although in some respects the finest of all solo instruments, it is apt to sound thin and shrill when employed on mere inexpressive dance tunes, and played by a mere dance player.

Invitations to a ball or dance should be issued in the name of the lady of the house, and written on small note-paper of the best quality. Elegant printed forms, some of them printed in gold or silver, are to be had at every stationer's by those who prefer them. The paper may be gilt-edged, but not colored.

An invitation to a ball should be sent out at least ten days before the evening appointed. A fortnight, three weeks, and even a month may be allowed in the way of notice.

Not more than two or three days should be permitted to elapse before you reply to an invitation of this kind. The reply should always be addressed to the lady of the house, and should be couched in the same person as the invitation. The following are the forms generally in use:—

Mrs. Molyneux requests the honor of Captain Hamilton's company at an evening party, on Monday, March the 11th instant.

Dancing will begin at Nine o'clock.

Thursday, March 1st

Captain Hamilton has much pleasure in accepting Mrs. Molyneux's polite invitation for Monday evening, March the 11th instant.

Friday, March 2d.

The old form of "presenting compliments" is now out of fashion.

If Mrs. Molyneux writes to Captain Hamilton in the first

person, as "My dear Sir," he is bound in etiquette to reply "My dear Madam."

The lady who gives a ball * should endeavor to secure an equal number of dancers of both sexes. Many private parties are spoiled by the preponderance of young ladies, some of whom never get partners at all, unless they dance with each other.

A room should in all cases be provided for the accommodation of the ladies. In this room there ought to be several looking-glasses; attendants to assist the fair visitors in the arrangement of their hair and dress; and some place in which the cloaks and shawls can be laid in order, and found at a moment's notice. It is well to affix tickets to the cloaks, giving a duplicate at the same time to each lady, as at the public theaters and concert rooms. Needles and thread should also be at hand, to repair any little accident incurred in dancing.

Another room should be devoted to refreshments, and kept amply supplied with coffee, lemonade, ices, wine, and biscuits during the evening. Where this cannot be arranged, the refreshments should be handed round between the dances.

The question of supper is one which so entirely depends on the means of those who give a ball or evening party, that very little can be said upon it in a treatise of this description. Where money is no object, it is of course always preferable to have the whole supper, "with all appliances and means to boot," sent in from some first-rate house. It spares all trouble whether to the entertainers or their servants, and relieves the hostess of every anxiety. Where circumstances render such a course imprudent, we would only observe that a home-provided supper, however simple, should be good of its kind, and abundant in quantity. Dancers are generally hungry people, and feel themselves much aggrieved if the supply of sandwiches proves unequal to the demand.

II.—BALL-ROOM TOILETTE.

LADIES.

The style of a lady's dress is a matter so entirely dependent on age, means, and fashion, that we can offer but little advice upon it. Fashion is so variable, that statements which are true of it to-day may be false a month hence. Respecting no institution of modern society is it so difficult to pronounce half-a-dozen permanent rules.

We may perhaps be permitted to suggest the following leading principles; but we do so with diffidence. Rich colors harmonize with rich brunette complexions and dark hair. Delicate colors are the most suitable for delicate and fragile styles of beauty. Very young ladies are never so suitably attired as in white. Ladies who dance should wear dresses of light and diaphanous materials, such as *tulle*, gauze, crape, net, etc., over colored silk slips. Silk dresses are not suitable for dancing. A married lady who dances only a few quadrilles may wear a *decolleté* silk dress with propriety.

Very stout persons should never wear white. It has the effect of adding to the bulk of the figure.

Black and scarlet or black and violet are worn in mourning.

A lady in deep mourning should not dance at all.

However fashionable it may be to wear very long dresses, those ladies who go to a ball with the intention of dancing and enjoying the dance, should cause their dresses to be made short enough to clear the ground. We would ask them whether it is not better to accept this slight deviation from an absurd fashion, than to appear for three parts of the evening in a torn and pinned-up skirt.

Well-made shoes, whatever their color or material, and faultless gloves, are indispensable to the effect of a ball-room toilette.

Much jewelry is out of place in a ball-room. Beautiful flowers, whether natural or artificial, are the loveliest ornaments that a lady can wear on these occasions.

GENTLEMEN.

A black suit, thin enameled boots, a white neckcloth, and white or delicate gray gloves, are the chief points of a gentleman's ball-room toilette. He may wear a plain-bosomed shirt with one stud. White waistcoats are now fashionable. Much display of jewelry is no proof of good taste. A handsome watch-chain with, perhaps, the addition of a few costly trifles suspended to it, and a single shirt-stud, are the only adornments of this kind that a gentleman should wear.

A gentleman's dress is necessarily so simple that it admits of no compromise in point of quality and style. The material should be the best that money can procure, and the fashion unexceptionable. So much of the outward man depends on his tailor, that we would urge no gentleman to economize in this matter.

ETIQUETTE OF THE BALL-ROOM.

On entering the ball-room, the visitor should at once seek the lady of the house, and pay his respects to her. Having done this, he may exchange salutations with such friends and acquaintances as may be in the room.

If the ball be a public one, and a gentleman desires to dance with any lady to whom he is a stranger, he must apply to a member of the floor committee for an introduction.

Even in private balls, no gentleman can invite a lady to dance without a previous introduction. This introduction should be effected through the lady of the house or a member of her family.

No lady should accept an invitation to dance from a gentleman to whom she has not been introduced. In case any gentleman should commit the error of so inviting her, she should not excuse herself on the plea of a previous engagement or of fatigue, as to do so would imply that she did not herself attach due importance to the necessary ceremony of introduction. Her best reply would be to the effect that she would have much pleasure in accepting his invitation if he would procure an introduction to her. This observation may be taken as applying only to public balls. At a private party the host and hostess are sufficient guarantees for the respectability of their guests; and although a gentleman would show a singular want of knowledge of the laws of society in acting

* It will be understood that we use the word "ball" to signify a private party where there is dancing, as well as a public ball.

as we have supposed, the lady who should reply to him as if he were merely an impertinent stranger in a public assembly-room would be implying an affront to her entertainers. The mere fact of being assembled together under the roof of a mutual friend, is in itself a kind of general introduction of the guests to each other.

An introduction given for the mere purpose of enabling a lady and gentleman to go through a dance together does not constitute an acquaintanceship. The lady is at liberty, should she feel like doing so, to pass the gentleman the next day without recognition.

To attempt to dance without a knowledge of dancing is not only to make one's self ridiculous, but one's partner also. No lady or gentleman has a right to place a partner in this absurd position.

Never forget a ball-room engagement. To do so is to commit an unpardonable offense against good breeding.

It is not necessary that a lady or gentleman should be acquainted with the *steps* in order to walk gracefully and easily through a quadrille. An easy carriage and a knowledge of the figure is all that is requisite. A round dance, however, should on no account be attempted without a thorough knowledge of the steps and some previous practice.

No person who has not a good ear for time and tune need hope to dance well.

At the conclusion of a dance the gentleman bows to his partner, and either promenades with her round the room or takes her to a seat. Where a room is set apart for refreshments he offers to conduct her thither. At a public ball no gentleman would, of course, permit a lady to pay for refreshments. Good taste forbids that a lady and gentleman should dance too frequently together at either a public or private ball. Engaged persons should be careful not to commit this conspicuous solecism.

If a lady happens to forget a previous engagement, and stands up with another partner, the gentleman whom she has thus slighted is bound to believe that she has acted from mere inadvertence, and should by no means suffer his pride to master his good temper. To cause a disagreeable scene in a private ball-room is to affront your host and hostess, and to make yourself absurd. In a public room it is no less reprehensible.

Always remember that good breeding and good temper (or the appearance of good temper) are inseparably connected.

Young gentlemen are earnestly advised not to limit their conversation to remarks on the weather and the heat of the room. It is to a certain extent incumbent on them to do something more than dance when they invite a lady to join a quadrille. If it be only upon the news of the day, a gentleman should be able to afford at least three or four observations to his partner in the course of a long half hour.

Gentlemen who dance cannot be too careful not to injure the dresses of the ladies who do them the honor to stand up with them. The young men of the present day are singularly careless in this respect, and when they have torn a lady's delicate skirt appear to think the mischief they have done scarcely worth the trouble of an apology.

A gentleman conducts his last partner to the supper-room, and having waited upon her while there, re-conducts her to the ball-room.

Never attempt to take a place in a dance which has been previously engaged.

A thoughtful hostess will never introduce a bad dancer to a good one, because she has no right to punish one friend in order to oblige another.

It is not customary for married persons to dance together in society.

IV.—THE QUADRILLE.

The Quadrille is the most universal, as it is certainly the most sociable of all fashionable dances. It admits of pleasant conversation, frequent interchange of partners, and is adapted to every age, the young or old; the ponderous *paterfamilias* or his sylph-like daughter, may with equal propriety take part in its easy and elegant figures. Even an occasional blunder is of less consequence in this dance than in many others, for each personage is in some degree free as to his own movements, not being compelled by the continual embrace of his partner to dance either better or worse than he may find convenient.

People now generally walk through a quadrille. Nothing more than a perfect knowledge of the figure, a graceful demeanor, and a correct ear for the time of the music are requisite to enable any one to take a creditable part in this dance.

As soon as a gentleman has engaged his partner for the quadrille, he should endeavor to secure as his *vis-à-vis* some friend or acquaintance and should then lead his partner to the top of the quadrille, provided that post of honor be still vacant. He will place the lady always at his right hand.

Quadrille music is divided into eight bars for each part of the figure; two steps should be taken in every bar; every movement thus invariably consists of eight or four steps.

It is well not to learn too many new figures: the memory is liable to become confused among them; besides which, it is doubtful whether your partner, or your *vis-à-vis*, is as learned in the matter as yourself. Masters are extremely fond of inventing and teaching new figures; but you will do well to confine your attention to a few simple and universally received sets, which you will find quite sufficient for your purpose. We begin with the oldest and most common, the

FIRST SET OF QUADRILLES.

First Figure.—Le Pantalon.

The couples at the top and bottom of the quadrille cross to each other's places in eight steps, occupying four bars of the time; re-cross immediately to their own places, which completes the movement of eight bars. This is called the *Chaine Anglaise*. The gentleman always keeps to the right of *vis-à-vis* lady in crossing, thus placing her *inside*.

Set to partners, or *balancez*; turn your partners. (This occupies the second eight bars.) Ladies chain, or *chaine des dames*. (Eight bars more.) Each couple crosses to opposite couple's place, gentleman giving his hand to his partner: this is called half-promenade. Couples recross right and left to

their places, without giving hands, which completes another eight bars, and ends the figure.

The side couples repeat what the top and bottom couples have done.

Second Figure.—L'Eté.

The ladies in all the top couples, and their *vis-à-vis* gentlemen, advance four steps, and retire the same, repeating this movement once again, which makes the first eight bars.

Top ladies and *vis-à-vis* gentlemen cross to each other's places; advance four steps; retreat ditto; cross back towards partners, who set to them as they advance; turn partners, which ends first half of figure.

Second ladies and top *vis-à-vis* gentlemen execute the same movements. Then side couples begin, the privilege of commencement being conferred on those ladies who stand at the *right* of the top couples.

This figure is sometimes performed in a different manner, known as double *L'Eté*. Instead of the top lady and *vis-à-vis* gentleman advancing alone, they advance with partners, joining hands; cross and return, as in the single figure. This variation is, however, somewhat out of vogue, except (as will presently be seen) in the last figure of the quadrille, where it is still frequently introduced.

Third Figure.—La Poule.

Top lady and *vis-à-vis* gentleman cross to each other's places, giving right hand in passing; cross back again with left hand. (Eight bars.) The two couples form in a line, and join hands, the left hand of one holding the right hand of his or her neighbor, so that each faces different ways; in this position all four *balancez*, then half promenade with partner to opposite place: top lady and *vis-à-vis* gentleman advance four steps and retire ditto. (2d eight bars.) Both top and bottom couples advance together, and retire the same; then re-cross right and left to places. (3d eight bars.) Second lady and first opposite gentleman repeat figure. Side couples repeat, observing same rule for commencement as in *L'Eté*.

Fourth Figure.—La Trenise.

Top couples join hands, advance four steps and retreat ditto; advance again, gentleman leaving lady at left hand of *vis-à-vis* gentleman, and retiring alone. (1st eight bars.) Two ladies advance, crossing to opposite side; gentleman advances to meet his partner, *vis-à-vis* lady returns to hers. (2d eight bars.) *Balancez;* turns partners to places. (3d eight bars.) Second couple performs same figure; side couples repeat as before.

If *La Pastorale* be preferred, it will be performed thus:—Top couples advance and retreat; advance, gentleman leading lady to left hand of *vis-à-vis* gentleman; he advances with both ladies four steps, retreating ditto; again advancing he leaves both ladies with first gentleman, retreating alone; top gentleman and both ladies advance and retreat; again advance, joining hands in circle, go half round, half promenade to opposite places, then return right and left to their own. Second couples and side couples repeat as before.

Fifth Figure.—La Finale.

Begin with the *grand rond* or great round; that is, the whole quadrille; first and second couples and sides join hands all around, advance four steps, and retreat ditto. *L'Eté* is now sometimes introduced, the *grand rond* being repeated between each division of the figure. But it gives a greater variety and *brio* to the quadrille if, after the first *grand rond*, the following figure be performed, the *galop* step being used throughout. Each gentleman (at top and bottom couples) takes his lady round the waist, as for the *galop;* advance four steps, retreat ditto, advance again, cross to opposite places; advance, retreat, re-cross to own places. Ladies chain; half promenade across; half right and left to places; *grand rond.* Side couples repeat figure. *Grand rond* between each division and at the conclusion. Bow to your partners, and conduct your lady to seat.

V.—THE LANCERS.

The Lancers Quadrille is perhaps the most graceful and animated of any. Within the last few years it has become a great favorite in fashionable circles. It admits of much skill and elegance in executing its quick and varied figures, a correct acquaintance with which is absolutely requisite to all who take part in it. Unlike the common quadrille, the Lancers must be danced by four couples only in each set; though of course there can be many sets dancing at the same time. The number being so limited, one awkward or ignorant person confuses the whole set; therefore, it is indispensable that every one who dances in this quadrille should have a thorough mastery of its graceful intricacies. We have observed that of late it has become the fashion to substitute new tunes and new figures for the old well-known music of the Lancers Quadrille. We cannot consider this an improvement. The old simple melodies are peculiarly fitted to the sprightly, joyous character of the dance; which is more than can be said for any of the modern substitutes. When these are used, the Lancers, in our opinion, loses its individuality and spirit, becoming almost like a common quadrille. We should be heartily glad to see the old tunes restored, once for all, to their rightful supremacy.

The sets of four couples, top, opposite, and sides, having been arranged, the dance begins as follows:—

1*st Figure.*—First lady and opposite gentleman advance and retreat; advance again, joining their hands; pass round each other and back to places. (1st eight bars.) Top couple join hands, and cross, opposite couple crossing at the same time, separately, outside them; the same reversed, back to places. (2d eight bars.) All the couples *balancez* to corners; each gentleman turns his neighbor's partner back to places. (3d eight bars.) Second couple repeat figure from beginning; after them side couples, those who stand to the right of top couple having always the priority, as in the common quadrille.

2*d Figure.*—First couple advance and retreat, gentleman holding lady's left hand; advance again; gentleman leaves his partner in the center of the quadrille, and retires to place. (1st eight bars.) *Balancez* to each other and turn to places. (2d eight bars.) Side couples join first and second couples, forming a line of four on either side. Each line advances four steps, retreats ditto; then advances again, each gentleman reclaiming his partner, and all turn to places. Second and side couples repeat figure in succession.

3d Figure.—First lady advances four steps alone, and stops; *vis-à-vis* gentleman does the same; first lady retires, facing gentleman, to whom she makes a slow profound courtesy. (The courtesy must occupy a bar or two of the music; and as, if made with grace and dignity, it is most effective, we would recommend ladies to practice it carefully beforehand.) The gentleman at the same time bows and retires (1st eight bars). All four ladies advance to center, give right hands across to each other (which is called the *double chain*), and left hand to *vis-à-vis* gentleman; then back again, left hands across in the middle, and right hands to partners back to places. (2d eight bars.) Second and side couples repeat figure from commencement.

A more recent fashion for dancing this figure is as follows: Instead of one lady advancing at first, all four advance, and courtesy to each other; then turn and courtesy to their partners. Ladies do the *moulinet* in the center; that is, give right hands across to each other, and half round; left hands across back again, and return to places. Gentlemen meantime all move round outside the ladies, till each has regained his place. Figure as usual repeated four times; but the second and fourth time the gentlemen advance instead of the ladies, and bow, first to each other, then to their partners; continuing as before through the rest of the figure.

4th Figure.—Top gentleman, taking partner's left hand, leads her to the couple on their right, to whom they bow and courtesy (which civility must be met with the like acknowledgment), then cross quickly to fourth couple, and do the same. (1st eight bars.) All four couples *chassez croisez* right and left (gentleman invariably passing behind his partner), then turn hands (*tour des mains*) back to places. (2d eight bars.) First and opposite couples right and left across and back again to places. (3d eight bars.) Second and sides repeat as usual.

5th Figure.—This figure commences with the music. Each couple should stand ready, the gentleman facing his partner, his right hand holding hers. If every one does not start directly the music begins, and does not observe strict time throughout, this somewhat intricate figure becomes hopelessly embarrassed; but, when well danced, it is the prettiest of the set. It commences with the *grande chaine* all round; each gentleman giving his right hand to his partner at starting, his left to the next lady, then his right again, and so all round, till all have returned to their places. (This occupies sixteen bars of the music.) First couple promenade inside figure, returning to places with their backs turned to opposite couple. The side couple on their right falls in immediately behind them; the fourth couple follows, the second couple remaining in their places. A double line is thus formed—ladies on one side and gentlemen on the other. (3d eight bars.) All *chassez croisez*, ladies left, gentlemen right, behind partners. First lady leads off, turning sharply round to the right; first gentleman does the same to the left, meeting at the bottom of the quadrille, and promenade back to places. All the ladies follow first lady; all the gentlemen follow first gentleman; and as each meets his partner at the bottom of the figure, they touch hands, then fall back in two lines—ladies on one side, gentlemen on the other—facing each other. (4th eight bars.) Four ladies join hands, advance, and retreat; four gentlemen ditto at the same time; then each turns his partner to places (5th eight bars.) *Grande chaine* again. Second and side couples repeat the whole figure in succession, each couple taking its turn to lead off, as the first had done. *Grande chaine* between each figure and in conclusion.

VI.—THE LANCERS FOR SIXTEEN, OR DOUBLE LANCERS.

1st Figure.—Two first ladies and *vis-à-vis* gentlemen begin at the same moment, and go through the figure as in Single Lancers. All *balancez* to corners; in other words, each lady sets to gentlemen at her right, who turns her to her place. Second couples and sides repeat as usual.

2d Figure.—First couples advance, retreat, advance again, leaving ladies in center; set to partners and turn to places. Two side couples nearest first couples join them; two side couples nearest second couples do the same, thus forming eight in each line. They all advance and retreat, holding hands, then turn partners to places. Repeated by second and side couples as usual.

3d Figure.—First ladies advance and stop; *vis-à-vis* gentlemen ditto; courtesy profoundly, bow, and back to places. Ladies do the *moulinet*, gentlemen go round outside, and back to places. Or, ladies advance and courtesy to each other and then to partners; gentlemen doing the same when the second and fourth couples begin the figure, as in Single Lancers.

4th Figure.—First couples advance to couples on their right; bow and courtesy; cross to opposite side, bow and courtesy, *chassez croisez*, and return to place. Right and left to opposite places, and back again. Second couples and sides repeat figure.

5th Figure.—*Grande chaine* all round, pausing at the end of every eight bars to bow and courtesy; continue *chaine* back to places, which will occupy altogether thirty-two bars of the music. Figure almost the same as in Single Lancers. Both first couples lead around, side couples falling in behind, thus forming four sets of lines. Figure repeated by second and side couples; *grande chaine* between each figure and at the conclusion.

VII. DOUBLE QUADRILLE.

This quadrille contains the same figures as the common quadrille, but so arranged that they are danced by four instead of two couples. All quadrille music suits it; and it occupies just half the time of the old quadrille. It makes an agreeable variety in the movements of the dance, and is easily learned. It requires four couples.

First Figure.—Pantalon.

First and second couples right and left, whilst side couples dance the *chaine Anglaise* outside them. All four couples set to partners and turn them. Four ladies form ladies' chain, or hands across in the middle of the figure, giving first right hands, and then left, back to places. Half promenade, first and second couples do *chaine Anglaise*, while side couples do *grande chaine* round them. This leaves all in their right places, and ends figure.

Second Figure.—L'Etc.

First lady, and lady on her right hand, perform the figure with their *vis-à-vis* gentlemen, as in common *L'Eté;* taking care, when they cross, to make a semi-circle to the left. Second couple and second side couple repeat figure, as in common *L'Eté.*

Third Figure.—La Poule.

Top lady and *vis-à-vis* gentleman, lady at her right, and her opposite gentleman, perform figure at the same time, setting to each other in two cross lines. Other couples follow as usual.

Fourth Figure.—La Pastorale.

The first and opposite couples dance the figure, not with each other, but with the couples to their right. The latter do the same with first and second couples.

Fifth Figure.—Finale.

Galopade all round. Top and opposite couples galopade forwards, and retreat. As they retreat side couples advance; and, as they retreat in their turn, first and second couples galopade to each others places. Side couples the same. First and second couples advance again; side couples the same as the others retreat; first and second back to places as side couples retreat. Side couples back to places. Double *chaine des dames*, and galopade all round. Then side couples repeat figure as usual, and *galop* all round in conclusion.

It is requisite to keep correct time and step in this quadrille, which would otherwise become much confused.

VIII. THE POLKA.

The origin of this once celebrated dance is difficult to ascertain. It is believed by some to be of great antiquity, and to have been brought into Germany from the East. Others affirm that its origin is of more recent date, and its birthplace considerably nearer home. An authority on these matters remarks: "In spite of what those professors say who proclaim themselves to have learned the Polka in Germany, or as being indebted for it to an Hungarian nobleman, we are far from placing confidence in their assertions. In our opinion Paris is its birthplace, and its true author, undoubtedly, the now far-famed Monsieur Cellarius, for whom this offspring of his genius has gained a European celebrity."

Whatever we may be inclined to believe with regard to this disputed question, there can be no doubt of the wide-spread popularity which for many years was enjoyed by the Polka. When first introduced in 1843, it was received with enthusiasm; and it effected a complete revolution in the style of dancing which had prevailed up to that period. A brisk, lively character was imparted even to the steady-going quadrille; the old *Valse à Trois Temps* was pronounced insufferably "slow"; and its brilliant rival, the *Valse à Deux Temps*, which had been recently introduced, at once established the supremacy which it has ever since maintained. The *galop*, which had been until this period only an occasional dance, now assumed a prominent post in every ball-room, dividing the honors with the valse.

Perhaps no dance affords greater facilities for the display of ignorance or skill, elegance or vulgarity, than the Polka. The step is simple and easily acquired, but the method of dancing it varies *ad infinitum*. Some persons race and romp through the dance in a manner fatiguing to themselves and dangerous to their fellow-dancers. Others (though this is more rare) drag their partner listlessly along, with a sovereign contempt alike for the requirements of the time and the spirit of the music. Some gentlemen hold their partner so tight that she is half suffocated; others hold her so loosely that she continually slips away from them. All these extremes are equally objectionable, and defeat the graceful intention of the dance. It should be performed quietly, but with spirit, and *always in strict time*. The head and shoulders should be kept still, not jerked and turned at every step, as is the manner of some. The feet should glide swiftly along the floor—not hopping or jumping as if the boards were red-hot.

You should clasp your partner lightly but firmly round the waist with your right arm.

Your left hand takes her right hand; but beware of elevating your arm and hers in the air, or holding them out straight, which suggests the idea of windmills.

Above all, never place your left hand on your hip or behind you. In the first place, you thus drag your partner too much forward, which makes her look ungraceful; in the next, this attitude is *never used* except in casinos, and it is almost an insult to introduce it in a respectable ball-room.

Let the hand which clasps your partner's fall easily by your side in a natural position, and keep it there. Your partner's left hand rests on your right shoulder; her right arm is thrown a little forwards toward your left.

The Polka is danced in ¾ time. There are three steps in each bar; the fourth beat is always a rest.

It is next to impossible to describe in words the step of the Polka, or of any circular dance: nothing but example can correctly teach it; and although we shall do our best to be as clear as possible, we would earnestly recommend those of our readers who desire to excel, whether in this or the following dances, to take a few lessons from some competent instructor.

The gentleman starts with his left foot, the lady with her right. We shall describe the step as danced by the gentleman: the same directions, reversing the order of the feet, will apply to the lady.

1*st beat.*—Spring slightly on right foot, at the same time slide left foot forward.

2*d beat.*—Bring right foot forward by *glissade*, at the same time raising left foot.

3*d beat.*—Bring left foot slightly forward and *fall* upon it, leaving right foot raised, and the knee slightly bent, ready to begin the step at the first beat of the next bar

4*th beat.*—Remain on left foot. Begin next bar with the right foot, and repeat the step to end of third beat. Begin the following bar with left foot, and so on; commencing each bar with right or left foot alternately.

The Polka is danced with a circular movement, like the Valse; in each bar you half turn, so that by the end of the second bar, you have brought your partner completely round.

The circular movement of the Polka admits of two directions—from right or left or from left to right. The ordinary

direction is from right to left. The opposite one is known as the *reverse* step. It is more difficult to execute, but is a pleasant change for skilled dancers, if they have become giddy from turning too long in one direction.

In dancing the Polka, or any circular dance where a large number of couples are performing at the same time, the gentleman must be careful to steer his fair burden safely through the mazes of the crowded ball-room. A little watchfulness can almost always avoid collisions, and a good dancer would consider himself disgraced if any mishap occurred to a lady under his care. Keep a sharp lookout, and avoid crowded corners. Should so many couples be dancing as to render such caution impossible, stop at once and do not go on until the room has become somewhat cleared. In a few minutes others will have paused to rest, and you can then continue. Your partner will be grateful that your consideration has preserved her from the dismal plight in which we have seen some ladies emerge from this dance—their *coiffeurs* disordered, their dresses torn, and their cheeks crimson with fatigue and mortification, while their indignant glances plainly showed the anger they did not care to express in words, and which their reckless partner had fully deserved. A torn dress is sometimes not the heaviest penalty incurred: we have known more than one instance where ladies have been lamed for weeks through the culpable carelessness of their partners; their tender feet having been half crushed beneath some heavy boot in one of these awkward collisions. This is a severe price to pay for an evening's amusement, and gentlemen are bound to be cautious how they inflict it or anything approaching to it, upon their fair companions. Ladies, on the other hand will do well to remember that by leaning heavily upon their partner's shoulder, dragging back from his encircling arm, or otherwise impeding the freedom of his movements, they materially add to his labor and take from his pleasure in the dance. They should endeavor to lean as lightly, and give as little trouble as possible; for, however flattering to the vanity of the nobler sex may be the idea of feminine dependence, we question whether the reality, in the shape of a dead weight upon their aching arms throughout a Polka or a Valse of twenty minutes' duration, would be acceptable to even the most chivalrous among them.

We have been thus minute in our instructions, because they not only apply to the Polka, but equally to all circular dances where a great number stand up to dance at the same time. We now pass on to the Mazourka.

The time of the Mazourka is $\frac{3}{4}$, like the common valse; but it should be played much more slowly; if danced quickly, it becomes an unmeaning succession of hops, and its graceful character is destroyed.

We describe the step as danced by the lady; for the gentgentleman it will be the same, with the feet reversed; that is, for right foot read left, and so on.

First Step.

1st and 2d beats.—Spring on left foot, sliding forward right foot at the same time, and immediately let your weight rest on the forward foot. This occupies two beats.

3d beat.—Spring on right foot; this ends the bar.

2d bar, 1st and 2d beats.—Spring again on right foot, and slide forward left at same time. Rest on it a moment as before during second beat; at third beat spring on it; which ends second bar. Continue same step throughout. You will perceive that, at the first and third beats of the time, you hop slightly, resting, during the second beats, on the foremost foot.

Second Step.

1st beat.—Spring on left foot, slightly striking both heels together.

2d beat.—Slide right foot to the right, bending the knee.

3d beat.—Bring the left foot up to right foot with a slight spring, raising right foot; which ends the first bar.

2d bar, 1st beat.—Spring again on left foot, striking it with heel of right.

2d beat.—Slide right foot to the right.

3d beat.—Fall on right foot, raising left foot behind it, which ends the second bar. Reverse the step by springing first on the right foot, and sliding the left, etc. The music generally indicates that this step should be repeated three times to the right, which occupies three bars then *rest* during the fourth bar, and return with reverse step to the left during the three bars which follow, resting again at the eighth bar.

Third Step.

1st beat.—Spring on left foot, and slide right foot to the right.

2d beat.—Rest on right foot.

3d beat.—Spring on right foot, bringing left foot up behind it.

2d bar, 1st beat.—Spring on right foot, sliding left foot to the left.

2d beat.—Rest on left foot.

3d beat.—Hop on left foot, bringing right behind as before. Continue at pleasure.

The first of these three steps is most commonly used in the valse; but the second is an agreeable change for those who may have grown giddy or weary in doing the *figure en tournant* (circular movement).

Be careful not to exaggerate the slight hop at the first and third beats of each bar; and to *slide* the foot gracefully forward, not merely to make a step, as some bad dancers do.

IX. THE MAZOURKA QUADRILLE.

This elegant quadrille has five figures, and can be performed by any even number of couples. The music, like the step, is that of the Mazourka. The couples are arranged as in the ordinary quadrille.

Join hands all round; *grand rond* to the left (four bars), then back again to the right (four bars), employing the *second* step of the Mazourka. Each couple does the *petit tour* forwards and backwards, still using the second step, and repeating it three times to the right—then resting a bar; three times to the left—then resting another bar; which occupies eight bars of the music. These figures may be considered as preliminary.

1st Figure.—Top and bottom couples right and left (eight

bars), with Redowa step ;* then they advance, the ladies cross over, the gentlemen meanwhile pass quickly round each other, and return to own places (four bars) ; *petit tour* forward with opposite ladies (four bars) ; right and left (eight bars); advance again ; the ladies return to own places, and the gentlemen pass again round each other to their own ladies (four bars ; *petit tour* backward (four bars). Side couples do likewise.

2*d Figure.* —(Eight bars rest). Top and bottom couples advance and retire, hands joined (four bars). All cross over into opposite places, each going to each other's left (four bars) ; *petit tour* forward (four bars) ; advance and retire (four bars), and return to places (four bars) ; *petit tour* (four bars). Side couples do likewise.

3*d Figure.*—(Eight bars rest.) Top and bottom ladies cross over into opposite places (four bars) ; return, presenting left hand to each other, and right hand to partner, as in *La Poule* (four bars) ; pass round with partners into opposite places (four bars) ; *petit tour* backward (four bars) ; *vis-à-vis* couples hands across, round (six bars) ; retire (two bars) ; top and bottom ladies cross over (four bars) ; ladies cross again, giving each other left hands, and right to partners (four bars). All pass round to own places (four bars) ; *petit tour* backward (four bars).

4*th Figure.*—(Eight bars rest.) Top couple lead round inside the figure (eight bars) ; *petit tour* forward and backward (eight bars) ; advance to opposite couple ; the gentleman turns half round without quitting his partner, and gives his left hand to opposite lady ; the two ladies join hands behind gentleman (four bars) ; in this position the three advance and retire (eight bars). The gentleman passes under the ladies' arms ; all three pass round to the left, with second step of Mazourka, the opposite lady finishing in her own place (four bars). The top couple return to places (four bars) ; *petit tour* forward (four bars). Opposite couple and side couples do likewise.

5*th Figure.*—(Eight bars rest.) Top and bottom couples half right and left (four bars) ; *petit tour* backward (four bars) ; half right and left to places (four bars) ; *petit tour* backward (four bars) ; *vis-à-vis* couples hands round to opposite places (four bars) ; *petit tour* forward (four bars) ; hands round to own places (four bars) ; *petit tour* (four bars) ; right and left (eight bars).

Side couples do likewise.

Finale.—Grand round all to the left, and then to the right (sixteen bars) ; grand chain, as in the Lancers, with first step of Mazourka (sixteen bars). But if there are more than eight in the quadrille, the music must be continued until all have regained their places.

N.B.—Music continues during rests.

X.—THE POLKA MAZOURKA.

The step of this dance is, as its name implies, a mixture of the steps of the Polka and the Mazourka. The time is $\frac{3}{8}$ quicker than that of the Mazourka.

Gentleman takes his partner as in the valse. *Figure en tournant.* We describe the steps for the gentleman ; the lady simply reverses the order of the feet, using left foot for right throughout.

1*st beat.*—Rest on right foot, with left foot a little raised behind, and slide left foot to the left.

2*d beat.*—Spring on the right foot, bringing it up to where left foot is, and raising the latter in front.

3*d beat.*—Spring once more on right foot, passing left foot behind without touching the ground with it ; this ends first bar.

2*d bar*, 1*st beat.*—Slide left foot to the left, as before.

2*d beat.*—Spring on right foot, as before, and bring it up to the place of left foot, raising latter at same moment.

3*d beat.*—Fall on the left foot, and raise the right foot behind ; end of second bar.

Begin third bar with right foot, and continue as before. You turn half round in the first three beats, and complete the circle in the second three.

XI.—THE REDOWA, OR REDOVA.

The step of this valse somewhat resembles that of the Mazourka, and is used, as we have seen, in dancing the Mazourka Quadrille. It is an elegant valse, not so lively as the Polka Mazourka, but, if danced in correct time, not too slowly, is very graceful and pleasing. The step is not so difficult as that of the Mazourka : it is almost a *Pas de Basque*, with the addition of the hop. In all these dances, which partake of the nature of the Mazourka, it is requisite to mark distinctly the first and third beats of every bar, otherwise the peculiar character of the movement is completely lost. We describe the step for the lady as it is employed in the forward movement.

1*st beat.*—Stand with right foot slightly forward ; spring upon it, bringing it behind left foot, which is raised at same time.

2*d beat.*—Slide your left foot forward, bending the knee.

3*d beat.*—Bring your right foot, with a slight hop, up behind your left foot, raising the latter and keeping it in front. (One bar.)

1*st beat.*—Spring upon your left foot, passing it behind your right, and raising latter.

2*d beat.*—Slide right foot forward, bending the knee.

3*d beat.*—Bring left foot up to right, with slight hop, and raise right foot at same moment, keeping it in front as before.

When the *figure en tournant* (circular movement) is employed, the lady begins by sliding the left foot forward, and the right foot backward. Gentleman always does the same, with order of feet reversed.

This dance has been very popular in Paris : in England it is now seldom seen.

XII.—THE SCHOTTISCHE.

The Schottische was introduced about the same time as the Polka Mazourka. Its origin is as uncertain as that of the Polka, and it is believed to be a very ancient national dance. It is a great favorite with the German peasantry ; and although its name, *Schottische*, would seem to imply that it came form

* This step will be found farther on under the head of Redowa Valse.

Scotland, there is no doubt that it is essentially German alike in character and in music.

The step, although easy to learn, requires great precision. We would recommend our readers to adhere throughout to the circular movement. Some dancers begin by four steps to the right, then back again, not turning until they commence the second half of the figure. But when many couples are dancing this practice involves a risk of collisions, and it is safer to begin at once with the *figure en tournant.* The second part of the step consists of a series of slight hops, which must be made exactly at the same moment by both parties, otherwise a break-down is inevitable. They should be executed as quickly as possible, so as to avoid the *jigging* effect which bad dancers impart to the Schottische. When well performed it is a very animated and elegant dance, forming an agreeable variety to the Polka and Valse.

The time is $\frac{2}{4}$; it should be played a good deal slower than the Polka; when hurried it becomes ungraceful and vulgar. The first and third beat in each bar should be slightly marked.

We proceed to describe the step as danced by the gentleman.

Slide the left foot forward; bring right foot close behind left foot. Slide left foot forward a second time. Spring upon left foot. Then do the same with right foot.

Having completed four steps, first with the left foot, and then with the right, you come to the second part, which consists of a series of double hops, two on each foot alternately. Hop twice on the left foot (one hop for each beat of time), and half turn round; then twice on the right, completing the circular movement. Repeat the same through another four beats; then resume first step through the next two bars, and continue to alternate them every second bar. You can also vary the dance at pleasure, by continuing the first step without changing it for the hops; or you can likewise continue these throughout several bars in succession; taking care, of course, to appraise your partner of your intention. Even when well and quietly danced, there is something undignified in the hopping movement of the second step; and we have observed with satisfaction that for some time past it has been replaced by the step of the *Valse à Deux Temps*, which is now generally used instead of the double hops.

XIII.—LA VARSOVIENNE.

This is a round dance for two, which, like the Polka Mazourka, is a combination of the steps of one or two other dances. Since the introduction of the Polka and the Mazourka, several dances have been invented which partake largely of the character of both. La Varsovienne is very graceful. It is not often danced now.

Take your partner as for the valse. Count three in each bar. Time much the same as in Polka Mazourka. The music is generally divided into parts of sixteen bars each. The step for the gentleman is as follows in the first part:—

Slide left foot to the left; slightly spring forward with right foot, twice, leaving the left foot raised behind, in readiness for next step. (1st bar.) Repeat the same. (2d bar.) One polka step, during which turn. (3d bar.) Bring your right foot to the second position, and wait a whole bar. (4th bar.) Resume first step with right foot, and repeat through out, reversing order of feet. Lady, as usual, begins with her right foot, doing the same step.

Second step in second part. 1*st bar.*—Gentleman, beginning with his left foot, does one polka step to the left, turning partner.

2*d bar.*—Bring right foot to the second position, and bend towards it; wait a whole bar.

3*d bar.*—One polka step with right foot to the right, turning partner.

4*th bar.*—Left foot to second position; bend towards it, and wait as before.

Third part.—Take three polka steps to the left. (This occupies three bars.) Bring right foot to second position, and wait one bar. Repeat the same, beginning with right foot to the right.

XIV.—THE GORLITZA.

This is a Polish round dance for two. Like the Varsovienne, it is now seldom seen beyond the walls of the dancing academy. Perhaps one reason of its short-lived popularity is to be found in the fact that it is rather troublesome to learn, the steps being changed continually. The time is the same as the Schottische, but not quite so quick. Take your position as for the Polka.

1*st bar.*—One polka step to the left, beginning with left foot, and turning half round.

2*d bar.*—Slide your right foot to right; bring left foot up close behind it, as in the fifth position; make a *glissade* with your right foot, ending with your left in front.

3*d bar.*—Spring on your right foot, raising your left in front. Fall on your left foot, passing it behind your right foot. *Glissade* right with right foot, ending with left in front.

4*th bar.*—Again spring on right foot, raising left in front. Fall on left foot, passing it behind right. *Glissade* to right, with your right foot; end with same foot in front. Then repeat from beginning during the next four bars, but the second time be careful to end with the left foot in front. During the last two bars you turn round, but do not move forward.

The step for the lady is the same, with the order of the feet, as usual, reversed; except, however, in the last two bars of this figure, which both begin with the same foot.

The Gorlitza, like the preceding dance, is divided into parts. The first part occupies eight bars of the music; the second sixteen bars. The step for the second part is as follows:—

1*st four bars.*—Commence with Polka Mazourka step, with left foot to the left, and turn half round. Then do the step of Mazourka to the right, beginning with the right foot. Fall on left foot, keeping it behind right foot; *glissade* with right foot, and end with same in front.

2*d four bars.*—Polka Mazourka with right foot to the right, and turn half round. Mazourka step with left foot to the left. Fall on right foot, keeping it behind; *glissade* with left foot, bringing it behind.

Repeat from beginning, which completes the sixteen bars of second half of the figure.

Lady does the same steps, with order of feet reversed.

XV.—THE VALSE A TROIS TEMPS.

Forty years ago, the Valse (or as it was then pronounced, *Waltz*) was a stately measure, danced with gravity and deliberation. Each couple wheeled round and round with dignified composure, never interrupting the monotony of the dance by any movements forward or backward. They consequently soon became giddy, although the music was not played above half as fast as the valse music of our day. We are bound to admit that this stately fashion of waltzing was infinitely more graceful than the style which has superseded it. But having confessed so much, we may venture to add that Valse, as danced by the present generation, possesses a spirit, lightness, and variety quite unknown to its stately predecessor.

Although we cannot regret the introduction of a more animated style of dancing, we are sorry that the old Waltz has been so entirely given up. When restored to its original *temps*, the *Valse à Trois Temps* is nearly as spirited as the *Valse à Deux ;* and twice as graceful. It has the additional advantage over the latter, that it contains in each bar three steps to three beats of the time ; whereas the *Deux Temps*, as its name implies, numbers only two steps in a bar of three notes ; and is thus incorrect in time. We venture to predict that the old Waltz will, at no distant day, be restored to public favor.

Gentleman takes his partner round the waist with his right arm ; his left hand holds hers, as in the Polka. Lady places left hand on his shoulder, and right hand in his left hand. Begin at once with the *figure en tournant.* Time ¾ ; one step to each beat. First beat in each bar should be slightly marked by the dancers.

1*st beat.*—Slide left foot backwards, towards the left.

2*d beat.*—Slide your right foot past your left in same direction, keeping right foot behind left, and turning slightly to the right.

3*d beat.*—Bring left foot up behind right (one bar).

1*st beat.*—Slide right foot forward toward the right.

2*d beat.*—Slide left foot forward, still turning towards right.

3*d beat.*—Bring right foot up to right, turning on both feet, so as to complete the circle (two bars). Remember to finish with right foot in front. Repeat from first beat of first bar. Gentleman always turns from left to right ; lady from right to left.

The step of the old Waltz is simple enough ; nevertheless some practice is required to dance it really well. Remember always to *slide*, not to *step*, forward ; for the beauty of this valse consists in its gliding motion. It is not at first easy to dance swiftly and quietly at the same time ; but a little patience will soon enable you to conquer that difficulty, and to do full justice to what is, in our opinion, the most perfectly graceful of all the round dances, without a single exception.

XVI. THE VALSE A DEUX TEMPS.

We are indebted to the mirth-loving capital of Austria for this brilliant Valse.

This Valse is incorrect in time. Two steps can never properly be made to occupy the space of three beats in the music. The ear requires that each beat shall have its step. This inaccuracy in the measure has exposed the *Valse à Deux Temps* to the just censure of musicians, but has never interfered with its success among dancers. We must caution our readers, however, against one mistake often made by the inexperienced. They imagine that it is unnecessary to observe any rule of time in this dance, and are perfectly careless whether they begin the step at the beginning, end, or middle of the bar. This is quite inadmissible. Every bar must contain within its three beats two steps. These steps must begin and end strictly with the beginning and end of each bar ; otherwise a hopeless confusion of the measure will ensue. Precision in this matter is the more requisite, because of the peculiarity in the measure. If the first step in each bar be not strongly marked, the valse measure has no chance of making itself apparent ; and the dance becomes a meaningless *galop.*

The step contains two movements, a *glissade* and a *chassez*, following each other quickly in the same direction. Gentleman begins as usual with his left foot ; lady with her right.

1*st beat.*—*Glissade* to the left with left foot.

2*d and* 3*d beats.*—*Chassez* in the same direction with right foot ; do not turn in this first bar.

2*d bar*, 1*st beat.*—Slide right foot backwards, turning half round.

2*d and* 3*d beats.*—Pass left foot behind right, and *chassez* forward with it, turning half round to complete the *figure en tournant.* Finish with right foot in front, and begin over again with left foot.

There is no variation in this step ; but you can vary the movement by going backward or forward at pleasure, instead of continuing the rotary motion. The *Valse à Deux Temps*, like the Polka, admits of a reverse step ; but it looks awkward unless executed to perfection. The first requisite in this Valse is to avoid all jumping movements. The feet must glide smoothly and swiftly over the floor, and be raised from it as little as possible. Being so very quick a dance, it must be performed quietly, otherwise it is liable to become ungraceful and vulgar. The steps should be short, and the knees slightly bent.

As the movement is necessarily very rapid, the danger of collision is proportionately increased ; and gentlemen will do well to remember and act upon this hint.

They should also be scrupulous not to attempt to conduct a lady through this valse until they have thoroughly mastered the step and well practiced the *figure en tournant.* Awkwardness or inexperience doubles the risks of a collision ; which, in this extremely rapid dance, might be attended with serious consequences.

The *Deux Temps* is a somewhat fatiguing valse, and after two or three turns around the room, the gentleman should pause to allow his partner to rest. He should be careful to select a lady whose height does not present too striking a contrast to his own ; for it looks ridiculous to see a tall man dancing with a short woman, or *vice versâ.* This observation applies to all round dances, but especially to the valse, in any of its forms.

XVII. THE FINE STEP VALSE.

The step is extremely simple.

XVIII.—THE GALOP.

The Galop, as its name implies, is the quintessence of all the "fast" dances. At the time of the Polka mania it was very much in vogue, and almost as great a favorite as the *Deux Temps*. Although its popularity has greatly declined of late, it generally occurs twice or thrice in the programme of every ball-room; and the music of the Galop is, like the dance itself, so gay and spirited, that we should regret to see it wholly laid aside. The step is similar to that of the *Deux Temps* Valse, but the time is $\frac{2}{4}$, and as quick as possible. Two *chassez* steps are made in each bar. The figure can be varied by taking four or eight steps in the same direction, or by turning with every two steps, as in the *Deux Temps*. Like all round dances, it admits of an unlimited number of couples. Being, perhaps, the most easy of any, every one takes part in it, and the room is generally crowded during its continuance. A special amount of care is therefore necessary on the part of the gentleman to protect his partner from accidents.

XIX.—THE COTILLON.

The Cotillon is never commenced till toward the close of the ball, at so advanced an hour that all the sober portion of the assembly have retired, and only the real lovers of dancing remain, who sometimes prolong this their favorite amusement till a late hour in the morning.

It is customary for gentlemen to select their partners for the Cotillon early in the evening, while the other dances are in progress; for, as it lasts so long a time, it is necessary to know beforehand how many ladies feel inclined to remain during its continuance.

A circle of chairs is arranged round the room, the center being left clear; the spectators stand behind the chairs, so as not to interfere with the dancers. Each gentleman leads his partner to a seat, taking another beside her. To these same seats they return after every figure, it being the etiquette of the dance that no couple should appropriate any chairs but their own, taken at the commencement. When the dancers are arranged round the room, the orchestra strikes up the spirited music of the Cotillon, which consists of a long series of valse movements at the usual *tempo* of the *Deux Temps*. There are generally several leaders of the Cotillon, who decide upon the succession of the figures. If there are many couples dancing, one leader attends upon a group of six or eight couples, to insure that all shall take part. We are aware of no fixed rule for the succession of the figures, which depends upon the caprice of the leaders. A good leader will invent new combinations, or diversify old figures; thus securing an almost endless variety. One of the most popular is the following:—

Several gentlemen assume the names of flowers or plants, such as the honeysuckle, woodbine, ivy, etc. A lady is then requested to name her favorite flower, and the fortunate swain who bears its name springs forward and valses off with her in triumph. It is usual to make one, or at most two, turns round the room, and then restore the lady to her own partner, who in the meantime has perhaps been the chosen one of another lady. All having regained their places, each gentleman valses with his own partner once round the room, or remains sitting by her side, as she may feel inclined.

Baskets filled with small bouquets are brought in. Each gentleman provides himself with a bouquet, and presents it to the lady with whom he wishes to valse.

Sometimes a light pole or staff is introduced, to the top of which are attached long streamers of different colored ribbons. A lady takes one of these to several of her fair companions in turn, each of whom chooses a ribbon, and, holding it firmly in her hand, follows the leading lady to the center of the room. Here they are met by an equal number of gentlemen, likewise grouped round a leader who carries the pole, while each holds a streamer of his favorite color, or that which he imagines would be selected by the *dame de ses pensées*. The merry groups compare notes: those who possess streamers of the same color pair off in couples, and valse gaily round the room, returning to places as before.

Six or eight ladies, and the same number of gentlemen, form in two lines, facing each other. The leading lady throws a soft worsted ball of bright colors at the gentleman with whom she wishes to dance. He catches it, throws it back to the fair group, and valses off with his partner. Whoever catches the returning ball has the right to throw next; and the same ceremony is repeated until all have chosen their partners, with whom they valse round the room, returning to places as usual. Sometimes a handkerchief is substituted for the ball; but the latter is better, being more easily thrown and caught.

Six or eight chairs are placed in a circle, the backs turned inwards. Ladies seat themselves in the chairs, gentlemen move slowly round in front of them. Each lady throws her handkerchief or bouquet at the gentleman with whom she wishes to dance as he passes before her; Valse round as usual, and return to places. Sometimes a gentleman is blindfolded and placed in a chair. Two ladies take a seat on either side of him, and he is bound to make his selection without seeing the face of his partner. Having done so, he pulls the covering from his eyes and valses off with her. It is a curious circumstance that mistakes seldom occur, the gentleman being generally sufficiently *clairvoyant* to secure the partner he desires.

We have here described a few of the most striking figures of the Cotillon. We might multiply them to an extent which would equally tax the patience of our readers and our own powers of remembrance, but we forbear. Gifts and souvenirs are usually freely distributed.

XX.—THE SPANISH DANCE.

This pretty, though now somewhat old-fashioned, dance was, before the introduction of the *Deux Temps* and polka, a principle feature in every ball-room. It is danced with the step and music of the old *Valse à Trois Temps*, played slower than the music of the *Deux Temps*.

Sometimes the couples stand in two long parallel lines, as in a country dance; sometimes they are arranged in a circle. The leading gentleman must be on the ladies' side, and his partner on the gentlemen's side. Every fourth lady and gentleman change places, to avoid the necessity of keeping the

other couples waiting. The whole set can thus begin at the same moment.

Leading gentleman and *second* lady advance and retreat with valse step and change places. Leading lady and second gentleman do the same at the same time. Leading gentleman and his partner advance and retreat, and change places. Second lady and gentleman do the same at the same time. Leading gentleman and second lady repeat this figure, first lady and second gentleman likewise, at same time.

Leading gentleman and first lady repeat same figure; second gentleman and lady repeat at same time.

All four, joining hands, advance to center and retreat. Ladies pass to the left. Repeat three times. Each gentleman takes his partner, and the two couples valse round each other once or twice at pleasure, the second lady and gentleman being left at the top of the figure, as in a country dance. Leading gentleman and partner repeat same figure with succeeding couple to end of dance.

It is obvious that there must be an equal number of couples, and that they must be arranged in sets of four, eight, sixteen, twenty, twenty-four, and so on.

XXI.—LA TEMPÊTE.

La Tempête is divided into parties of four couples, like the quadrille, but their arrangement is different. Two couples stand side by side, facing their respective *vis-à-vis;* there are not any side couples. As many sets of four couples can be thus arranged as the room will accommodate. Each new set turns its back upon the second line of the preceding set. Thus the dance can be the whole length of the room, but it is only the breadth of two couples. The figure is as follows:—

Place two couples side by side, the lady standing at the right hand of the gentleman. Place two other couples as their *vis-à-vis*. Next place two couples with their backs turned to the first set; two couples opposite them for their *vis-à-vis*, and continue arranging more sets of four couples, according to the number of the dancers and the size of the room.

First part.—All the couples begin at the same moment, by advancing and retreating twice, with joined hands. First couples (that is all whose backs are turned to the top of the room), cross with hands joined to the places of their *vis-à-vis*. The latter cross at the same time, but, separating, pass outside two couples at the top, where they join hands, return to own places, and back again to the top without separating, the top couples crossing separately at the same time outside the second couples. Top couples then join hands, and all return to their own places, second couples separating to allow the others to pass between them.

Ladies and gentlemen in the center of each line join hands, giving their disengaged hands to their two *vis-à-vis*. All four half round to the left, then half-round back again to places. Meantime the outside lady and gentleman perform the same with their respective *vis-à-vis*, making a circle of two instead of four. Circle of four give hands across round; change hands; round once more, and back to places. Outside couples perform same figure in twos. All the sets perform the figure at the same moment.

Second part.—All advance, retreat, and advance again, all the top couples passing the second couples into the next line, where they recommence the same figure, their former *vis-à-vis* having passed to the top, and turned round to wait for a fresh *vis-à-vis*, gentleman always keeping lady at his right hand. An entire change of places is thus effected, which is continued throughout this figure, until all the top lines have passed to the bottom, the bottom lines at the same time passing to the top, and then turning round, all go back again by the same method reversed, till all have regained their original places. The dance may terminate here, or the last figure may be repeated at pleasure. When the first exchange of *vis-à-vis* takes place the new lines at the top and bottom find themselves for a moment without a *vis-à-vis;* but at the next move forward they are provided, and can continue the figure as above described. We extract from a contemporary the following graceful variation in the first half of this dance:—"All advance and retire twice (hands joined). All *vis-à-vis* couples *chassez croisez en double*, each gentleman retaining his partner's left hand; eight *galop* steps (four bars); *déchassez* eight steps (four bars); the couple on the right of the top line passing in front of the couple on the left the first time; returning to place, passing behind. Thus, two couples are moving to the right and two to the left. This is repeated. The *vis-à-vis* couples do likewise at the same time. This, of course, applies to all the couples, as all commence at the same time."

La Tempête is danced to quick music in $\frac{2}{4}$ time. The step is the same as in quadrilles, varied sometimes by the introduction of the *galop* step, when the couples cross into each others' places or advance into the lines of the next set.

XXII.—SIR ROGER DE COVERLEY AND A VIRGINNY REEL.

Sir Roger de Coverley or the Virginny Reel is always introduced at the end of the evening, and no dance could be so well fitted to send the guests home in good humor with each other and with their hosts. We describe it as it is danced in the present day, slightly modernized to suit the taste of our time. Like the quadrille, it can be danced with equal propriety by old or young, and is so easy that the most inexperienced dancer may fearlessly venture to take part in it.

Form in two parallel lines; ladies on the left, gentlemen on the right, facing their partners. All advance; retreat (which occupies the first four bars); cross to opposite places (four bars more); advance and retreat (four bars); re-cross to places (four bars).

The lady who stands at the top and the gentleman who stands at the bottom, of each line, advance towards each other, courtesy and bow, and retire to places. The gentleman at the top and the lady at the bottom do the same. Lady at top and gentleman at bottom advance again, give right hands, and swing quickly round each other back to places. Gentleman at top and lady at bottom do the same. Top lady advances, gives right hand to partner opposite, and passes behind the two gentlemen standing next to him. Then through the line and across it, giving left hand to partner, who meets her half way between the two lines, having in the meantime

passed behind the two ladies who stood next his partner. Lady then passes behind the two ladies next lowest; gentleman at same time behind the two gentlemen next lowest; and so on all down the line. At the bottom, lady gives left hand to her partner, and they promenade back to places at the top of the line. (This figure is frequently ommitted.) Top couple advance, courtesy and bow, then lady turns off to the right, gentleman to the left, each followed by the rest of her or his line. Top couple meet at the bottom of figure, join hands, and raising their arms, let all the other couples pass under them towards the top of the line, till all reach their own places, except the top, who have now become the bottom couple. Figure is repeated from the beginning, until the top couple have once more worked their way back to their original places at the top of the line.

GLOSSARY.

We subjoin a Glossary of all the French words and expressions that have long since been universally accepted as the accredited phraseology of the Ball-room.

A vos places, *back to your own places.*
A la fin, *at the end.*
A droite, *to the right.*
A gauche, *to the left.*
Balancez, *set to your partners.*
Balancez aux coins, *set to the corners.*
Balancez quatre en ligne, *four dancers set in a line, joining hands, as in La Poule.*
Balancez en moulinet, *gentlemen and their partners give each other right hands across, and* balancez *in the form of a cross.*
Balancez et tour des mains, *all set to partners, and turn to places.* (*See* Tour des mains.)
Ballotez, *do the same four times without changing your places.*
Chaine Anglaise, *opposite couples right and left.*
Chaine des dames, *ladies' chain.*
Chaine Anglaise double, *double right and left.*
Chaine des dames double, *all the ladies perform the ladies' chain at the same time.*
Chassez croisez, *do the* chassé *step from left to right, or right to left, the lady passing before the gentleman in the opposite direction, that is, moving right if he moves left, and vice versa.*
Chassez croisez et déchassez, *change places with partners, ladies passing in front, first to the right, then to the left, back to places. It may be either* à quatre—*four couples—or* les huit—*eight couples.*
Chassez à droite—à gauche, *move to the right—to the left.*
Le cavalier seul, *gentleman advances alone.*
Les cavaliers seuls deux fois, *gentlemen advance and retire twice without their partners.*
Changez vos dames, *change partners.*
Contre partie pour les autres, *the other dancers do the same figure.*
Demi promenade, *half promenade.*
Demi chaine Anglaise, *half right and left.*
Demi moulinet, *ladies all advance to center, right hands across, and back to places.*
Demi tour à quatre, *four hands half round.*
Dos-à-dos, *lady and opposite gentleman advance, pass round each other back to back, and return to places.*
Les dames en moulinet, *ladies give right hands across to each other, half round, and back again with left hands.*
Les dames donnent la main droit—gauche—à leurs cavalier, *ladies give the right—left—hands to partners.*
En avant deux et en arrière, *first lady and* vis-à-vis *gentleman advance and retire. To secure brevity,* en avant *is always understood to imply* en arrière *when the latter is not expressed.*
En avant deux fois, *advance and retreat twice.*
En avant quatre, *first couple and their* vis-à-vis *advance and retire.*
En avant trois, *three advance and retire, as in La Pastorale.*
Figurez devant, *dance before.*
Figurez à droite—à gauche, *dance to the right—to the left.*
La grande tour de rond, *all join hands and dance completely round the figure in a circle back to places.*
Le grand rond, *all join hands, and advance and retreat twice, as in La Finale.*
Le grand quatre, *all eight couples form into squares.*
La grande chaine, *all the couples move quite round the figure, giving alternately the right and left hand to each in succession, beginning with the right, until all have regained their places, as in last figure of the Lancers.*
La grande promenade, *all eight* (*or more*) *couples promenade all around the figure back to places.*
La main, *the hand.*
La meme pour les cavaliers, *gentlemen do the same.*
Le moulinet, *hand across. The figure will explain whether it is the gentlemen, or the ladies, or both, who are to perform it.*
Pas de Allemande, *the gentleman turns his partner under each arm in succession.*
Pas de Basque, *a kind of sliding step forward, performed with both feet alternately in quick succession. Used in the Redowa and other dances. Comes from the South of France.*
Glissade, *a sliding step.*
Le Tiroir, *first couple cross with hands joined to opposite couple's place, opposite couple crossing separately outside them; then cross back to places, same figure reversed.*
Tour des mains, *give both hands to partner, and turn her round without quitting your places.*
Tour sur place, *the same.*
Tournez vos dames, *the same.*
Tour aux coins, *turn at the corners, as in the Caledonians, each gentleman turning the lady who stands nearest his left hand, and immediately returning to his own place.*
Traversez, *cross over to opposite place.*
Retraversez, *cross back again.*
Traversez deux, en donnant la main droite, *lady and* vis-à-vis *gentleman cross, giving right hand, as in La Poule.*
Vis-à-vis, *opposite.*
Figure en tournant, *circular form.*

Etiquette of Courtship and Matrimony.

FIRST STEPS IN COURTSHIP.

IT would be out of place in these pages to grapple with a subject so large as that of Love in its various phases: a theme that must be left to poets, novelists, and moralists to dilate upon. It is sufficient for our purpose to recognize the existence of this, the most universal—the most powerful—of human passions, when venturing to offer our counsel and guidance to those of both sexes who, under its promptings, have resolved to become votaries of Hymen, but who, from imperfect knowledge of conventional usages, are naturally apprehensive that at every step they take they may render themselves liable to misconception, ridicule, or censure.

We will take it for granted, then, that a gentleman has in one way or another become fascinated by a fair lady—possibly a recent acquaintance—whom he is most anxious to know more particularly. His heart already feels "the inly touch of love," and his most ardent wish is to have that love returned.

At this point we venture to give him a word of serious advice. We urge him, before he ventures to take any step towards the pursuit of this object, to consider well his position and prospects in life, and reflect whether they are such as to justify him in deliberately seeking to win the young lady's affections, with the view of making her his wife at no distant period. Should he, after such a review of his affairs, feel satisfied that he can proceed honorably, he may then use fair opportunities to ascertain the estimation in which the young lady, as well as her family, is held by friends. It is perhaps needless to add, that all possible delicacy and caution must be observed in making such inquiries, so as to avoid compromising the lady herself in the slightest degree. When he has satisfied himself on this head, and found no insurmountable impediment in his way, his next endeavor will be, through the mediation of a common friend, to procure an introduction to the lady's family. Those who undertake such an office incur no slight responsibility, and are, of course, expected to be scrupulously careful in performing it, and to communicate all they happen to know affecting the character and circumstances of the individual they introduce.

We will now reverse the picture, and see how matters stand on the fair one's side.

First, let us hope that the inclination is mutual; at all events that the lady views her admirer with preference, that she deems him not unworthy of her favorable regard, and that his attentions are agreeable to her. It is true her heart may not yet be won: she has to be wooed; and what fair daughter of Eve has not hailed with rapture that brightest day in the springtide of her life? She has probably first met the gentleman at a ball, or other festive occasion, where the excitement of the scene has reflected on every object around a roseate tint. We are to suppose, of course, that in looks, manners, and address, her incipient admirer is not below her ideal standard in gentlemanly attributes. His respectful approaches to her—in soliciting her hand as a partner in the dance, etc.—have first awakened on her part a slight feeling of interest towards him. This mutual feeling of interest, once established, soon "grows by what it feeds on." The exaltation of the whole scene favors its development, and it can hardly be wondered at if both parties leave judgment "out in the cold" while enjoying each other's society, and possibly already pleasantly occupied in building "castles in the air." Whatever may eventually come of it, the fair one is conscious for the nonce of being unusually happy. This emotion is not likely to be diminished when she finds herself the object of general attention—accompanied, it may be, by the display of a little envy among rival beauties—owing to the assiduous homage of her admirer. At length, prudence whispers that he is to her, as yet, a comparative stranger; and with a modest reserve she endeavors to retire from his observation, so as not to seem to encourage his attentions. The gentleman's ardor, however, is not to be thus checked; he again solicits her to be his partner in a dance. She finds it hard, very hard, to refuse him; and both, yielding at last to the alluring influences by which they are surrounded, discover at the moment of parting that

a new and delightful sensation has been awakened in their hearts.

At a juncture so critical in the life of a young, inexperienced woman as that when she begins to form an attachment for one of the opposite sex—at a moment when she needs the very best advice, accompanied with a considerate regard for her overwrought feelings—the very best course she can take is to confide the secret of her heart to that truest and most loving of friends—her mother. Fortunate is the daughter who has not been deprived of that wisest and tenderest of counselors—whose experience of life, whose prudence and sagacity, whose anxious care and appreciation of her child's sentiments, and whose awakened recollections of her own trysting days, qualify and entitle her, above all other beings, to counsel and comfort her trusting child, and to claim her confidence. Let the timid girl then pour forth into her mother's ear the flood of her pent-up feelings. Let her endeavor to distrust her own judgment, and seek hope, guidance, and support from one who, she well knows, will not deceive or mislead her. The confidence thus established will be productive of the most beneficial results—by securing the daughter's obedience to her parent's advice, and her willing adoption of the observances prescribed by etiquette, which, as the courtship progresses, that parent will not fail to recommend as strictly essential in this phase of life. Where a young woman has had the misfortune to be deprived of her mother, she should at such a period endeavor to find her next best counselor in some female relative, or other trustworthy friend.

We are to suppose that favorable opportunities for meeting have occurred, until, by and by, both the lady and her admirer have come to regard each other with such warm feelings of inclination as to have a constant craving for each other's society. Other eyes have in the meantime not failed to notice the symptoms of a growing attachment; and some "kind friends" have, no doubt, even set them down as already engaged.

The admirer of the fair one is, indeed, so much enamored as to be unable longer to retain his secret within his own breast; and not being without hope that his attachment is reciprocated, resolves on seeking an introduction to the lady's family preparatory to his making a formal declaration of love.

It is possible, however, that the lover's endeavors to procure the desired introduction may fail of success, although where no material difference of social position exists, this difficulty will be found to occur less frequently than might at first be supposed. He must then discreetly adopt measures to bring himself, in some degree, under the fair one's notice: such, for instance, as attending the place of worship which she frequents, meeting her, so often as to be manifestly for the purpose, in the course of her promenades, etc. He will thus soon be able to judge—even without speaking to the lady—whether his further attentions will be distasteful to her. The signs of this on the lady's part, though of the most trifling nature, and in no way compromising her, will be unmistakable: for, as the poet tells us in speaking of the sex:—

> "He gave them but one tongue to say us 'Nay,'
> And two fond eyes to grant'"

Should her demeanor be decidedly discouraging, any perseverance on his part would be ungentlemanly and highly indecorous. But, on the other hand, should a timid blush intimate doubt, or a gentle smile lurking in the half-dropped eye give pleasing challenge to further parley, when possible he may venture to write—not to the lady—that would be the opening of a clandestine correspondence; an unworthy course, where every act should be open and straightforward, as tending to manly and honorable ends—but to the father or guardian, through the agency of a common friend where feasible, or, in some instances, to the party at whose residence the lady may be staying. In his letter he ought first to state his position in life and prospects, as well as mention his family connections; and then request permission to visit the family, as a preliminary step to paying his addresses to the object of his admiration.

By this course he in no wise compromises either himself or the lady, but leaves open to both, at any future period, an opportunity of retiring from the position of courtship taken up on the one side, and of receiving addresses on the other, without laying either party open to the accusation of fickleness or jilting.

ETIQUETTE OF COURTSHIP.

In whatever way the attachment may have originated, whether resulting from old association or from a recent acquaintanceship between the lovers, we will assume that the courtship is so far in a favorable train that the lady's admirer has succeeded in obtaining an introduction to her family, and that he is about to be received in their domestic circle on the footing of a welcome visitor, if not yet in the light of a probationary suitor.

In the first place, matters will in all probability be found to amble on so calmly, that the enamored pair may seldom find it needful to consult the rules of etiquette; but in the latter, its rules must be attentively observed, or "the course of true love" will assuredly not run smooth.

Young people are naturally prone to seek the company of those they love; and as their impulses are often at such times impatient of control, etiquette prescribes cautionary rules for the purpose of averting the mischief that unchecked intercourse and incautious familiarity might give rise to. For instance, a couple known to be attached to each other should never, unless when old acquaintances, be left alone for any length of time, nor be allowed to meet in any other place than the lady's home—particularly at balls, concerts, and other public places—except in the presence of a third party. This, as a general rule, should be carefully observed, although exceptions may occasionally occur under special circumstances.

WHAT THE LADY SHOULD OBSERVE DURING COURTSHIP.

A lady should be particular during the early days of courtship—while still retaining some clearness of mental vision—to observe the manner in which her suitor comports himself to other ladies. If he behave with ease and courtesy, without freedom or the slightest approach to license in manner or conversation; if he never speak slightingly of the sex, and


MARRIAGE
ETIQUETTE.
LOVE IN A NOSEGAY.

is ever ready to honor its virtues and defend its weakness; she may continue to incline towards him a willing ear. His habits and his conduct must awaken her vigilant attention before it be too late. Should he come to visit her at irregular hours; should he exhibit a vague or wandering attention—give proofs of a want of punctuality—show disrespect for age—sneer at things sacred, or absent himself from regular attendance at divine service—or evince an inclination to expensive pleasures beyond his means, or to low and vulgar amusements; should he be foppish, eccentric, or very slovenly in his dress; or display a frivolity of mind, and an absence of well-directed energy in his worldly pursuits; let the young lady, we say, while there is yet time, eschew that gentleman's acquaintance, and allow it gently to drop. The effort, at whatever cost to her feelings, must be made, if she have any regard for her future happiness and self-respect. The proper course then to take is to intimate her distate, and the causes that have given rise to it, to her parents or guardian, who will be pretty sure to sympathize with her, and to take measures for facilitating the retirement of the gentleman from his pretensions.

WHAT THE GENTLEMAN SHOULD OBSERVE DURING COURTSHIP.

It would be well also for the suitor, on his part, during the first few weeks of courtship, carefully to observe the conduct of the young lady in her own family, and the degree of estimation in which she is held by them, as well as among her intimate friends. If she be attentive to her duties; respectful and affectionate to her parents; kind and forbearing to her brothers and sisters; not easily ruffled in temper; if her mind be prone to cheerfulness and to hopeful aspiration, instead of to the display of a morbid anxiety and dread of coming evil; if her pleasures and enjoyments be those which chiefly center in home; if her words be characterized by benevolence, goodwill, and charity: then we say, let him not hesitate, but hasten to enshrine so precious a gem in the casket of his affections. But if, on the other hand, he should find that he has been attracted by the tricksome affectation and heartless allurements of a flirt, ready to bestow smiles on all, but with a heart for none; if she who has succeeded for a time in fascinating him be of uneven temper, easily provoked, and slow to be appeased; fond of showy dress, and eager for admiration; ecstatic about trifles, frivolous in her tastes, and weak and wavering in performing her duties; if her religious observances are merely the formality of lip-service; if she be petulant to her friends, pert and disrespectful to her parents, overbearing to her inferiors; if pride, vanity, and affectation be her characteristics; if she be inconstant in her friendships; gaudy and slovenly, rather than neat and scrupulously clean, in attire and personal habits; then we counsel the gentleman to retire as speedily, but as politely, as possible from the pursuit of an object unworthy of his admiration and love; nor dread that the lady's friends—who must know her better than he can do—will call him to account for withdrawing from the field.

But we will take it for granted that all goes on well; that the parties are, on sufficient acquaintance, pleased with each other, and that the gentleman is eager to prove the sincerity of his affectionate regard by giving some substantial token of his love and homage to the fair one. This brings us to the question of

PRESENTS,

a point on which certain observances of etiquette must not be disregarded. A lady, for instance, cannot with propriety accept presents from a gentleman *previously* to his having made proposals of marriage. She would by so doing incur an obligation at once embarrassing and unbecoming. Should, however, the gentleman insist on making her a present—as of some trifling object of jewelry, etc.—there must be no secret about it. Let the young lady take an early opportunity of saying to her admirer, in the presence of her father or mother, "I am much obliged to you for that ring (or other trinket, as the case may be) which you kindly offered me the other day, and which I shall be most happy to accept, if my parents do not object;" and let her say this in a manner which, while it increases the obligation, will divest it altogether of impropriety, from having been conferred under the sanction of her parents.

We have now reached that stage in the progress of the Courtship, where budding affection, having developed into mature growth, encourages the lover to make

THE PROPOSAL.

When about to take this step, the suitor's first difficulty is how to get a favorable opportunity; and next, having got the chance, how to screw his courage up to give utterance to the "declaration." A declaration in writing should certainly be avoided where the lover can by any possibility get at the lady's ear. But there are cases where this is so difficult that an impatient lover cannot be restrained from adopting the agency of a *billet-doux* in declaring his passion.

The lady, before proposal, is generally prepared for it. It is seldom that such an avowal comes without some previous indications of look and manner on the part of the admirer which can hardly fail of being understood. She may not, indeed, consider herself engaged; and although nearly certain of the conquest she has made, may yet have her misgivings. Some gentlemen dread to ask, lest they should be refused. Many pause just at the point, and refrain from anything like ardor in their professions of attachment until they feel confident, that they may be spared the mortification and ridicule that is supposed to attach to being rejected, in addition to the pain of disappointed hope. This hesitation when the mind is made up is wrong; but it does often occur, and we suppose ever will do so, with persons of great timidity of character By it both parties are kept needlessly on the fret, until the long-looked-for opportunity unexpectedly arrives, when the flood-gates of feeling are loosened, and the full tide of mutual affection gushes forth uncontrolled. It is, however, at this moment—the agony-point to the embarrassed lover, who "doats yet doubts"—whose suppressed feelings rendered him morbidly sensitive—that a lady should be especially careful lest any show of either prudery or coquetry on her part should lose to her forever the object of her choice. True love is generally delicate and timid, and may easily be scared by af-

fected indifference, through feelings of wounded pride. A lover needs very little to assure him of the reciprocation of his attachment: a glance, a single pressure of the hand, a whispered syllable, on the part of the loved one, will suffice to confirm his hopes,

REFUSAL BY THE YOUNG LADY.

When a lady rejects the proposal of a gentleman, her behavior should be characterized by the most delicate feeling toward sone who, in offering her his hand, has proved his desire to confer upon her, by this implied preference for her above all other women, the greatest honor it is in his power to offer. Therefore, if she have no love for him, she ought at least to evince a tender regard for his feelings; and in the event of her being previously engaged, should at once acquaint him with the fact. No right-minded man would desire to persist in a suit, when he well knew that the object of his admiration had already disposed of her heart.

When a gentleman makes an offer of his hand by letter, the letter must be answered, and certainly not returned, should the answer be a refusal; unless, indeed, when from a previous repulse, or some other particular and special circumstance, such an offer may be regarded by the lady or her relatives as presumptuous and intrusive. Under such circumstances, the letter may be placed by the lady in the hands of her parents or guardian, to be dealt with by them as they may deem most advisable.

No woman of proper feeling would regard her rejection of an offer of marriage from a worthy man as a matter of triumph; her feeling on such an occasion should be one of regretful sympathy with him for the pain she is unavoidably compelled to inflict. Nor should such a rejection be unaccompanied with some degree of self-examination on her part, to discern whether any lightness of demeanor or tendency to flirtation may have given rise to a false hope of her favoring his suit. At all events, no lady should ever treat the man who has so honored her with the slightest disrespect or frivolous disregard, nor ever unfeelingly parade a more favored suitor before one whom she has refused.

CONDUCT OF THE GENTLEMAN WHEN HIS ADDRESSES ARE REJECTED.

The conduct of the gentleman under such distressing circumstances should be characterized by extreme delicacy and a chivalrous resolve to avoid occasioning any possible annoyance or uneasiness to the fair author of his pain. If, however, he should have reason to suppose that his rejection has resulted from mere indifference to his suit, he need not altogether retire from the field, but may endeavor to kindle a feeling of regard and sympathy for the patient endurance of his disappointment, and for his continued but respectful endeavors to please the lukewarm fair one. But in case of avowed or evident preference for another, it becomes imperative upon him, as a gentleman, to withdraw at once, and so relieve the lady of any obstacle, that his presence or pretensions may occasion, to the furtherance of her obvious wishes. A pertinacious continuance of his attentions, on the part of one who has been distinctly rejected, is an insult deserving of the severest reprobation. Although the weakness of her sex, which ought to be her protection, frequently prevents a woman from forcibly breaking off an acquaintance thus annoyingly forced upon her, she rarely fails to resent such impertinence by that sharpest of woman's weapons, a keen-edged but courteous ridicule, which few men can bear up against.

REFUSAL BY THE LADY'S PARENTS OR GUARDIANS.

It may happen that both the lady and her suitor are willing, but that the parents or guardians of the former, on being referred to, deem the connection unfitting, and refuse their consent. In this state of matters, the first thing a man of sense, proper feeling, and candor should do, is to endeavor to learn the objections of the parents, to see whether they cannot be removed. If they are based on his present insufficiency of means, a lover of a persevering spirit may effect much in removing apprehension on that score, by cheerfully submitting to a reasonable time of probation, in the hope of amelioration in his worldly circumstances. Happiness delayed will be none the less precious when love has stood the test of constancy and the trial of time. Should the objection be founded on inequality of social position, the parties, if young, may wait until matured age shall ripen their judgment and place the future more at their own disposal. A clandestine marriage should be peremptorily declined. In too many cases it is a fraud committed by an elder and more experienced party upon one whose ignorance of the world's ways, and whose confiding tenderness appeal to him for protection even against himself. In nearly all the instances we have known of such marriages, the result proved the step to have been ill-judged, imprudent, and highly injurious to the reputation of one party, and in the long run detrimental to the happiness of both.

CONDUCT OF THE ENGAGED COUPLE.

The conduct of the bridegroom-elect should be marked by a gallant and affectionate assiduity towards his lady-love—a *denouement* easily felt and understood, but not so easy to define. That of the lady towards him should manifest delicacy, tenderness, and confidence: while looking for his thorough devotion to herself, she should not captiously take offense and show airs at his showing the same kind of attention to other ladies as she, in her turn, would not hesitate to receive from the other sex.

In the behavior of a gentleman towards his betrothed in public, little difference should be perceptible from his demeanor to other ladies, except in those minute attentions which none but those who love can properly understand or appreciate.

In private, the slightest approach to indecorous familiarity must be avoided; indeed it is pretty certain to be resented by every woman who deserves to be a bride. The lady's honor is now in her lover's hands, and he should never forget in his demeanor to and before her that that lady is to be his future wife.

It is the privilege of the betrothed lover, as it is also his

duty, to give advice to the fair one who now implicitly confides in him. Should he detect a fault, should he observe failings which he would wish removed or amended, let him avail himself of this season, so favorable for the frank interchange of thought between the betrothed pair, to urge their correction. He will find a ready listener; and any judicious counsel offered to her by him will now be gratefully received, and remembered in after life. After marriage it may be too late; for advice on trivial points of conduct may then not improbably be resented by the wife as an unnecessary interference; now, the fair and loving creature is disposed like pliant wax in his hands to mold herself to his reasonable wishes in all things.

CONDUCT OF THE LADY DURING HER BETROTHAL.

A lady is not expected to keep aloof from society on her engagement, nor to debar herself from the customary attentions and courtesies of her male acquaintances generally; but she should, while accepting them cheerfully, maintain such a prudent reserve, as to intimate that they are viewed by her as mere acts of ordinary courtesy and friendship. In all places of public amusement—at balls, the opera, etc.—for a lady to be seen with any other cavalier than her avowed lover, in close attendance upon her, would expose her to the imputation of flirtation. She will naturally take pains at such a period to observe the taste of her lover in regard to her costume, and strive carefully to follow it, for all men desire to have their taste and wishes on such apparent trifles gratified. She should at the same time observe much delicacy in regard to dress, and be careful to avoid any unseemly display of her charms; lovers are naturally jealous of observation under such circumstances. It is a mistake not seldom made by women, to suppose their suitors will be pleased by the glowing admiration expressed by other men for the object of *their* passion. Most lovers, on the contrary, we believe, wonld prefer to withdraw their prize from general observation until the happy moment for their union has arrived.

CONDUCT OF THE GENTLEMAN TOWARDS THE FAMILY OF HIS BETROTHED.

The lover, having now secured his position, should use discretion and tact in his intercourse with the lady's family, and take care that his visits be not deemed too frequent—so as to be really inconvenient to them. He should accommodate himself as much as possible to their habits and ways, and be ever ready and attentive to consult their wishes. Marked attention, and in most cases affectionate kindness, to the lady's mother ought to be shown; such respectful homage will secure for him many advantages in his present position. He must not, however, presume to take his stand yet as a member of the family, nor exhibit an obtrusive familiarity in manner and conversation. Should a disruption of the engagement from some unexpected cause ensue, it is obvious that any such premature assumption would lead to very embarrassing results. In short, his conduct should be such as to win for himself the esteem and affection of all the family, and dispose them ever to welcome and desire his presence, rather than regard him as an intruder.

CONDUCT OF THE LADY ON RETIRING FROM HER ENGAGEMENT.

Should this step unhappily be found necessary on the lady's part, the truth should be spoken, and the reasons frankly given; there must be no room left for the suspicion of its having originated in caprice or injustice. The case should be so put that the gentleman himself must see and acknowledge the justice of the painful decision arrived at. Incompatible habits, ungentlemanly actions, anything tending to diminish that respect for the lover which should be felt for the husband; inconstancy, ill-governed temper—all of which, not to mention other obvious objections—are to be considered as sufficient reasons for terminating an engagement. The communication should be made as tenderly as possible; room may be left in mere venial cases for reformation; but all that is done must be so managed that not the slightest shadow of fickleness or want of faith may rest upon the character of the lady. It must be remembered, however, that the termination of an engagement by a lady has the privilege of passing unchallenged; a lady not being *bound* to declare any other reason than her will. Nevertheless she owes it to her own reputation that her decision should rest on a sufficient foundation, and be unmistakeably pronounced.

CONDUCT OF THE GENTLEMAN ON RETIRING FROM HIS ENGAGEMENT.

We hardly know how to approach this portion of our subject. The reasons must be strong indeed that can sufficiently justify a man, placed in the position of an accepted suitor, in severing the ties by which he has bound himself to a lady with the avowed intention of making her his wife. His reasons for breaking off his engagement must be such as will not merely satisfy his own conscience, but will justify him in the eyes of the world. If the fault be on the lady's side, great reserve and delicacy will be observed by any man of honor. If, on the other hand, the imperative force of circumstances, such as loss of fortune, or some other unexpected calamity to himself, may be the cause, then must the reason be clearly and fully explained, in such a manner as to soothe the painful feelings which such a result must necessarily occasion to the lady and her friends. It is scarcely necessary to point out the necessity for observing great caution in all that relates to the antecedents of an engagement that has been broken off; especially the return on either side of presents and of all letters that have passed.

This last allusion brings us to the consideration of

CORRESPONDENCE.

Letter-writing is one great test of ability and cultivation, as respects both sexes. The imperfections of education may be to some extent concealed or glossed over in conversation, but cannot fail to stand out conspicuously in a letter. An ill-written letter infallibly betrays the vulgarity and ignorance indicative of a mean social position.

But there is something more to be guarded against than even bad writing and worse spelling in a correspondence: *saying too much*—writing that kind of matter which will not bear to be read by other eyes than those for which it was originally intended. That this is too frequently done is amply proved by the love letters often read in a court of law, the most affecting passages from which occasion "roars of laughter" and the derisive comments of merry-making counsel. Occurrences of this kind prove how frequently letters are not returned or burned when an affair of the heart is broken off. Correspondence between lovers should at all events be tempered with discretion; and on the lady's part particularly, her affectionate expressions should not degenerate into a silly style of fondness.

It is as well to remark here, that in correspondence between a couple not actually engaged, the use of Christian names in addressing each other should be avoided.

DEMEANOR OF THE SUITOR DURING COURTSHIP.

The manners of a gentleman are ever characterized by urbanity and a becoming consideration for the feelings and wishes of others, and by a readiness to practice self-denial. But the very nature of courtship requires the fullest exercise of these excellent qualities on his part. The lover should carefully accommodate his tone and bearing, whether cheerful or serious, to the mood for the time of his lady-love, whose slightest wish must be his law. In his assiduities to her he must allow of no stint; though hindered by time, distance, or fatigue, he must strive to make his professional and social duties bend to his homage at the shrine of love. All this can be done, moreover, by a man of excellent sense with perfect propriety. Indeed, the world will not only commend him for such devoted gallantry, but will be pretty sure to censure him for any short-coming in his performance of such devoirs.

It is, perhaps, needless to observe that at such a period a gentleman should be scrupulously neat, without appearing particular, in his attire. We shall not attempt to prescribe what he should wear, as that must, of course, depend on the times of the day when his visits are paid, and other circumstances, such as meeting a party of friends, going to the theater, etc., with the lady.

SHOULD A COURTSHIP BE SHORT OR LONG?

The answer to this question must depend on the previous acquaintanceship, connection, or relationship of the parties, as well as on their present circumstances, and the position of their parents. In case of relationship or old acquaintanceship subsisting between the families, when the courtship, declaration, and engagement have followed each other rapidly, a short wooing is preferable to a long one, should other circumstances not create an obstacle. Indeed, as a general rule, we are disposed strongly to recommend a short courtship. A man is never well settled in the saddle of his fortunes until he be married. He wants spring, purpose, and aim; and, above all, he wants a *home* as the center of his efforts. Some portion of inconvenience, therefore, may be risked to obtain this; in fact, it often occurs that by waiting too long the freshness of life is worn off, and that the generous glow of early feelings becomes tamed down to lukewarmness by a too prudent delaying; while a slight sacrifice of ambition or self-indulgence on the part of the gentleman, and a little descent from pride of station on the lady's side, might have insured years of satisfied love and happy wedded life.

On the other hand, we would recommend a long courtship as advisable when—the friends on both sides favoring the match—it happens that the fortune of neither party will prudently allow an immediate marriage. The gentleman, we will suppose, has his way to make in his profession or business, and is desirous not to involve the object of his affection in the distressing inconvenience, if not the misery, of straitened means. He reflects that for a lady it is an actual degradation, however love may ennoble the motive of her submission, to descend from her former footing in society. He feels, therefore, that this risk ought not to be incurred. For, although the noble and loving spirit of a wife might enable her to bear up cheerfully against misfortune, and by her endearments soothe the broken spirit of her husband; yet the lover who would willfully, at the outset of wedded life, expose his devoted helpmate to the ordeal of poverty, would be deservedly scouted as selfish and unworthy. These, then, are among the circumstances which warrant a lengthened engagement, and it should be the endeavor of the lady's friends to approve such cautious delay, and do all they can to assist the lover in his efforts to abridge it. The lady's father should regard the lover in the light of another son added to his family, and spare no pains to promote his interests in life, while the lady's mother should do everything in her power, by those small attentions which a mother understands so well, to make the protracted engagement agreeable to him, and as endurable as possible to her daughter.

PRELIMINARY ETIQUETTE OF A WEDDING.

Whether the term of courtship may have been long or short—according to the requirements of the case—the time will at last arrive for

FIXING THE DAY.

While it is the gentleman's province to press for the earliest possible opportunity, it is the lady's privilege to name the happy day; not but that the bridegroom-elect must, after all, issue the fiat, for he has much to consider and prepare for beforehand: for instance, to settle where it will be most convenient to spend the honeymoon—a point which must depend on the season of the year, on his own vocation, and other circumstances. At this advanced state of affairs, we must not overlook the important question of

THE BRIDAL TROUSSEAU AND THE WEDDING PRESENTS.

Wedding presents must be sent always to the *bride*, never to the bridegroom, though they be given by friends of the latter. They should be sent during the week previous to the wedding day, as it is customary to display them before the ceremony.

Two cards folded in the invitation in the envelope are sent

with the wedding invitation. The invitation is in the name of the bride's mother, or, if she is not living, the relative or friend nearest the bride:

MRS. NICHOLAS RUTH

AT HOME,

Tuesday, November 18th,

FROM 11 TILL 2 O'CLOCK.

No. 86 W. 47TH STREET.

The two cards, one large and one small, are folded in this invitation. Upon the large card is engraved:

MR. AND MRS. W. F. JOHNSON

On the smaller one:

MISS ROSIE RUTH.

If the young people "receive" after their return from the bridal tour, and there is no wedding-day reception, the following card is sent out:

MR. AND MRS. W. F. JOHNSON

AT HOME,

Thursday, December 28th,

FROM 11 TILL 2 O'CLOCK,

No. 50 E. 63D STREET.

Or,

MR. AND MRS. W. F. JOHNSON

AT HOME,

Thursdays in December.

FROM 11 TILL 2 O'CLOCK.

No. 50 E. 63D STREET.

The bridal calls are not expected to be returned until the last day of reception.

The bridegroom gives to the first groomsman the control of the ceremony and money for the necessary expenses. The first groomsman presents the bouquet to the bride, leads the visitors up to the young couple for the words of congratulation, gives the clergyman his fee, engages the carriages, secures tickets, checks baggage, secures pleasant seats, if the happy pair start by rail for the "moon;" and, in short, makes all arrangements.

If the wedding takes place in church, the front seats in the body of the church are reserved for the relatives of the young couple. The bride must not be kept waiting. The clergyman should be within the rails, the bridegroom and groomsmen should be in the vestry-room by the time the bride is due at the church. The bridesmaids should receive the bride in the vestibule.

The bridal party meet in the vestry-room. Then the bride, leaning on the arm of her father, leads the procession; the bridegroom, with the bride's mother upon his arm, follows; then groomsmen and bridesmaids in couples follow.

At the altar the bridegroom receives the bride, and the ceremony begins. The groomsmen stand behind the bridegroom, the bridesmaids behind the bride. In some churches, the bride and bridegroom remove the right hand glove; in others it is not considered essential. The bride stands on the left of the groom.

When the wedding takes place at the house of the bride, the bridal party is grouped behind folding doors or curtains ere their friends see them. If, however, this is not convenient, they enter in the same order as in church.

The first bridesmaid removes the bride's left hand glove for the ring.

After the ceremony the bride and groom go in the same carriage from the church to the house, or from the house to the railway depot or boat.

The bride does not change her dress until she assumes her traveling dress. Her wedding gown is worn at the breakfast.

Friends of the family should call upon the mother of the bride during the two weeks after the wedding.

Mourning must not be worn at a wedding. Even in the case of a widowed mother to either of the happy pair, it is customary to wear gray, or some neutral tint.

It is no longer the fashion at a wedding or wedding reception to congratulate the bride; it is the bridegroom who receives congratulations; the bride wishes for her future happiness. The bride is spoken to first.

The day being fixed for the wedding, the bride's father now presents her with a sum of money for her trousseau, according to her rank in life. A few days previously to the wedding, presents are also made to the bride by relations and intimate friends, varying in amount and value according to their degrees of relationship and friendship—such as plate, furniture, jewelry, and articles of ornament, as well as of utility, to the newly-married lady in her future station. These, together with her wedding dresses, etc., it is customary to exhibit to the intimate friends of the bride a day or two before her marriage.

DUTY OF A BRIDEGROOM-ELECT.

The bridegroom-elect has, on the eve of matrimony, no little business to transact. His first care is to look after a house suitable for his future home, and then, assisted by the taste of his chosen helpmate, to take steps to furnish it in a becoming style. He must also, if engaged in business, make arrangements for a month's absence; in fact, bring together all matters into a focus, so as to be readily manageable when, after the honeymoon, he shall take the reins himself. He will do well to burn most of his bachelor letters, and to part with, it may be, some few of his bachelor connections; and he should communicate, in an easy, informal way, to his acquaintances generally, the close approach of so important a change in his condition. Not to do this might hereafter lead to inconvenience and cause no little annoyance.

We must now speak of

BUYING THE RING.

It is the gentleman's business to buy the ring; *and let him take special care not to forget it;* for such an awkward mistake has frequently happened. The ring should be, we need

scarcely say, of the very purest gold, but substantial. There are three reasons for this: first, that it may not break—a source of great trouble to the young wife; secondly, that it may not slip off the finger without being missed—few husbands being pleased to hear that their wives have lost their wedding rings; and thirdly, that it may last out the lifetime of the loving recipient, even should that life be protracted to the extreme extent. To get the right size required is not one of the least interesting of the delicate mysteries of love. A not unusual method is to get a sister of the fair one to lend one of the lady's rings to enable the jeweler to select the proper size. Care must be taken, however, that it is not too large. Some audacious suitors, rendered bold by their favored position, have been even known presumptuously to try the ring on the patient finger of the bride elect; and it has rarely happened in such cases that the ring has been refused, or sent back to be changed.

WHO SHOULD BE ASKED TO THE WEDDING.

The wedding should take place at the house of the bride's parents or guardians. The parties who ought to be asked are the father and mother of the gentleman, the brothers and sisters (their wives and husbands also, if married), and indeed the immediate relations and favored friends of both parties. Old family friends on the bride's side should also receive invitations—the *rationale* or original intention of this wedding assemblage being to give publicity to the fact that the bride is leaving her paternal home with the consent and approbation of her parents.

On this occasion the bridegroom has the privilege of asking any friends he may choose to the wedding; but no friend has a right to feel affronted at not being invited, since, were all the friends on either side assembled, the wedding breakfast would be an inconveniently crowded reception rather than an impressive ceremonial. It is, however, considered a matter of friendly attention on the part of those who cannot be invited, to be present at the ceremony in the church.

WHO SHOULD BE BRIDESMAIDS.

The bridesmaids should include the unmarried sisters of the bride; but it is considered an anomaly for an elder sister to perform this function. The pleasing novelty for several years past of an addition to the number of bridesmaids, varying from two to eight, and sometimes more, has added greatly to the interest in weddings, the bride being thus enabled to diffuse a portion of her own happiness among the most intimate of her younger friends. One lady is always appointed principal bridesmaid, and has the bride in her charge; it is also her duty to take care that the other bridesmaids have the wedding favors in readiness. On the second bridesmaid devolves, with her principal, the duty of sending out the cards; and on the third bridesmaid, in conjunction with the remaining beauties of her choir, the onerous office of attending to certain ministrations and mysteries connected with the wedding cake.

OF THE BRIDEGROOMSMEN.

It behooves a bridegroom to be exceedingly particular in the selection of the friends who, as groomsmen, are to be his companions and assistants on the occasion of his wedding. Their number is limited to that of the bridesmaids; one for each. It is unnecessary to add that very much of the social pleasure of the day will depend on their proper mating. Young and unmarried they must be, handsome they should be, good-humored they cannot fail to be, well dressed they will of course take good care to be. Let the bridegroom diligently con over his circle of friends, and select the comeliest and the pleasantest fellows for his own train. The principal bridegroomsman, styled his "best man," has, for the day, the special charge of the bridegroom; and the last warning we would give him is, to take care that, when the bridegroom puts on his wedding waistcoat, he does not omit to put the wedding ring into the corner of the left-hand pocket. The dress of a groomsman should be light and elegant; a dress coat, formerly considered indispensable, is no longer adopted.

ETIQUETTE OF A WEDDING.

The parties being assembled on the wedding morning in the drawing-room of the residence of the bride's father (unless, as sometimes happens, the breakfast is spread in that room), the happy *cortège* should proceed to the church in the following order:—

In the first carriage, the bride's mother and the parents of the bridegroom.

In the second and third carriages, bridesmaids.

Other carriages with the bride's friends.

In the last carriage, the bride and her father.

COSTUME OF THE BRIDE.

A bride's costume should be white, or some hue as close as possible to it.

COSTUME OF THE BRIDEGROOM.

Formerly it was not considered to be in good taste for a gentleman to be married in a black coat. More latitude is now allowed in the costume of a bridegroom, the style now adopted being what is termed morning dress: a frock coat, light trowsers, white waistcoat, ornamental tie, and white or gray gloves.

THE MARRIAGE CEREMONY.

The bridegroom stands at the right hand of the bride. The father stands just behind her, so as to be in readiness to give her hand at the proper moment to the bridegroom. The principal bridesmaid stands on the left of the bride, ready to take off the bride's glove, which she keeps as a perquisite and prize of her office.

THE WORDS "I WILL"

are to be pronounced distinctly and audibly by both parties, such being the all-important part of the ceremony as respects themselves; the public delivery, before the priest, by the father of his daughter to the bridegroom, being an evidence of his assent; the silence which follows the inquiry for "cause or just impediment" testifying that of society in general; and the "I will" being the declaration of the bride and

bridegroom that they are voluntary parties to their holy union in marriage.

THE WORDS "HONOR AND OBEY"

must also be distinctly spoken by the bride. They constitute an essential part of the obligation and contract of matrimony on her part.

AFTER THE CEREMONY

the clergyman usually shakes hands with the bride and bridegroom, and the bride's father and mother, and a general congratulation ensues.

THE RETURN HOME.

The bridegroom now leads the bride out of the church, and the happy pair return homeward in the first carriage. The father and mother follow in the next. The rest "stand not on the order of their going," but start off in such wise as they can best contrive.

THE WEDDING BREAKFAST.

The bride and bridegroom sit together at the center of the table, in front of the wedding cake, the clergyman who performed the ceremony taking his place opposite to them. The top and bottom of the table are occupied by the father and mother of the bride. The principal bridesmaid sits to the left of the bride, and the principal bridegroomsman on the left of the bridegroom. It may not be unnecessary to say that it is customary for the ladies to wear their bonnets just as they came from the church. The bridesmaids cut the cake into small pieces, which are not eaten until the health of the bride is proposed. This is usually done by the officiating clergyman, or by an old and cherished friend of the family of the bridegroom. The bridegroom returns thanks for the bride and for himself. The health of the bride's parents is then proposed, and is followed by those of the principal personages present, the toast of the bridesmaids being generally one of the pleasantest features of the festal ceremony. After about two hours, the principal bridesmaid leads the bride out of the room as quietly as possible, so as not to disturb the party or attract attention. Shortly after—it may be in about ten minutes—the absence of the bride being noticed, the rest of the ladies retire. Then it is that the bridegroom has a few *melancholy* moments to bid adieu to his bachelor friends, and he then generally receives some hints on the subject in a short address from one of them, to which he is of course expected to respond. He then withdraws for a few moments, and returns after having made a slight addition to his toilet, in readiness for traveling.

DEPARTURE FOR THE HONEYMOON.

The young bride, divested of her bridal attire, and quietly costumed for the journey, now bids farewell to her bridesmaids and lady friends. A few tears spring to her gentle eyes as she takes a last look at the home she is now leaving. The servants venture to crowd about her with their humble but heartfelt congratulations; finally, she falls weeping on her mother's bosom. A short cough is heard, as of some one summoning up resolution to hide emotion. It is her father. He dares not trust his voice; but holds out his hand, gives her an affectionate kiss, and then leads her, half turning back, down the stairs and through the hall, to the door, where he delivers her as a precious charge to her husband, who hands her quickly into the carriage, springs in after her, waves his hand to the party who appear crowding at the window, half smiles at the throng about the door, then, amidst a shower of old slippers—missiles of good-luck sent flying after the happy pair—gives the word, and they are off, and started on the long-hoped-for voyage!

PRACTICAL ADVICE TO A NEWLY-MARRIED COUPLE.

Our advice to the husband will be brief. Let him have no concealments from his wife, but remember that their interests are mutual; that, as she must suffer the pains of every loss, as well as share the advantages of every success, in his career in life, she has therefore a right to know the risks she may be made to undergo. We do not say that it is necessary, or advisable, or even fair, to harass a wife's mind with the details of business; but where a change of circumstances—not for the better—is anticipated or risked, let her by all means be made acquainted with the fact in good time. Many a kind husband almost breaks his young wife's fond heart by an alteration in his manner, which she cannot but detect, but from ignorance of the cause very probably attributes to a wrong motive; while he, poor fellow, all the while out of pure tenderness, is endeavoring to conceal from her tidings—which must come out at last—of ruined hopes or failure in speculation; whereas, had she but known the danger beforehand, she would have alleviated his fears on her account, and by cheerful resignation have taken out half the sting of his disappointment. Let no man think lightly of the opinion of his wife in times of difficulty. Women have generally more acuteness of perception than men; and in moments of peril, or in circumstances that involve a crisis or turning-point in life, they have usually more resolution and greater instinctive judgment.

We recommend that every husband from the first should make his wife an allowance for ordinary household expenses—which he should pay weekly or monthly—and for the expenditure of which he should not, unless for some urgent reason, call her to account. A tolerably sure guide in estimating the amount of this item, which does not include rent, taxes, servants' wages, coals, or candles, etc., is to remember that in a small middle-class family, not exceeding *four*, the expense of each person for ordinary food amounts to fifteen shillings weekly; beyond that number to ten shillings weekly for each extra person, servant or otherwise. This estimate does not, of course, provide for wine or food of a luxurious kind. The largest establishment, indeed, may be safely calculated on the same scale.

A wife should also receive a stated allowance for dress, within which limit she ought always to restrict her expenses. Any excess of expenditure under this head should be left to the considerate kindness of her husband to concede. Nothing is more contemptible than for a woman to have perpetually to ask her husband for small sums for housekeeping expenses—

nothing more annoying and humiliating than to have to apply to him always for her own private use—nothing more disgusting than to see a man "molly-coddling" about marketing, and rummaging about for cheap articles of all kinds.

Let the husband beware, when things go wrong with him in business affairs, of venting his bitter feelings of disappointment and despair in the presence of his wife and family; feelings which, while abroad, he finds it practicable to restrain. It is as unjust as it is impolitic to indulge in such a habit.

A wife having married the man she loves above all others, must be expected in her turn to pay some court to him. Before marriage she has, doubtless, been made his idol. Every moment he could spare, and perhaps many more than he could properly so appropriate, have been devoted to her. How anxiously has he not revolved in his mind his worldly chances of making her happy! How often has he not had to reflect, before he made the proposal of marriage, whether he should be acting dishonorably towards her by incurring the risk, for the selfish motive of his own gratification, of placing her in a worse position than the one she occupied at home! And still more than this, he must have had to consider with anxiety the probability of having to provide for an increasing family, with all its concomitant expenses.

We say, then, that being married, and the honeymoon over, the husband must necessarily return to his usual occupations, which will, in all probability, engage the greater part of his thoughts, for he will now be desirous to have it in his power to procure various little indulgences for his wife's sake which he never would have dreamed of for his own. He comes to his home weary and fatigued; his young wife has had but her pleasures to gratify, or the quiet routine of her domestic duties to attend to, while he has been toiling through the day to enable her to gratify these pleasures and to fulfill these duties. Let, then, the dear, tired husband, at the close of his daily labors, be made welcome by the endearments of his loving spouse—let him be free from the care of having to satisfy the caprices of a petted wife. Let her now take her turn in paying those many little love-begotten attentions which married men look for to soothe them—let her reciprocate that devotion to herself, which, from the early hours of their love, he cherished for her, by her ever-ready endeavors to make him happy and his home attractive.

In the presence of other persons, however, married people should refrain from fulsome expressions of endearment to each other, the use of which, although a common practice, is really a mark of bad taste. It is desirable also to caution them against adopting the too prevalent vulgarism of calling each other, or indeed any person whatever, merely by the initial letter of their surname.

A married woman should always be very careful how she receives personal compliments. She should never court them, nor ever feel flattered by them, whether in her husband's presence or not. If in his presence, they can hardly fail to be distasteful to him; if in his absence, a lady, by a dignified demeanor, may always convince an assiduous admirer that his attentions are not well received, and at once and for ever stop all familiar advances. In case of insult, a wife should immediately make her husband acquainted therewith; as the only chance of safety to a villain lies in the concealment of such things by a lady from dread of consequences to her husband. From that moment he has her at advantage, and may very likely work on deliberately to the undermining of her character. He is thus enabled to play upon her fears, and taunt her with their mutual secret and its concealment, until she may be involved, guilelessly, in a web of apparent guilt, from which she can never extricate herself without risking the happiness of her future life.

Not the least useful piece of advice—homely though it be—that we can offer to newly-married ladies, is to remind them that husbands are men, and that men must eat. We can tell them, moreover, that men attach no small importance to this very essential operation, and that a very effectual way to keep them in good humor, as well as good condition, is for wives to study their husbands' peculiar likes and dislikes in this matter Let the wife try, therefore, if she have not already done so, to get up a little knowledge of the art of *ordering* dinner, to say the least of it. This task, if she be disposed to learn it, will in time be easy enough; moreover, if in addition she should acquire some practical knowledge of cookery, she will find ample reward in the gratification it will be the means of affording her husband.

Servants are difficult subjects for a young wife to handle; she generally either spoils them by indulgence, or ruins them by finding fault unfairly. At last they either get the better of her, or she is voted too bad for them. The art lies in steady command and management of yourself as well as them.

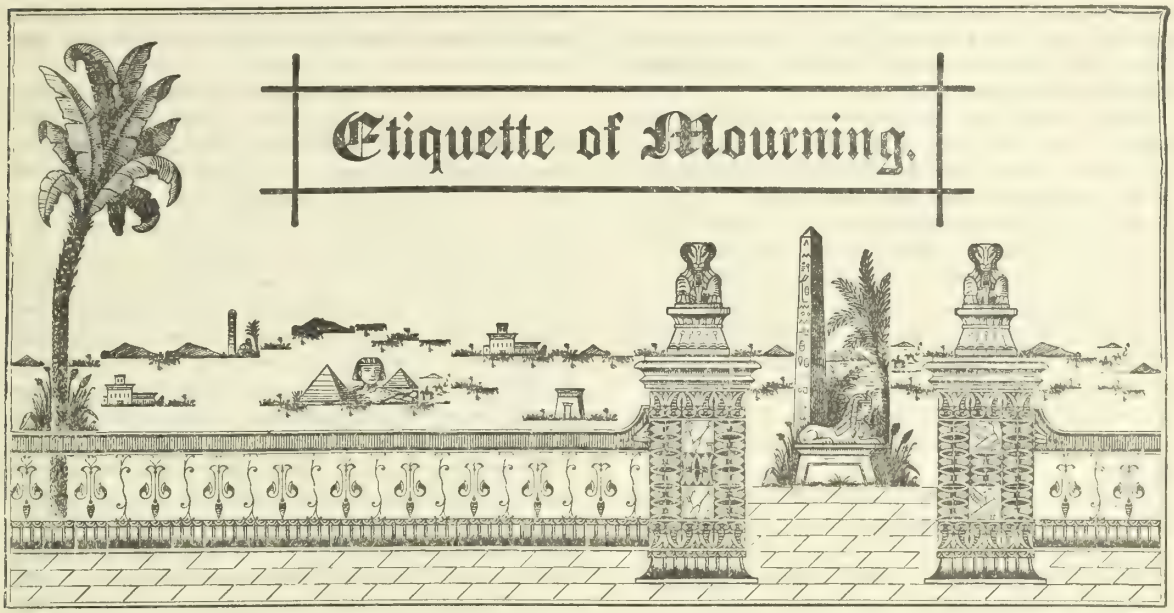
An observance of the few following rules will in all probability insure a life of domestic harmony, peace, and comfort:—

To hear as little as possible whatever is to the prejudice of others; to believe nothing of the kind until you are compelled to admit the truth of it; never to take part in the circulation of evil report and idle gossip; always to moderate, as far as possible, harsh and unkind expressions reflecting upon others; always to believe that if the other side were heard, a very different account might be given of the matter.

In conclusion, we say emphatically to the newly-wedded wife, that attention to these practical hints will prolong her honeymoon throughout the whole period of wedded life, and cause her husband, as each year adds to the sum of his happiness, to bless the day when he first chose her as the nucleus round which he might consolidate the inestimable blessings of HOME.

"How fair is home, in fancy's pictured theme,
In wedded life, in love's romantic dream!
Thence springs each hope, there every spring returns,
Pure as the flame that upward, heavenward burns;
There sits the wife, whose radiant smile is given—
The daily sun of the domestic heaven;
And when calm evening sheds a secret power,
Her looks of love imparadise the hour;
While children round, a beauteous train, appear,
Attendant stars, revolving in her sphere."

—HOLLAND'S *Hopes of Matrimony*.



DURING times of health and happiness, it is perhaps rather trying to be asked to turn our thoughts into doleful channels; but sooner or later in our lives the sad time comes, for "Who breathes must suffer, and who thinks must mourn," and we have perforce to turn our minds to the inevitable and share "the common lot of man." In times of mourning it seems doubly hard to arouse ourselves, and allow the question of what to wear? to intrude itself. It is, however, necessary. Custom decrees, if even inclination does not prompt us, to show in some outward degree our respect for the dead by wearing the usual black.

We do not advise people to rush into black for every slight bereavement, nor, on the other hand, to show the utter disregard some do on the death of their relations, and only acknowledge the departure of those near and dear to them, by a band of crape round the arm. This is the mark of mourning adopted by those in the services who have to wear uniform, but hardly a fitting way of outwardly showing respect to the memory of those who have been called away from us, and whose loss we deplore. A short time since, a lady appeared in a new ruby satin dress, with a band of crape around her arm. The fact of the dress being new, showed that poverty did not cause this incongruity. It is hardly ever those who are styled "the poor," who err so against the accepted ideas of decency and respect. They always, however straitened they may be in circumstances, contrive to wear mourning for their deceased relatives. When black is fashionable, no difficulty is found in wearing it, and you meet all your friends so attired, but when it becomes a question of duty, these objections are raised as to the unnecessary expense, and the inconvenience of so dressing. The majority adhere in this respect to the customs their parents have followed; but the advanced few are those who air such sentiments, talk of the "mourning of the heart, not mere outward woe," and not wearing what is really mourning, go into society on the plea, "Oh! we know that those who are gone would not wish us to grieve for them." This may be all very well, but in the case of husbands, wives, parents, brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles, and the nearer-related cousins, decency

requires some outward mark of respect to their memory.

It will be as well to consider in succession the different degrees of mourning, and their duration.

The widow's is the deepest mourning of all. That old-fashioned material, bombazine, is now no longer heard of. Paramatta is in the most general use for widows. Barathea is also worn, but the first-named is the most frequently used for the first dresses; but, whatever the material, it is hidden by crape. The skirt, which is generally cut quite plain, and slightly trained, is completely covered with crape, put on quite plainly in one piece; the body and sleeves are also hidden with crape—the dress, in fact, presenting the appearance of one of crape. The body can be cut either *en princesse*, or have a deep jacket bodice; but whichever is preferred, crape should cover it completely.

The best and most economical crape for all wear is the rainproof crape, an improvement and development of the Albert crape, which is now brought to the greatest perfection of manufacture; it costs about half what ordinary crape does, to begin with, and is very much more durable; its imperviousness to weather being, of course, its great feature. The best make of this is quite suitable for widows' mourning. Its appearance equals that of much more expensive ordinary crape. We see no reason ourselves why, especially if economy be an object, the rainproof crape should not be worn for all degrees of mourning. We have no hesitation in advising it. For a second dress it would be a good plan to have some half-worn black dress entirely covered with crape—the rainproof crape—

this would save the better dress a little; and as widows' first mourning is worn for a year and a day, it would be advisable to start with at least two dresses; the crape on them could be renewed when necessary.

Widows' mantles are either made of silk or Paramatta, trimmed deeply with crape, or sometimes of Cyprus crape cloth, or cloth crape trimmed. The Cyprus crape cloth is a sort of crêpe material, and wears well, neither dust nor wet affecting it. In shape, the widow's mantle is a dolman, or long cape of good size; this for elderly widows. For those younger, jackets or paletôts, crape-trimmed of course, are worn for winter wear, and for summer mantles made entirely of crape. The bonnet for first mourning is all of crape, with widow's cap tacked inside it, the small, close-fitting shape, with long crape veil hanging at the back; besides this veil, a shorter one is worn over the face. Hats cannot be worn by widows, however young they might be, during the period of their deepest mourning.

The following list would be ample for a widow's outfit. We have given rather a large one because, of course, it can be curtailed as wished.

One best dress of Paramatta covered entirely with crape.

One dress, either a costume of Cyprus crape, or an old black dress covered with rainproof crape.

One Paramatta mantle lined with silk and deeply trimmed with crape.

One warmer jacket of cloth lined, trimmed with crape.

One bonnet of best silk crape, with long veil.

One bonnet of rainproof crape, with crape veil.

Twelve collars and cuffs of muslin or lawn, with deep hems. Several sets must be provided, say six of each kind.

One black stuff petticoat.

Four pairs of black hose, either silk, cashmere, or spun silk.

Twelve handkerchiefs with black borders for ordinary use, cambric.

Twelve of finer cambric for better occasions.

Caps, either of lisse, tulle, or tarlatan, shape depending very much on the age. Young widows wear chiefly the Marie Stuart shape, but all widows' caps have long streamers. They vary, of course, in price. Tarlatan are the easiest made at home, but we do not fancy home-made widows' caps are an economy, they soil so much more quickly than bought caps. It is a good plan to buy extra streamers and bows for them; these can be made at home for the morning caps, very fine thread and needles being used for the work, which should be very fine, neat, and even. If in summer a parasol should be required, it should be of silk deeply trimmed with crape, almost covered with it, but no lace or fringe for the first year. Afterward mourning fringe might be put on. A muff, if required, would be made of Paramatta, and trimmed with crape.

The first mourning is worn for twelve months. Second mourning twelve months also; the cap in second mourning is left off, and the crape no longer covers the dresses, but is put on in tucks. Elderly widows frequently remain in mourning for long periods, if not for the remainder of their lives, retaining the widow's cap, collar and cuffs, but leaving off the deep crape the second year, and afterwards entirely discarding crape, but wearing mourning materials such as Victoria cords, Janus cords, cashmere, and so on.

No ornaments are worn in such deep mourning, except jet, for the first year. Jet is, of course, allowable. Rich silk is, of course, admissible in widows' mourning, especially for evening wear, but it must always be deeply trimmed with crape for the first year, and the quantity afterwards gradually lessened. A silk costume is a very expensive item in a widow's mourning; therefore we only allude to it—do not set it down as a necessity. The best silks for the purpose are rich, heavy silks, such as grosgrain, drap du nord, satin merveilleux. Furs are not admissible in widows' first mourning, though very dark sealskin and astrachan can be worn when the dress is changed. In other mournings, furs are now very generally worn—that is, after the first few months, but only dark furs.

Widows' lingerie, to be always nice, entails a considerable amount of expense. If collars, cuffs and caps are made at home, as we before said, they get soiled directly. As, however, it is not always possible to buy them when they require renewing, the following directions may prove of use: "Widow's cuffs, made in tarlatan, should be about nine inches long, according to the size of the wrist. They are not intended to overlap, but just to meet, fastened with two buttons and loops, placed near the upper and lower edges. The ordinary depth is five inches, with a wide hem at the top and bottom of an inch and a half depth. The material being merely a straight piece, they are easy to make. For the collar, the straight all-round shape, turning down over the collar of the dress, is the most usual. If any other shape is required, cut it in paper, and make it accordingly with the wide hem of one and a-half inch. If the collar is straight, it will be merely necessary to turn it down; if rounded at all, it must be cut to the shape, run to the collar at the edge, and then turned down. Fine cotton and needles and neat work are required."

If an attempt is made to make widows' caps at home, first procure a good cap for a model, and copy it as exactly as possible. It must be made on a "dolly" or wooden block of a head, or it will never sit well.

To preserve widows' caps clean, fresh-looking, and of a good color, when not in use they should be put on cap-holders on a shelf in a cupboard, the long streamers turned up over the cap, and a piece of blue paper (thin) laid over them. So treated, they will with care last a long while, that, is, if there are two or three worn in turn, and they are put away in this manner when not in actual use.

It may be as well to sum up what we have said. Duration of mourning: Widow's first mourning lasts for a year and a day. Second mourning cap left off, less crape and silk for nine months (some curtail it to six), remaining three months of second year plain black without crape, and jet ornaments. At the end of the second year the mourning can be put off entirely; but it is better taste to wear half mourning for at least six months longer; and, as we have before mentioned, many widows never wear colors any more, unless for some solitary event, such as the wedding of a child, when they would probably put it off for the day. Materials:—

Dresses and Mantles.—Paramatta, Barathea, silk trimmed with silk, Albert or rainproof crape.

Bonnets and Veils.—Crape.

Caps.—Lisse, tulle, tarlatan.

Collars and Cuffs.—Lawn and muslin.

Petticoats.—Black stuff or silk-quilted.

Pocket Handkerchiefs.—Cambric, black borders.

Hose.—Black Balbriggan, cashmere, or silk.

Gloves.—Black kid.

The mourning for parents ranks next to that of widows; for children by their parents, and for parents by their children, these being of course identical in degree. It lasts in either case twelve months—six months in crape trimmings, three in plain black, and three in half-mourning. It is, however, better taste to continue the plain black to the end of the year, and wear half-mourning for three months longer. Materials for first six months, either Paramatta, Barathea, or any of the black corded stuffs, such as Janus cord, about thirty-eight inches wide; Henrietta cord about same price and width. Such dresses would be trimmed with two deep tucks of crape, either Albert or rainproof, would be made plainly, the body trimmed with crape, and sleeves with deep crape cuffs. Collars and cuffs, to be worn during the first mourning would be made of muslin or lawn, with three or four tiny tucks in distinction to widows' with the wide, deep hem. Pocket handkerchiefs would be bordered with black. Black hose, silk or Balbriggan, would be worn, and black kid gloves. For outdoor wear either a dolman mantle would be worn or a paletôt, either of silk or Paramatta, but in either case trimmed with crape. Crape bonnets or hats; if for young children, all crape for bonnets, hats, silk and crape; feathers (black) could be worn, and a jet clasp or arrow in the bonnet, but no other kind of jewelry is admissible but jet—that is, as long as crape is worn. Black furs, such as astrachan, may be worn, or very dark sealskin, or black sealskin cloth, now so fashionable, but no light furs of any sort. Silk dresses can be worn, crape-trimmed after the first three months if preferred, and if expense be no object; the lawn-tucked collars and cuffs would be worn with them. At the end of the six months crape can be put aside, and plain black, such as cashmere, worn, trimmed with silk if liked, but not satin, for that is not a mourning material, and is therefore never worn by those who strictly attend to mourning etiquette. With plain black, black gloves and hose would of course be worn, and jet, no gold or silver jewelry for at least nine months after the commencement of mourning; then, if the time expires in the twelve months, gray gloves might be worn, and gray ribbons, lace or plain linen collar and cuffs take the place of the lawn or muslin, and gray feathers might lighten the hat or bonnet, or reversible black and gray strings.

Many persons think it is in better taste not to commence half-mourning until after the expiration of a year, except in the case of young children, who are rarely kept in mourning beyond the twelve months.

A wife would wear just the same mourning for her husband's relations as for her own; thus, if her husband's mother died, she would wear mourning as deep as if for her own mother.

For Grandparents, the first mourning (crape) is worn for three months; second mourning, black, without crape, also worn for three months; and half-mourning for three more, or nine months in all. The same materials are worn, Paramatta, Barathea, various cords with crape and cashmere, and merino when the crape is left off.

For Sisters or Brothers, six months' mourning is usually worn. Crape for three, plain black for two, and half mourning for one month; the same sort of stuffs, the crape being put on in one deep tuck and two narrow tucks; bodice, crape trimmed; mantle or dolman, crape trimmed; bonnet of crape with feathers or jet, hat of silk and crape. Veil of hat with crape tuck, hose black silk, Balbriggan or cashmere, handkerchiefs black bordered. Silks can be worn after the first month if trimmed with crape.

For Uncles, Aunts, Nephews, or Nieces, crape is not worn, but plain black, with jet for three months.

For Great Uncles or Aunts, mourning would last for two months without crape.

For Cousins (first), six weeks are considered sufficient, three of which would be in half-mourning.

For Cousins less closely related, mourning is hardly ever put on unless they have been inmates of the house.

No invitations would be accepted before the funeral of any relatives closely enough related to you to put on mourning for. In the case of brothers, sisters, parents, and grandparents, society would be given up for at least three months, if not more, and it would be very bad taste to go to a ball or large festive gathering in crape. Widows do not enter society for at least a year—that is, during the period of their deepest mourning. With regard to *complimentary* mourning—as worn by mothers for the mother or father-in-law of their married children, black would be worn for six weeks or so without crape; by second wives for the parents of the first wife, for about three weeks, and in a few other cases.

It is better taste to wear mourning in making the first call after a bereavement on friends, but this is not a decided rule, only a graceful method of implying sympathy with those who are suffering affliction. But calls are not made until the cards with "thanks for kind inquiries" have been sent in return for the cards left at the time of decease. Letters of condolence should always be written on slightly black-edged paper, and it would be kind to intimate in the letter that no answer to it will be expected. Few realize the effort it is to those left to sit down and write answers to inquiries and letters, however kind and sympathizing they may have been.

Servants' Mourning.—Servants are not usually put into mourning except for the members of the household in which they are living, not for the relatives of their masters and mistresses, and very frequently only for the heads of the house, not for the junior members.

A best dress of Victoria cord or alpaca, two cotton dresses, black for mourning wear while at work. A cloth jacket, in case of master or mistress, with a slight crape trimming, a silk and crape bonnet, pair of black kid gloves, and some yards of black cap ribbon, would be the mourning given to the servants in the house at the time of the death of one of the heads of the establishment, and their mourning would be worn for at least six months, or even a year in some cases.

The following is a list of suitable materials for mourning of those relationships we have named, all of which can be obtained at any good mourning establishment.

Silk crape, Paramatta, Albert crape, Barathea, rainproof crape, silk, Cyprus crape. Janus cord, Victoria cord, Balmoral cloth, Cashmere Français, Kashgar Cashmere; these last are wide materials from 44 to 47 inches. Crape cloth looks precisely like crape, but is much lighter and cooler.

For summer wear drap d'été, a mixture of silk and wool, is suitable; barège for dinner dresses; nun's veil cloth, etc., etc.

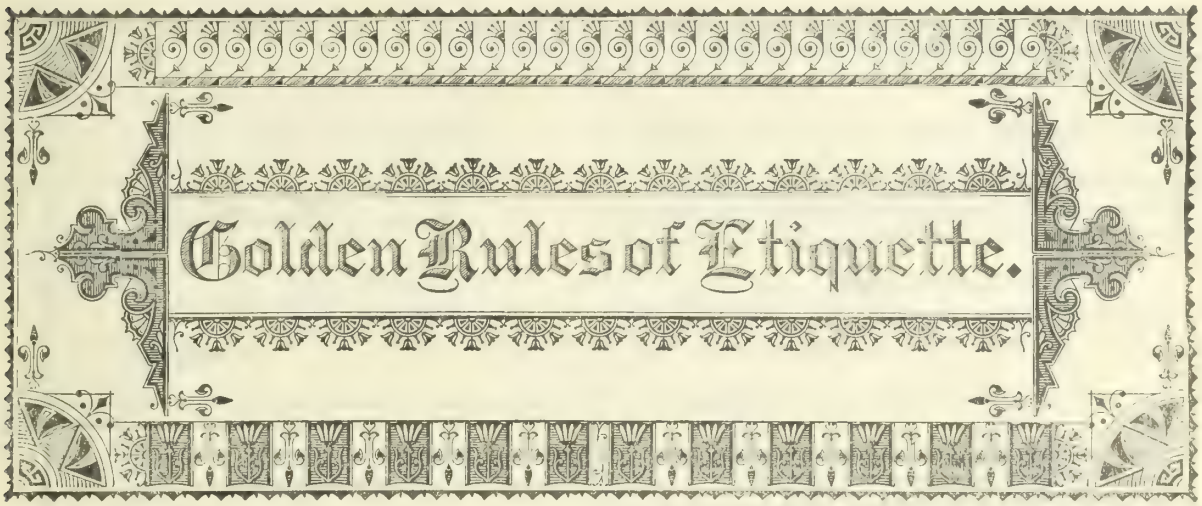
The best all-black washing materials are cotton, satine, foulardine; black and white for slighter mourning, black with tiny white spots or sprigs.

Children should be dressed in these black washing materials—that is, for summer wear, in preference to the thicker materials, as for young children, crape is soon dispensed with. Neither velvet, satin, nor plush can be worn in mourning—that is in strict mourning—for they are not mourning materials. Attempts have been made to bring in some colors, such as red or violet, and we consider them suitable to slight mourning; but the only color really admissible for half-mourning is gray, or the palest lavender, gray gloves sewn with black, gray and black reversible ribbons, gray and black feathers, gray flowers mixed with black, and so on.

In all cases of mourning it is the best plan to write to some well-known house for patterns; good mourning establishments can afford to sell better materials at cheaper rates than small, inferior houses. Large firms have always a good choice of materials for mourning on hand; and it is really far greater economy to buy good materials when going into mourning, than cheap flimsy stuffs, which give no wear at all; besides, such houses send out books of fashions and prices for making up mourning costumes, which give a good idea of the expense to be incurred, even if it is not found cheaper to purchase and have mourning made up by them.

Mourning has generally to be purchased hurriedly, and too often a dressmaker gets *carte blanche* almost to furnish the mourning. If such is the case, no wonder mourning is considered expensive; for things which are quite unnecessary, such as expensive crape in the place of rainproof kinds, more crape used than the degre of mourning requires, and many extravagancies of a like nature, naturally swell such a bill into one of large proportions, when by a little forethought the necessary black could have been purchased at a far more reasonable rate.

It is not necessary to have very expensive mourning if our means will not allow it; we should learn to suit our requirement to the state of our purses. But we sincerely trust the old custom of wearing decent mourning for those taken away from us, will never be really discontinued in America, for it is one of those proofs of our home affections which can never be done away with without a loss of national respect.



INTRODUCTIONS.

SHAKING hands after an introduction has taken place is merely optional not necessary.

It is not necessary to introduce people who meet at your house on morning calls.

It is optional after such an introduction, with the parties introduced, to continue or drop the acquaintance so formed.

A friend visiting at your house must be introduced to all callers, who are bound to continue the acquaintance as long as the friend is your guest.

A gentleman must always raise his hat, if introduced in the street, to either lady or gentleman.

Letters of introduction to and from business men, for business purposes, may be delivered by the bearers in person, and etiquette does not require the receiver to entertain the person introduced as the private friend of the writer.

BALL.

A hundred gents or over that number constitute a ball. The lady of the house must stand near the door, so as to receive her guests, to each of whom she must find something to say, no matter how trifling. The host must also be near, to welcome arrivals, and the sons to introduce people. The young ladies and their very intimate friends must see that the dances are kept up, and should not dance themselves till they have found partners for all their friends. They may with perfect propriety ask any gentleman present to be introduced to a partner, and he is bound to accept the invitation; but the lady must be careful whom she asks. Some young ladies do not dance at all, preferring to see their friends amused, and for fear of causing jealousies.

If you escort a lady to a ball, call for her at the appointed hour, in a carriage, and send a bouquet early in the day. Upon arriving at the house where the ball is held, escort your charge to the dressing-room door. She may or may not dance the first dance with you. Ask her. You must see that she gets her supper, and offer to leave the ball at any hour that she may be desirous of so doing.

No gentleman should wait for the "fiddles to strike up" to engage a partner.

At a public ball, a lady may refuse to have a gentleman presented to her.

Do not remain too late.

"May I have the pleasure of the waltz or quadrille with you," is all that a gentleman need say on introduction. If the lady says yes, he asks permission to write his name on her card.

Always give your arm to a lady in crossing a ball-room.

Do not feel offended if your fair partner fails to bow to you when you meet her after a ball. It is optional; some young ladies are very timid, and fear that gentlemen forget them.

Do not feel slighted if your fair companion does not invite you to enter her home on returning from the ball. If she does invite you, decline.

AT HOMES—RECEPTIONS—GIVING PARTIES.

Parties in cities consist of—at homes, receptions, conversaziones, private concerts, private theatricals, soirées, dramatic tea-parties, matinées, or a gathering of people.

In the country, the in-door parties comprise small dancing-parties, tea-parties, and conversaziones; but the out-door occasions are of much greater number and variety; lawn-tennis parties, croquet, sailing, and boating parties, picnics, private fêtes, berrying parties, nutting parties, May festivals, Fourth of July festivals, anything for a day spent in out-door frolic.

For "Receptions" and "At Homes," and conversaziones invitations should be sent out a week beforehand.

At a reception you have music and singing, perhaps recitations. Light refreshments are served, and the hostess makes the most of her rooms in display, etc.

Gentlemen should take elderly ladies into refreshments.

Let amateur performers learn something off by heart. Being provided with notes is not stylish.

Let no person offer to turn over the leaves of a music book for a performer, unless he or she can read music rapidly.

If you play an accompaniment show off the singer not yourself.

If you get up private theatricals, secure the best amateur talent.

Be punctual at lawn-tennis and croquet parties.

Gentlemen at picnics must turn into waiters for the *nonce*, and look to the appetites of the ladies.

SALUTATIONS.

Do not insult by offering two fingers when shaking hands.

Remove your right hand glove in the street; retain it in the house.

Do not wring off the wrist of the person with whom you shake hands.

The lady recognizes the gentleman first by bowing. The gentleman must wait till he is bowed to by the lady.

When a lady is desirous of ending a conversation in the street she should bow slightly, and the gentleman must instantly take his leave.

If the lady "proceeds upon her way" without breaking up conversation, then the gentleman is bound to join her in the promenade.

At home, the lady extends her hand to every guest.

A gentleman is at liberty to bow to a lady seated at a window, but if he is in the window he is not to bow to a lady in the street.

The gentleman never offers to shake hands with the lady. It is her prerogative to stretch forth her hand to his.

A gentleman may at all times bow to a lady he may meet on a stairway, even if not acquainted. If at the foot of the stairs, he must bow, pass her and ascend before her. If at the head of the stairs, he must bow, and wait for her to precede him in the descent.

If a gentleman is walking with a friend, and the friend bows to a lady, he is bound to bow although he may be unacquainted with the lady.

CALLS.

If a lady has a particular day set aside for receiving callers, call on that day *only*.

You can make a formal call in the morning, a friendly one in the evening.

Gentlemen may call in the morning on the following excuses:—

After a breakfast, luncheon, dinner, reception, or ball.

On the occasion of any joy or grief.

After escorting a lady on the previous evening.

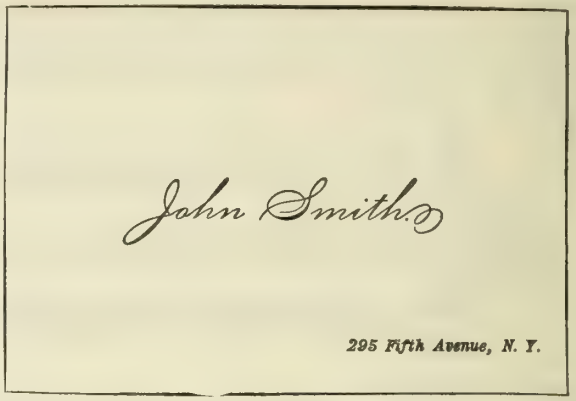
Be prompt on the first call.

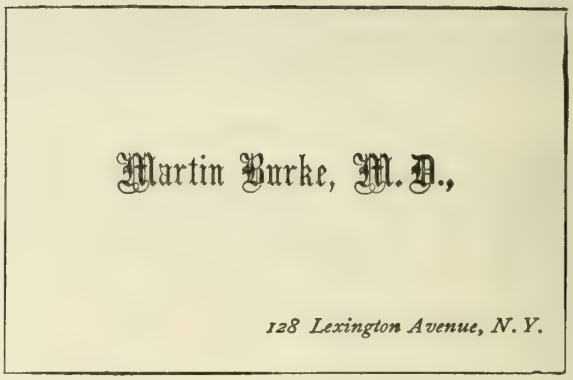
In the morning, call after ten o'clock; in the evening, not later than eight.

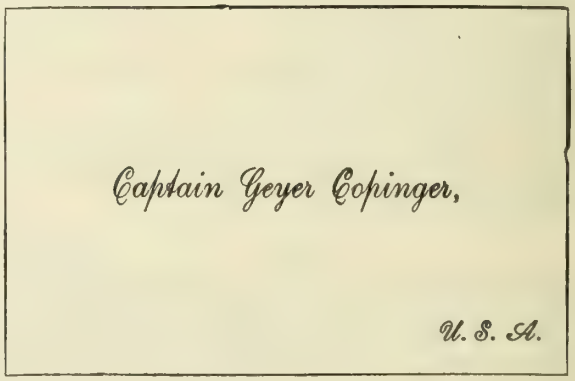
In the evening informal call leave hat, coat, umbrella, cane, and overshoes in the hall.

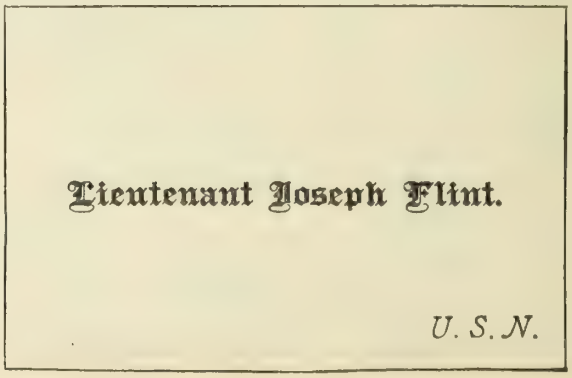
If you find your host or hostess attired for going out, beat a hasty retreat.

Never put anything but your name and address on your card when making a social call. Thus:—









Never consult your watch before taking your departure.

Leave a card before departing for the country or Europe with the words P. P. C. (*Pour Pendre Congé.* To Take Leave) on the left hand corner in pencil.

Leave a card during the illness of your friend.

Leave a card the day after a ball or big dinner party.

After a small party leave a card within a week. Wives leave the cards of their husbands.

The first callers are the residents in the place.

Call upon the gent who comes to stay with your friend.

Do not keep your callers waiting.

Do not remove your gloves when making a formal call.

No callers should fiddle with books, pictures, albums, window-blinds, etc.

When you call on a friend at a hotel or boarding-house write his or her name above your own on *your own card.*

DINNER.

Gentlemen should stand behind their respective chairs until all the ladies are seated, and then take their own seats. Care should be taken that their chairs do not stand upon the dresses of the ladies beside them.

Grace is said by a clergyman, if there is one present, if not, by the host. The clergyman should be invited to say grace by the host. People usually stand till grace is over.

If the dinner is *à la Russe,* the carving will be done behind a screen. Keep your servants from making a noise behind the screen.

Always say "thanks," or "thank you," to the servant or waiter.

Never decline wine by clapping your hand on top of your glass.

Do not eat ravenously.

Do not smack the lips.

Never take a long, deep breath after you finish eating, as if you were tired eating.

Make no noises in your mouth or throat.

Do not suck your teeth or roll your tongue around the outside of your gums.

Never, no NEVER, NEVER, put your knife into your mouth.

Do not pick your teeth, or plunge your finger into your mouth.

Do not spit out fish-bones upon your plate.

Never take the bones of fowl or birds up in your fingers to gnaw or suck them. Remove the meat with your knife, and convey it to your mouth with your fork. Do not polish or scrape the bone.

Wipe your finger-tips upon the table napkin.

Do not use the tablecloth to wipe your mouth.

Do not either praise or dispraise what is placed before you.

Do not drink or speak when you have anything in your mouth.

When you are helped begin to eat.

Never watch the dishes as they are uncovered, or cry out when you perceive something dainty.

Do not attempt to tuck your napkin, bib fashion, into your shirt collar. Unfold it partially and place it in your lap, covering your knees. A lady may slip a corner under her belt if there is danger of its falling upon her dress.

Do not talk loudly. Do not whisper. Do not laugh too loudly.

Use the table articles, such as spoon, butter-knife, etc., etc.

Never clean your plate. Leave something on it.

Never attempt to propose a toast or sentiment, at all events till the dessert is well over. We have seen men attempt this before the roasts appeared.

Take chatlis with your oysters or clams.

Take sherry with your soup.

Take champagne with the entrées.

Take Burgundy with game.

Take port with cheese.

Take claret after dessert.

Take a *pousse café,* a liqueur, after coffee.

Never spit the skins of grapes, the stones or pips of fruits. Receive them upon the prongs of your fork, laid horizontally, and place them as best you can upon the edge of your plate.

Do not play with your fingers upon the table.

Do not play with your knife and fork, fidget with your salt cellar, balance your spoon on your tumbler, or make pills of your bread.

Do not illustrate your anecdotes by plans drawn upon the table with your nail.

Do not stretch your feet out under the table, so as to touch those of your opposite neighbor.

Do not tilt your chair.

Endeavor to take an easy position at table, neither pressing too closely up to it, nor yet so far away as to risk depositing your food upon the floor.

Give your neighbor as much elbow room as possible.

If the dinner is for gentlemen guests alone, and the lady of the house presides, her duties are over when she rises after dessert. The gentlemen do not expect to see her again. Cigars may be served with the coffee, and then the servants may retire.

In case of a stag party, like this, the lady of the house is much better away. Then the *oldest* friend of the host takes her seat.

BAPTISM.

Let the godfather and godmother be of the same church as the child that is to be baptized.

Never refuse to stand sponsor without good cause.

The godmother should select the godfather.

The godparents should make the infant a present, a silver cup, or a set consisting of knife, fork and spoon.

Very young persons should not be asked to become sponsors.

The nurse carrying the child enters the church first, then come the sponsors, then the happy father, and the guests.

The sponsors stand thus: godfather on the right of the child; godmother on the left.

The sponsors bow when the clergyman asks who the sponsors are.

Do not offer to act as sponsors. The parents make the selection.

Praise the baby under all circumstances.

FUNERALS.

Do not speak loudly in the house of mourning. Do not ask to see the members of the bereaved family. Invitations are printed, and in this form:—

> You are respectfully invited to attend the funeral of Mr. John Smith on Friday, June 28, 1882, at 9 o'clock a. m., from his late residence, 148 West 68th Street. To proceed to Cyprus Grove Cemetery,

If the services are at church:—

> You are respectfully invited to attend the funeral of Mr. John Smith, from the Church of the Nativity, Madison Avenue, on Friday, June 28th, at 9 o'clock a. m. To proceed to Cyprus Grove Cemetery.

No further notice need be sent, if the invitation is given through the newspapers.

Do not go to the house of your dead friend until the hour named. The last moments are, indeed, precious to the grief-stricken relatives.

The clergyman leaves the house first, and enters the carriage that precedes the hearse; the coffin comes next; then come the relatives.

Do not salute the relatives.

The master of the ceremonies assists at the carriages, also at the church.

Hats must be removed as the coffin passes from the hearse to the church, and from the church to the hearse, and a double line formed.

Wear black clothes, or as near to that color as may be.

Send a carriage for the clergyman.

Send only white flowers, and on the morning of the funeral.

Pall-bearers must be the immediate friends of the deceased.

Gloves and crape, if given, must be presented as the gentlemen enter the house.

Leave cards for the family of the deceased during the week following the obsequies. The proper person to purchase mourning is the nearest lady friend of the family.

No member of the family of the deceased shall be seen out-of-doors till after the funeral.

HOTELS.

Ladies traveling alone will request the escort of a waiter from the dining-room door to the table.

Ladies will make up their minds quickly as to what dishes they propose to order.

Ladies will accept table civilities from gentlemen, such as passing salt, etc., etc.

The piano of the hotel is public property, but a lady should be careful about monopolizing it.

Ladies will not linger in the hall, and will avoid the public entrance.

Recognition across the dining-room is not required.

AMUSEMENTS.

Gentlemen will always invite another lady to accompany a young lady in taking her for the *first time* to a place of amusement.

Give the ladies as long a notice as possible.

A lady does not bow across a theater, a gentleman does

Do not arrive late at any entertainment.

No lady stares round a theater with an opera glass.

During the performance speak in a low tone.

The gentleman walks before the lady until he reaches the seat, then he bows her into her seat.

Never leave the lady alone.

Never stand in the way of others in picture galleries.

It is permissible for a gentleman to join ladies for a moment or two between the acts.

Be careful to enter a place of amusement as quietly and unostentatiously as possible.

Never laugh loudly, and if you applaud, do so earnestly, but not too energetically.

BY BOAT AND RAIL.

Ladies will not permit their escorts to enter any apartment reserved for ladies only.

Ladies traveling alone should consult conductors or captains. Ladies will thank gentlemen who raise or lower windows, coldly but politely.

If a person crushes or crowds you, and apologizes, accept the apology by a cold bow.

Gentlemen escorts must pay the most delicate and earnest care to the lady or ladies under their care. The attention must be unremitting.

At a hotel, the escort must see to everything, rooms, etc., etc.

Courtesies in traveling are always *en règle*, but there must be no attempt at familiarity.

Gentlemen will commence conversations.

Gentlemen will assist ladies to alight from the cars.

A gentleman may offer to escort a lady to the refreshment saloon.

A gentleman may offer his newspaper.

THE STREET.

Ladies bow first to gentlemen. The gentleman so saluted lifts his hat and bows.

Gentlemen will offer to carry parcels for ladies.

Gentlemen will not smoke when walking with ladies.

Candy or bananas, or anything else, should not be eaten in the street.

Ladies and old gentlemen are given the portion of the sidewalk next to the houses.

Ladies should not walk too rapidly.

Ladies may accept umbrella assistance from male friends and acquaintances, but from strangers never.

In crossing through a narrow place, or across a plank, or in-doors, or up-stairs, the lady goes first.

A gentleman may assist a lady to cross a puddle or across a crowded street.

A gentleman should never let a lady stand in a railway car, a street car, a stage, or a ferry-boat, if he has a seat to offer her. A man remaining seated while a woman stands, is absolutely boggish.

A gentleman will pass a lady's fare in a street car or stage.

No lady will salute across a street.

A very stiff bow gives the "cut."

Young people must wait for recognition from their elders.

Gentlemen will open store, and all other doors for ladies to pass, lifting hat at same time.

Do not bow from a store to a person in the street.

VISITS.

"You'll come and see me some time," is no invitation. Recollect this!

If you are asked by letter to make a visit, reply instanter.

If you are asked to visit friends for any period, write at once and name the time most convenient to yourself.

Hosts should always have a guest room, and special care should be given to it. It should be warmed in winter and cooled in summer. Its comforts should be made a study.

Hosts should either meet or send to the depot for their guests. The baggage should be looked after, and any trouble spared the person invited.

If the guest arrives in the morning, special breakfast should be prepared; if at night, special supper. If the guest is delicate or a late riser, special meals should be prepared.

Guests will conform as much as possible to the habits of their hosts.

Hosts will amuse their guests as much as possible, by entertainments, by taking them to places of interest, and by introductions to entertaining people.

The hostess need not appear between breakfast and luncheon. She has her household duties to attend to.

No guest will make an outside engagement without consulting the host.

Hosts will accept no invitations that do not include their guests.

Guests should bring their own writing materials, sewing materials, wools, etc., etc. Ladies should volunteer to assist the hostess in sewing, etc.

Guests may use the servants as if they were their own, but always in reason.

If a guest injures anything in the house at which he or she may be stopping, such as a glass bowl, a painting, etc., etc., he or she will repair the loss by sending an article similar to that which has been injured.

Gentlemen may send gifts of flowers, candies, bonbons, etc.; and guests may always present the baby with a gift.

Do not open any letters delivered to you in the presence of your host and hostess without saying, "Have I your permission?" Hosts will do the same toward their guests.

No lady guest pays for anything, carriage, boat, car, etc.

Hosts, when their guests are about to leave, will see that the baggage is cared for, and will leave the guest at the depot or boat.



NOW the universal heart of man blesses flowers! They are wreathed round the cradle, the marriage-altar, and the tomb. The Persian in the far East delights in their perfume, and writes his love in nosegays, while the Indian child of the far West claps his hands with glee as he gathers the abundant blossoms, — the illuminated scriptures of the prairies. The Cupid of the ancient Hindoos tipped his arrows with flowers, and orange-flowers are a bridal crown with us, a nation of yesterday. Flowers garlanded the Grecian altar, and hung in votive wreath before the Christian shrine. All these are appropriate uses. Flowers should deck the brow of the youthful bride, for they are in themselves a lovely type of marriage. They should twine round the tomb, for their perpetually renewed beauty is a symbol of the resurrection. They should festoon the altar, for their fragrance and their beauty ascend in perpetual worship before the Most High.

Flowers have a language of their own, and it is this bright particular language that we would teach our readers. How charmingly a young gentleman can speak to a young lady, and with what eloquent silence in this delightful language. How delicately she can respond, the beautiful little flowers telling her tale in perfumed words; what a delicate story the myrtle or the rose tells! How unhappy that which basil, or the yellow rose reveals, while ivy is the most faithful of all.

ALMOND—HOPE.

The hope, in dreams of a happier hour,
That alights upon misery's brow,
Springs out of the silvery almond flower,
That blooms on a leafless bough.

Abecedary.....Volubility
Abatina.....Fickleness.
Acacia.....Friendship.
Acacia, Rose or White...Elegance.
Acacia, Yellow.....Secret love.
Acanthus.....The fine arts. Art'
ifice
Acalia.....Temperance.
Achillea Millefolia.....War
Aconite (Wolfsbane).....Misanthropy.
Aconite, Crowfoot.....Luster.
Adonis, Flos.....Painful recollections
African Marigold.....Vulgar minds.
Agnus Castus.....Coldness. Indifference.
Agrimony.....Thankfulness. Gratitude.
Almond (Common).....Stupidity. Indiscretion.
Almond (Flowering).....Hope.
Almond, Laurel.....Perfidy.
Allspice.....Compassion.
Aloe.....Grief. Religious superstition.
Althæa Frutex (Syrian Mallow).....Persuasion.
Alyssum (Sweet).....Worth beyond beauty.
Amaranth (Globe).....Immortality. Unfading love.
Amaranth (Cockscomb)..Foppery. Affectation.
Amaryllis.....Pride. Timidity. Splendid beauty.
Ambrosia.....Love returned.
American Cowslip.....Divine beauty.
American Elm.....Patriotism.
American Linden.....Matrimony.
American Starwort.....Welcome to a stranger. Cheerfulness in old age.
Amethyst.....Admiration.

Anemone (Zephyr Flower)—Sickness. Expectation.
Anemone (Garden)—Forsaken.
Angelica—Inspiration.
Angrec—Royalty.
Apple—Temptation.
Apple (Blossom)—Preference. Fame speaks him great and good.
Apple, Thorn—Deceitful charms.
Apocynum (Dog's Vane)—Deceit.
Arbor Vitæ—Unchanging friendship. Live for me.
Arum (Wake Robin)—Ardor.
Ash-leaved Trumpet Flower—Separation.
Ash Tree—Grandeur.
Aspen Tree—Lamentation.
Aster (China)—Variety. Afterthought.
Asphodel—My regrets follow you to the grave.
Auricula—Painting.
Auricula, Scarlet—Avarice.
Austurtium—Splendor.
Azalea—Temperance.

Bachelor's Buttons—Celibacy.
Balm—Sympathy.
Balm, Gentle—Pleasantry.
Balm of Gilead—Cure. Relief.
Balsam, Red—Touch me not. Impatient resolves.
Balsam, Yellow—Impatience.
Barberry—Sourness of temper.
Barberry Tree—Sharpness.
Basil—Hatred.
Bay Leaf—I change but in death.
Bay (Rose) Rhododendron—Danger. Beware.
Bay Tree—Glory.
Bay Wreath—Reward of merit.
Bearded Crepis—Protection.
Beech Tree—Prosperity.
Bee Orchis—Industry.
Bee Ophrys—Error.
Belladonna—Silence.
Bell Flower, Pyramidal—Constancy.
Bell Flower (small white)—Gratitude.
Belvedere—I declare against you
Betony—Surprise.
Bilberry—Treachery.
Bindweed, Great—Insinuation.
Bindweed, Small—Humility.
Birch—Meekness.
Birdsfoot, Trefoil—Revenge.
Bittersweet; Nightshade—Truth.
Black Poplar—Courage.
Blackthorn—Difficulty.
Bladder Nut Tree—Frivolity. Amusement.
Bluebottle (Century)—Delicacy.
Bluebell—Constancy.
Blue-flowered Greek Valerian—Rupture.
Bonus Henricus—Goodness.
Borage—Bluntness.
Box Tree—Stoicism.
Bramble—Lowliness. Envy. Remorse.
Branch of Currants—You please all.
Branch of Thorns—Severity. Rigor.
Bridal Rose—Happy love.
Broom—Humility. Neatness
Buckbean—Calm repose.
Bud of White Rose—Heart ignorant of love.
Bugloss—Falsehood.
Bulrush—Indiscretion. Docility.
Bundle of Reeds, with their Panicles—Music.
Burdock—Importunity. Touch me not.
Buttercup (Kingcup)—Ingratitude. Childishness.
Butterfly Orchis—Gaiety.
Butterfly Weed—Let me go.

Cabbage—Profit.
Cacalia—Adulation.
Cactus—Warmth.
Calla Æthiopica—Magnificent Beauty.
Calycanthus—Benevolence.
Camellia Japonica, Red—Unpretending excellence.
Camellia Japonica, White—Perfected loveliness.
Camomile—Energy in adversity.
Canary Grass—Perseverance.
Candytuft—Indifference.
Canterbury Bell—Acknowledgment.
Cape Jasmine—I'm too happy.
Cardamine—Paternal error.
Carnation, Deep Red—Alas! for my poor heart.
Carnation, Striped—Refusal.
Carnation, Yellow—Disdain.
Cardinal Flower—Distinction.
Catchfly—Snare.
Catchfly, Red—Youthful love.
Catchfly, White—Betrayed.
Cedar—Strength.
Cedar of Lebanon—Incorruptible.
Cedar Leaf—I live for thee.
Celandine (Lesser)—Joys to come.
Century—Delicacy.
Cereus (Creeping)—Modest genius.
Champignon—Suspicion.
Chequered Fritillary—Persecution.
Cherry Tree—Good education.
Cherry Tree, White—Deception.
Chestnut Tree—Do me justice. Luxury.
Chickweed—Rendezvous.
Chicory—Frugality.
China Aster—Variety.
China Aster, Double—I partake your sentiments.
China Aster, Single—I will think of it.
China or Indian Pink—Aversion.
China Rose—Beauty always new.
Chinese Chrysanthemum—Cheerfulness under adversity.
Christmas Rose—Relieve my anxiety.
Chrysanthemum, Red—I love.
Chrysanthemum, White—Truth.
Chrysanthemum, Yellow—Slighted love.
Cinquefoil—Maternal affection.
Circæa—Spell.
Cistus, or Rock Rose—Popular favor.
Cistus, Gum—I shall die tomorrow.
Citron—Ill-natured beauty.
Clematis—Mental beauty.
Clematis, Evergreen—Poverty. [acity.
Clotbur—Rudeness. Pertin-
Cloves—Dignity.
Clover, Four-leaved—Be mine.
Clover, Red—Industry.
Clover, White—Think of me.
Cobæa—Gossip.
Cockscomb Amaranth—Foppery. Affectation. Singularity.
Colchicum, or Meadow Saffron—My best days are past.
Coltsfoot—Justice shall be done
Columbine—Folly.
Columbine, Purple—Resolved to win.
Columbine, Red—Anxious and trembling.
Convolvulus—Bonds.
Convolvulus, Blue(Minor)—Repose. Night.
Convolvulus, Major—Extinguished hopes.
Convolvulus, Pink—Worth sustained by judicious and tender affection.
Corchorus—Impatient of absence.
Coreopsis—Always cheerful.
Coreopsis Arkansa—Love at first sight.
Coriander—Hidden worth.
Corn—Riches.
Corn, Broken—Quarrel.
Corn Straw—Agreement.
Corn Bottle—Delicacy.
Corn Cockle—Gentility.
Cornel Tree—Duration.
Coronella—Success crown your wishes.
Cowslip—Pensiveness. Winning grace.
Cowslip, American—Divine beauty. You are my divinity.
Cranberry—Cure for heartache.
Creeping Cereus—Horror.
Cress—Stability. Power.
Crocus—Abuse not.
Crocus, Spring—Youthful gladness.
Crocus, Saffron—Mirth.
Crown Imperial—Majesty. Power.
Crowsbill—Envy.
Crowfoot—Ingratitude.
Crowfoot (Aconiteleaved)—Luster.
Cocoa Plant—Ardor.
Cudweed, American—Unceasing remembrance.
Currant—Thy frown will kill me.
Cuscuta—Meanness.
Cyclamen—Diffidence
Cypress—Death. Mournin

DAFFODIL—REGARD.

I.

Fair Daffodils, we weep to see
You haste away so soon;
As yet the early-rising sun
Has not attained his noon;
Stay, stay,
Until the hastening day
Has run
But to the even song,
And, having prayed together, we
Will go with you along.

II.

We have short time to stay as ye,
We have as fleet a spring,
As quick a growth to meet decay
As you or anything;
We die
As your hours do, and dry
Away,
Like to the summer's rain,
Or as the pearls of morning's dew,
Ne'er to be found again.

Daffodil.....Regard.
Dahlia.....Instability.
Daisy.....Innocence.
Daisy, Garden.....I share your sentiments.
Daisy, Michaelmas.....Farewell.
Daisy, Party-colored.....Beauty.
Daisy, Wild.....I will think of it.
Damask Rose.....Brilliant complexion
Dandelion.....Rustic oracle.
Daphne, Odora.....Painting the lily.
Darnel (Ray grass).....Vice.
Dead Leaves.....Sadness.
Dew Plant.....A serenade.
Dittany of Crete.....Birth.
Dittany of Crete, White..Passion.
Dock.....Patience.
Dodder of Thyme.....Baseness.
Dogsbane.....Deceit. Falsehood.
Dogwood.....Durability.
Dragon Plant.....Snare.
Dragonwort.....Horror.
Dried Flax.....Utility.

Ebony Tree.....Blackness.
Eglantine (Sweetbrier)....Poetry. I wound to heal.
Elder.....Zealousness.
Elm.....Dignity.
Enchanter's Nightshade..Witchcraft. Sorcery.
Endive.....Frugality.
Eupatorium.....Delay.
Everflowering Candytuft.Indifference.
Evergreen Clematis.....Poverty.
Evergreen Thorn.....Solace in adversity.
Everlasting.....Never-ceasing remembrance.
Everlasting Pea.....Lasting pleasure.

Fennel.....Worthy of all praise. Strength.
Fern.....Fascination.
Ficoides, Ice Plant.....Your looks freeze me.
Fig.....Argument.
Fig Marigold.....Idleness.
Fig Tree.....Prolific.
Filbert.....Reconciliation.
Fir.....Time.
Fir Tree.....Elevation.
Flax.....Domestic industry. Fate. I feel your kindness.
Flax-leaved Goldy-locks.Tardiness.
Fleur-de-Lis.....Flame. I burn.
Fleur-de-Luce.....Fire.
Flowering Fern.....Reverie.
Flowering Reed.....Confidence in Heaven
Flower-of-an-Hour.....Delicate beauty.
Fly Orchis.....Error.
Flytrap.....Deceit.
Fool's Parsley.....Silliness.
Forget Me Not.....True love. Forget me not.
Foxglove.....Insincerity.
Foxtail Grass.....Sporting.
French Honeysuckle.....Rustic beauty.
French Marigold.....Jealousy.
French Willow.....Bravery and humanity.
Frog Ophrys.....Disgust.
Fuller's Teasel.....Misanthropy.
Fumitory.....Spleen.
Fuschia, Scarlet.....Taste.

Garden Anemone.....Forsaken.
Garden Chervil.....Sincerity.
Garden Daisy.....I partake your sentiments.
Garden Marigold.....Uneasiness.
Garden Ranunculus.....You are rich in attractions.
Garden Sage.....Esteem.
Garland of Roses.....Reward of virtue.
Germander Speedwell....Facility.
Geranium, Dark.....Melancholy.
Geranium, Ivy.....Bridal favor.
Geranium, Lemon.....Unexpected meeting.
Geranium, Nutmeg.....Expected meeting.
Geranium, Oak-leaved...True friendship
Geranium, Penciled.....Ingenuity.
Geranium, Rose-scented..Preference.
Geranium, Scarlet.....Comforting. Stupidity.
Geranium, Silver-leaved..Recall.
Geranium, Wild.....Steadfast piety.
Gilliflower.....Bonds of affection.
Glory Flower.....Glorious beauty.
Goat's Rue.....Reason.
Golden Rod.....Precaution.
Gooseberry.....Anticipation.
Gourd.....Extent. Bulk.
Grape, Wild.....Charity.
Grass.....Submission. Utility.
Guelder Rose.....Winter. Age.

Hand Flower Tree.....Warning.
Harebell.....Submission. Grief.
Hawkweed.....Quicksightedness.
Hawthorn.....Hope.
Hazel.....Reconciliation.
Heath.....Solitude.
Helenium.....Tears.
Heliotrope.....Devotion. Faithfulness.
Hellebore.....Scandal. Calumny.
Helmet Flower (Monkshood).....Knight-errantry.
Hemlock.....You will be my death.
Hemp.....Fate.
Henbane.....Imperfection.
Hepatica.....Confidence.
Hibiscus.....Delicate beauty.
Holly.....Foresight.
Holly Herb.....Enchantment.
Hollyhock.....Ambition. Fecundity.
Honesty.....Honesty. Fascination.
Honey Flower.....Love, sweet and secret.
Honeysuckle.....Generous and devoted affection.
Honeysuckle (Coral).....The color of my fate
Honeysuckle (French)....Rustic beauty.
Hop.....Injustice.
Hornbean.....Ornament.
Horse Chestnut.....Luxury.
Hortensia.....You are cold.
Houseleek.....Vivacity. Domestic industry.
Houstonia.....Content.
Hoya.....Sculpture.
Humble Plant.....Despondency.
Hundred-leaved Rose....Dignity of mind.
Hyacinth.....Sport. Game. Play
Hyacinth, White.....Unobtrusive loveliness.
Hydrangea.....A boaster. Heartlessness.
Hyssop.....Cleanliness.

Iceland Moss.....Health.
Ice Plant.....Your looks freeze me.
Imperial Montague.....Power.
Indian Cress.....Warlike trophy.
Indian Jasmine (Ipomœa).Attachment.
Indian Fink (Double).....Always lovely.
Indian Plum.....Privation.
Iris.....Message.
Iris German.....Flame.
Ivy.....Fidelity. Marriage.
Ivy, Sprig of, with tendrils.....Assiduous to please.

Jacob's Ladder.....Come down.
Japan Rose.....Beauty is your only attraction.
Jasmine.....Amiability.
Jasmine, Cape.....Transport of joy.
Jasmine, Carolina.....Separation.
Jasmine, Indian.....I attach myself to you.
Jasmine, Spanish.....Sensuality.
Jasmine, Yellow.....Grace and elegance.
Jonquil.....I desire a return of affection.
Judas Tree.....Unbelief. Betrayal
Juniper.....Succor. Protection.
Justicia.....The perfection of female loveliness.

Kennedia.....Mental beauty.
King-cups.....Desire of riches.

Laburnum.....Forsaken. Pensive beauty.
Lady's Slipper.....Capricious beauty. Win me and wear me.
Lagerstræmia, Indiar....Eloquence.
Lantana.....Rigor.
Larch.....Audacity. Boldness
Larkspur.....Lightness. Levity.
Larkspur, Pink.....Fickleness.
Larkspur, Purple.....Haughtiness.
Laurel.....Glory.
Laurel, Common, in flower.....Perfidy.
Laurel, Ground.....Perseverance.

Laurel, Mountain.....Ambition.
Laurel-leaved Magnolia..Dignity.
Laurestina.....A token. I die if neglected.
Lavender.....Distrust.
Leaves (dead].....Melancholy.
Lemon.....Zest.
Lemon Blossoms.....Fidelity in love.
Lettuce.....Cold-heartedness.
Lichen.....Dejection. Solitude.
Lilac, Field.....Humility.
Lilac, Purple.....First emotions of love.
Lilac, White.....Youthful innocence.
Lily, Day.....Coquetry.
Lily, Imperial.....Majesty.
Lily, White.....Purity. Sweetness.
Lily, Yellow.....Falsehood. Gaiety.
Lily of the Valley.....Return of happiness
Linden or Lime Trees....Conjugal love.
Lint.....I feel my obligation.
Live Oak.....Liberty.
Liverwort.....Confidence.
Licorice, Wild.....I declare against you.
Lobelia.....Malevolence.
Locust Tree.....Elegance.
Locust Tree (green).....Affection beyond the grave.
London Pride.....Frivolity.
Lote Tree.....Concord.
Lotus.....Eloquence.
Lotus Flower.....Estranged love.
Lotus Leaf.....Recantation.
Love in a Mist.....Perplexity.
Love lies Bleeding.....Hopeless, not heartless.
Lucern.....Life.
Lupine.....Voraciousness. Imagination.

Madder.....Calumny.
Magnolia.....Love of nature.
Magnolia, Swamp.....Perseverance.
Mallow.....Mildness.
Mallow, Marsh.....Beneficence.
Mallow, Syrian.....Consumed by love.
Mallow, Venetian.....Delicate beauty.
Manchineal Tree.....Falsehood.
Mandrake.....Horror.
Maple.....Reserve.
Marigold.....Grief.
Marigold, African.....Vulgar minds.
Marigold, French.....Jealousy.
Marigold, Prophetic.....Prediction.
Marigold and Cypress....Despair.
Marjoram.....Blushes.
Marvel of Peru.....Timidity.
Meadow Lychnis.....Wit.
Meadow Saffron.....My best days are past.
Meadowsweet.....Uselessness.
Mercury.....Goodness.
Mesembryanthemum.....Idleness.
Mezereon.....Desire to please.
Michaelmas Daisy.....Afterthought.
Mignionette.....Your qualities surpass your charms.
Milfoil.....War.
Milkvetch.....Your presence softens my pains.
Milkwort.....Hermitage.

Mimosa (Sensitive Plant).Sensitiveness.
Mint.....Virtue.
Mistletoe.....I surmount difficulties.
Mock Orange.....Counterfeit.
Monkshood (Helmet Flower).....Chivalry. Knight-errantry.
Moonwort.....Forgetfulness.
Morning Glory.....Affectation.
Moschatel.....Weakness.
Moss.....Maternal love.
Mosses.....Ennui.
Mossy Saxifrage.....Affection.
Motherwort.....Concealed love.
Mountain Ash.....Prudence.
Mourning Bride.....Unfortunate attachment. I have lost all.
Mouse-eared Chickweed..Ingenuous simplicity.
Mouse-eared Scorpion Grass.....Forget me not.
Moving Plant.....Agitation.
Mudwort.....Tranquillity.
Mugwort.....Happiness.
Mulberry Tree (Black)....I shall not survive you.
Mulberry Tree (White)...Wisdom.
Mushroom.....Suspicion.
Musk Plant.....Weakness.
Mustard Seed.....Indifference.
Myrobalan.....Privation.
Myrrh.....Gladness.
Myrtle.....Love.

Narcissus.....Egotism.
Nasturtium.....Patriotism.
Nettle Burning.....Slander.
Nettle Tree.....Concert.
Night-blooming Cereus...Transient beauty.
Night Convolvulus.....Night.
Nightshade.....Truth.

Oak Leaves.....Bravery.
Oak Tree.....Hospitality.
Oak (White).....Independence.
Oats.....The witching soul of music.
Oleander.....Beware.
Olive.....Peace.
Orange Blossoms.....Your purity equals your loveliness.
Orange Flowers.....Chastity. Bridal festivities.
Orange Tree.....Generosity.
Orchis.....A Belle.
Osier.....Frankness.
Osmunda.....Dreams.
Ox Eye.....Patience.

Palm.....Victory.
Pansy.....Thoughts.
Parsley.....Festivity.
Pasque Flower.....You have no claims.
Passion Flower.....Religious superstition.
Patience Dock.....Patience.
Pea, Everlasting.....An appointed meeting. Lasting pleasure.
Pea, Sweet.....Departure.

Peach.....Your qualities, like your charms, are unequaled.
Peach Blossom.....I am your captive.
Pear.....Affection.
Pear Tree.....Comfort.
Pennyroyal.....Flee away.
Peony.....Shame. Bashfulness.
Peppermint.....Warmth of feeling.
Periwinkle, Blue.....Early friendship.
Periwinkle, White.....Pleasures of memory.
Persicaria.....Restoration.
Persimon.....Bury me amid Nature's beauties.
Peruvian Heliotrope.....Devotion.
Pheasant's Eye.....Remembrance.
Phlox.....Unanimity.
Pigeon Berry.....Indifference.
Pimpernel.....Change. Assignation.
Pine.....Pity.
Pine-apple.....You are perfect.
Pine, Pitch.....Philosophy.
Pine, Spruce.....Hope in adversity.
Pink.....Boldness.
Pink, Carnation.....Woman's love.
Pink, Indian, Double.....Always lovely.
Pink, Indian, Single.....Aversion.
Pink, Mountain.....Aspiring.
Pink, Red, Double.....Pure and ardent love
Pink, Single.....Pure love.
Pink, Variegated.....Refusal.
Pink, White.....Ingeniousness. Talent.
Plane Tree.....Genius.
Plum, Indian.....Privation.
Plum Tree.....Fidelity.
Plum, Wild.....Independence.
Polyanthus.....Pride of riches.
Polyanthus, Crimson.....The heart's mystery
Polyanthus, Lilac.....Confidence.
Pomegranate.....Foolishness.
Pomegranate Flower.....Mature elegance.
Poplar, Black.....Courage.
Poplar, White.....Time.
Poppy, Red.....Consolation.
Poppy, Scarlet.....Fantastic extravagance.
Poppy, White.....Sleep. My bane My antidote.
Potato.....Benevolence.
Prickly Pear.....Satire.
Pride of China.....Dissension.
Primrose.....Early youth.
Primrose, Evening.....Inconstancy.
Primrose, Red.....Unpatronized merit
Privet.....Prohibition.
Purple, Clover.....Provident
Pyrus Japonica.....Fairies' fire.

Quaking-Grass.....Agitation.
Quamoclit.....Busybody.
Queen's Rocket.....You are the queen of coquettes. Fashion.
Quince.....Temptation.

Ragged Robin.....Wit.
Ranunculus.....You are radiant with charms.

Ranunculus, Garden.....You are rich in attractions.
Ranunculus, Wild.....Ingratitude.
Raspberry.....Remorse.
Ray Grass.....Vice.
Red Catchfly.....Youthful love.
Reed.....Complaisance. Music.
Reed, Split.....Indiscretion.
Rhododendron (Rosebay) Danger. Beware.
Rhubarb.....Advice.
Rocket.....Rivalry.
Rose.....Love.
Rose, Austrian.....Thou art all that is lovely.
Rose, Bridal.....Happy love.
Rose, Burgundy.....Unconscious beauty
Rose, Cabbage.....Ambassador of love.
Rose, Campion.....Only deserve my love.
Rose, Carolina.....Love is dangerous.
Rose, China.....Beauty always new.
Rose, Christmas.....Tranquilize my anxiety.
Rose, Daily.....Thy smile I aspire to
Rose, Damask.....Brilliant complexion
Rose, Deep Red.....Bashful shame.
Rose, Dog.....Pleasure and pain.
Rose, Guelder.....Winter. Age.
Rose, Hundred-leaved....Pride.
Rose, Japan.....Beauty is your only attraction.
Rose, Maiden Blush.....If you love me, you will find it out.
Rose, Multiflora.....Grace.
Rose, Mundi.....Variety.
Rose, Musk.....Capricious beauty.
Rose, Musk, Cluster.....Charming.
Rose, Single.....Simplicity.
Rose, Thornless.....Early attachment.
Rose, Unique.....Call me not beautiful
Rose, White.....I am worthy of you.
Rose, White (withered)...Transient impressions.
Rose, Yellow.....Decrease of love. Jealousy.
Rose, York and Lancaster War.
Rose, Full-blown, placed over two Buds.....Secrecy.
Rose, White and Red together.....Unity.
Roses, Crown of.....Reward of virtue.
Rosebud, Red.....Pure and lovely.
Rosebud, White.....Girlhood.
Rosebud, Moss.....Confession of love.
Rosebay (Rhododendron) Beware. Danger.
Rosemary.....Remembrance.
Rudbeckia.....Justice.
Rue.....Disdain.
Rush.....Docility.
Rye Grass.....Changeable disposition.

Saffron.....Beware of excess.
Saffron Crocus.....Mirth.
Saffron, Meadow.....My happiest days are past.
Sage.....Domestic virtue.
Sage, Garden.....Esteem.
Sainfoin.....Agitation.
St. John's Wort.....Animosity. Superstition.
Sardony.....Irony.
Saxifrage, Mossy.....Affection.
Scabious.....Unfortunate love.
Scabious, Sweet.....Widowhood.
Scarlet Lychnis.....Sunbeaming eyes.
Schinus.....Religious enthusiasm.
Scotch Fir.....Elevation.
Sensitive Plant.....Sensibility. Delicate feelings.
Senvy.....Indifference.
Shamrock.....Light-heartedness.
Snakesfoot.....Horror.
Snapdragon.....Presumption.
Snowball.....Bound.
Snowdrop.....Hope.
Sorrel.....Affection.
Sorrel, Wild.....Wit ill-timed.
Sorrel, Wood.....Joy.
Southernwood.....Jest. Bantering.
Spanish Jasmine.....Sensuality. [ment.
Spearmint.....Warmth of sentiSpeedwell.....Female fidelity.
Speedwell, Germander....Facility.
Speedwell, Spiked.....Semblance.
Spider Ophrys.....Adroitness.
Spiderwort.....Esteem, not love.
Spiked Willow Herb.....Pretension.
Spindle Tree.....Your charms are engraven on my heart.
Star of Bethlehem.....Purity.
Starwort.....Afterthought. [age.
Starwort, American.....Cheerfulness in old
Stock.....Lasting beauty.
Stock, Ten Week.....Promptness.
Stonecrop.....Tranquillity.
Straw, Broken.....Rupture of a contract.
Straw, Whole.....Union.
Strawberry Tree.....Esteem and love.
Sumach, Venice.....Splendor. Intellectual excellence.
Sunflower, Dwarf.....Adoration.
Sunflower, Tall.....Haughtiness.
Swallow-wort.....Cure for heartache.
Sweet Basil.....Good wishes.
Sweetbrier, American....Simplicity.
Sweetbrier, European....I wound to heal.
Sweetbrier, Yellow.....Decrease of love.
Sweet Pea.....Delicate pleasures.
Sweet Sultan.....Felicity.
Sweet William.....Gallantry.
Sycamore.....Curiosity.
Syringa.....Memory.
Syringa, Carolina.....Disappointment.

Tamarisk.....Crime.
Tansy (Wild).....I declare war against you.
Teasel.....Misanthropy.
Tendrils of Climbing Plants.....Ties.
Thistle, Common.....Austerity.
Thistle, Fuller's.....Misanthropy.
Thistle, Scotch.....Retaliation.
Thorn, Apple.....Deceitful charms.
Thorn, Branch of.....Severity.
Thrift.....Sympathy.
Throatwort.....Neglected beauty.
Thyme.....Activity.
Tiger Flower.....For once may pride befriend me.
Traveler's Joy.....Safety.
Tree of Life.....Old age.
Trefoil.....Revenge.
Tremella Nestoc.....Resistance.
Trillium Pictum.....Modest beauty.
Truffle.....Surprise.
Trumpet Flower.....Fame.
Tuberose.....Dangerous pleasures.
Tulip.....Fame.
Tulip, Red.....Declaration of love.
Tulip, Variegated.....Beautiful eyes.
Tulip, Yellow.....Hopeless love.
Turnip.....Charity.
Tussilage (Sweet-scented)Justice shall be done you.

Valerian.....An accommodating disposition.
Valerian, Greek.....Rupture.
Venice Sumach.....Intellectual excellence. Splendor.
Venus's Car.....Fly with me.
Venus's Looking-glass.....Flattery.
Venus's Trap.....Deceit.
Vernal Grass.....Poor, but happy.
Veronica.....Fidelity.
Vervain.....Enchantment.
Vine.....Intoxication.
Violet, Blue.....Faithfulness.
Violet, Dane.....Watchfulness.
Violet, Sweet.....Modesty.
Violet, Yellow.....Rural happiness.
Virginian Spiderwort.....Momentary happiness.
Virgin's Bower.....Filial love.
Volkamenia.....May you be happy.

Walnut.....Intellect. Stratagem
Wall-flower.....Fidelity in adversity
Water Lily.....Purity of heart.
Water Melon.....Bulkiness.
Wax Plant.....Susceptibility.
Wheat Stalk.....Riches.
Whin.....Anger.
White Jasmine.....Amiableness.
White Lily.....Purity and modesty.
White Mullein.....Good nature.
White Oak.....Independence.
White Pink.....Talent.
White Poplar.....Time.
White Rose (dried).....Death preferable to loss of innocence.
Wortleberry.....Treason.
Willow, Creeping.....Love forsaken.
Willow, Water.....Freedom.
Willow, Weeping.....Mourning.
Willow-Herb.....Pretension.
Willow, French.....Bravery and human ity.
Winter Cherry.....Deception.
Witch Hazel.....A spell.
Woodbine.....Fraternal love.
Wood Sorrel.....Joy. Maternal tenderness.
Wormwood.....Absence.

Xanthium.....Rudeness. Pertinacity.
Xeranthemum.....Cheerfulness under adversity.

Yew.....Sorrow.

Zephyr Flower.....Expectation.
Zinnia.....Thoughts of absent friends.

The Royal Road to the Language of Flowers.

A.

Absence.....Wormwood.
Abuse not.....Crocus.
Acknowledgment.....Canterbury Bell.
Activity.....Thyme.
Admiration.....Amethyst.
Adoration.....Dwarf Sunflower.
Adroitness.....Spider Ophrys.
Adulation.....Cacalia.
Advice.....Rhubarb.
Affection.....Mossy Saxifrage.
Affection.....Pear.
Affection.....Sorrel.
Affection beyond the grave.....Green Locust.
Affection, maternal.....Cinquefoil.
Affectation.....Cockscomb Amaranth.
Affectation.....Morning Glory.
Afterthought.....Michaelmas Daisy.
Afterthought.....Starwort.
Afterthought.....China Aster.
Agreement.....Straw.
Age.....Guelder Rose.
Agitation.....Moving Plant.
Agitation.....Sainfoin.
Alas! for my poor heart.....Deep Red Carnation
Always cheerful.....Coreopsis.
Always lovely.....Indian Pink (double)
Ambassador of love.....Cabbage Rose.
Amiability.....Jasmine.
Anger.....Whin.
Animosity.....St. John's Wort.
Anticipation.....Gooseberry.
Anxious and trembling.....Red Columbine.
Ardor.....Cuckoo Plant.
Argument.....Fig.
Arts or artifice.....Acanthus.
Assiduous to please.....Sprig of Ivy with tendrils.
Assignation.....Pimpernel.
Attachment.....Indian Jasmine.
Audacity.....Larch.
Avarice.....Scarlet Auricula.
Aversion.....China or Indian Pink.

B.

Bantering.....Southernwood.
Baseness.....Dodder of Thyme.
Bashfulness.....Peony.
Bashful shame.....Deep Red Rose.
Beautiful eyes.....Variegated Tulip.
Beauty.....Party-colored Daisy
Beauty always new.....China Rose.
Beauty, capricious.....Lady's Slipper.
Beauty, capricious.....Musk Rose.
Beauty, delicate.....Flower of an Hour.
Beauty, delicate.....Hibiscus.
Beauty, divine.....American Cowslip.
Beauty, glorious.....Glory Flower.
Beauty, lasting.....Stock.
Beauty, magnificent.....Calla Æthiopica.
Beauty, mental.....Clematis.
Beauty, modest.....Trillium Pictum.
Beauty, neglected.....Throatwort.
Beauty, pensive.....Laburnum.
Beauty, rustic.....French Honeysuckle
Beauty, unconscious.....Burgundy Rose.
Beauty is your only attraction.....Japan Rose.
Belle.....Orchis.
Be mine.....Four-leaved Clover.
Beneficence.....Marshmallow.
Benevolence.....Potato.
Betrayed.....White Catchfly.
Beware.....Oleander.
Beware.....Rosebay.
Blackness.....Ebony Tree.
Bluntness.....Borage.
Blushes.....Marjoram.
Boaster.....Hydrangea.
Boldness.....Pink.
Bonds.....Convolvulus.
Bonds of affection.....Gillyflower.
Bravery.....Oak Leaves.
Bravery and humanity.....French Willow.
Bridal favor.....Ivy Geranium.
Brilliant complexion.....Damask Rose.
Bulk.....Water Melon.
Bulk.....Gourd.
Busybody.....Quamoclit.
Bury me amid Nature's beauties.....Persimon.

C.

Call me not beautiful.....Rose Unique.
Calm repose.....Buckbean.
Calumny.....Hellebore.
Calumny.....Madder.
Change.....Pimpernel.
Changeable disposition.....Rye Grass.
Charity.....Turnip.
Charming.....Cluster of Musk Roses.
Charms, deceitful.....Thorn Apple.
Cheerfulness in old age.....American Starwort.
Cheerfulness under adversity.....Chinese Chrysanthemum.
Chivalry.....Monkshood (Helmet Flower).
Cleanliness.....Hyssop.
Coldheartedness.....Lettuce.
Coldness.....Agnus Castus.
Color of my life.....Coral Honeysuckle.
Come down.....Jacob's Ladder.
Comfort.....Pear Tree.
Comforting.....Scarlet Geranium.
Compassion.....Allspice.
Concealed love.....Motherwort.
Concert.....Nettle Tree.
Concord.....Lote Tree.
Confession of love.....Moss Rosebud.
Confidence.....Hepatica.
Confidence.....Lilac Polyanthus.
Confidence.....Liverwort.
Confidence in Heaven.....Flowering Reed.
Conjugal love.....Lime, or Linden Tree.
Consolation.....Red Poppy.
Constancy.....Bluebell.
Consumed by love.....Syrian Mallow.
Counterfeit.....Mock Orange.
Courage.....Black Poplar.
Crime.....Tamarisk.
Cure.....Balm of Gilead.
Cure for heartache.....Swallow Wort.
Curiosity.....Sycamore.

D.

Danger.....Rhododendron. Rosebay.
Dangerous pleasures.....Tuberose.
Death.....Cypress.
Death preferable to loss of innocence.....White Rose (dried).
Deceit.....Apocynum.
Deceit.....Flytrap.
Deceit.....Dogsbane.
Deceitful charms.....Apple, Thorn.
Deception.....White Cherry Tree.
Declaration of love.....Red Tulip.
Decrease of love.....Yellow Rose.
Delay.....Eupatorium.
Delicacy.....Bluebottle. Century
Dejection.....Lichen.
Desire to please.....Mezereon.
Despair.....Cypress.
Despondency.....Humble Plant.
Devotion.....Peruvian Heliotrope
Difficulty.....Blackthorn.
Dignity.....Cloves.
Dignity.....Laurel-leaved Magnolia.
Disappointment.....Syringa, Carolina.
Disdain.....Yellow Carnation.
Disdain.....Rue.
Disgust.....Frog Ophrys.
Dissension.....Pride of China.
Distinction.....Cardinal Flower.
Distrust.....Lavender.
Divine beauty.....American Cowslip.
Docility.....Rush.
Domestic industry.....Flax.
Domestic virtue.....Sage.
Durability.....Dogwood.
Duration.....Cornel Tree.

E.

Early attachment.....Thornless Rose.
Early friendship.....Blue Periwinkle.
Early youth.....Primrose.
Elegance.....Locust Tree.
Elegance and grace.....Yellow Jasmine.
Elevation.....Scotch Fir.
Eloquence.....Lagerstræmia, Indian.
Enchantment.....Holly Herb.
Enchantment.....Vervain.
Energy in adversity.....Camomile.
Envy.....Bramble.
Error.....Bee Ophrys.
Error.....Fly Orchis.
Esteem.....Garden Sage.
Esteem, not love.....Spiderwort.
Esteem and love.....Strawberry Tree.
Estranged love.....Lotus Flower.
Excellence.....Camellia Japonica.
Expectation.....Anemone.

Expectation .....Zephyr Flower.
Expected meeting.....Nutmeg Geranium.
Extent .....Gourd.
Extinguished hopes.....Major Convolvulus.

F.

Facility .....Germander Speedwell.
Fairies' fire.....Pyrus Japonica.
Faithfulness.....Blue Violet.
Faithfulness .....Heliotrope.
Falsehood .....Bugloss.
Falsehood .....Yellow Lily.
Falsehood .....Manchineal Tree.
Fame.....Tulip. Trumpet Flower.
Fame speaks him great and good.....Apple Blossom.
Fantastic extravagance...Scarlet Poppy.
Farewell.....Michaelmas Daisy.
Fascination.....Fern
Fascination .....Honesty.
Fashion .....Queen's Rocket.
Fecundity.....Hollyhock.
Felicity.....Sweet Sultan.
Female fidelity.....Speedwell.
Festivity.....Parsley.
Fickleness.....Abatina.
Fickleness.....Pink Larkspur.
Filial love .....Virgin's bower.
Fidelity .....Veronica. Ivy.
Fidelity.....Plum Tree.
Fidelity in adversity. .....Wall-flower.
Fidelity in love. .....Lemon Blossoms.
Fire.....Fleur-de-Luce.
First emotions of love....Purple Lilac.
Flame .....Fleur-de-lis Iris.
Flattery .....Venus's Looking-glass.
Flee away.....Pennyroyal.
Fly with me.....Venus's Car.
Folly..... .....Columbine.
Foppery.....Cockscomb Amaranth.
Foolishness .....Pomegranate.
Foresight.....Holly.
Forgetfulness.....Moonwort.
Forget me not.....Forget me not.
For once may pride befriend me.....Tiger Flower.
Forsaken .....Garden Anemone.
Forsaken .....Laburnum.
Frankness.....Osier.
Fraternal love .....Woodbine.
Freedom .....Water Willow.
Freshness .....Damask Rose.
Friendship .....Acacia.
Friendship, early..... Blue Periwinkle.
Friendship, true..... Oak-leaved Geranium.
Friendship, unchanging..Arbor Vitæ.
Frivolity .....London Pride.
Frugality .....Chicory. Endive.

G.

Gaiety .....Butterfly Orchis.
Gaiety .....Yellow Lily.
Gallantry.....Sweet William.
Generosity ....Orange Tree.
Generous and devoted affection.....French Honeysuckle.
Genius .....Plane Tree.
Gentility .....Corn Cockle.
Girlhood ..... White Rosebud.
Gladness..... ....Myrrh.
Glory .....Bay Tree.
Glory .....Laurel.
Glorious beauty.....Glory Flower.
Goodness.....Bonus Henricus.
Goodness.....Mercury.
Good education .....Cherry Tree.
Good wishes.....Sweet Basil.
Good nature.....White Mullein.
Gossip.....Cobœa.
Grace .....Multiflora Rose.
Grace and elegance..... .Yellow Jasmine.
Grandeur..... ....Ash Tree.
Gratitude ....Small White Bellflower.
Grief .....Harebell.
Grief.....Marigold.

H.

Happy love.....Bridal Rose
Hatred .....Basil.
Haughtiness.....Purple Larkspur.
Haughtiness.....Tall Sunflower.
Health.....Iceland Moss.
Hermitage .....Milkwort.
Hidden worth.....Coriander.
Honesty.....Honesty.
Hope .....Flowering Almond.
Hope ....Hawthorn.
Hope .....Snowdrop.
Hope in adversity .....Spruce Pine.
Hopeless love.....Yellow Tulip.
Hopeless, not heartless...Love Lies Bleeding.
Horror.....Mandrake.
Horror.....Dragonswort.
Horror.....Snakesfoot.
Hospitality.....Oak Tree.
Humility ....Broom.
Humility .....Bindweed, Small.
Humility .. ..Field Lilac.

I.

I am too happy .....Cape Jasmine.
I am your captive.....Peach Blossom.
I am worthy of you.....White Rose.
I change but in death....Bay leaf.
I declare against you....Belvedere.
I declare against you.....Licorice.
I declare war against you.Wild Tansy.
I die if neglected.....Laurestina.
I desire a return of affection.....Jonquil.
I feel my obligations.....Lint.
I feel your kindness.....Flax.
I have lost all.....Mourning Bride.
I live for thee.....Cedar Leaf.
I love.....Red Chrysanthemum.
I partake of your sentiments.....Double China Aster
I partake your sentiments.Garden Daisy.
I shall die to-morrow ....Gum Cistus.
I shall not survive you...Black Mulberry.
I surmount difficulties....Mistletoe.
I will think of it.....Single China Aster.
I will think of it.....Wild Daisy.
I wound to heal.....Eglantine (Sweetbrier).
If you love me you will find it out.....Maiden Blush Rose.
Idleness.....Mesembryanthemum.
Ill-natured beauty.....Citron.
Imagination .....Lupine.
Immortality.....Amaranth (Globe).
Impatience.....Yellow Balsam.
Impatient of absence.....Corchorus.
Impatient resolves.....Red Balsam.
Imperfection.....Henbane.
Importunity .....Burdock.
Inconstancy.....Evening Primrose.
Incorruptible .....Cedar of Lebanon.
Independence.....Wild Plum Tree.
Independence.....White Oak.
Indifference.....Candytuft, Ever flowering.
Indifference.....Mustard Seed.
Indifference.....Pigeon Berry.
Indifference.....Senvy.
Indiscretion.....Split Reed.
Industry .....Red Clover.
Industry Domestic .....Flax.
Ingeniousness .....White Pink.
Ingenuity.....Penciled Geranium
Ingenuous Simplicity....Mouse-eared Chickweed.
Ingratitude .....Crowfoot.
Innocence.....Daisy.
Insincerity.....Foxglove.
Insinuation .....Great Bindweed.
Inspiration.....Angelica.
Instability ....Dahlia.
Intellect .....Walnut.
Intoxication .....Vine.
Irony .....Sardony.

J.

Jealousy ....French Marigold.
Jealousy ....Yellow Rose.
Jest..... ....Southernwood.
Joy .....Wood Sorrel.
Joys to come.....Lesser Celandine.
Justice.....Rudbeckia.
Justice shall be done to you .....Coltsfoot.
Justice shall be done to you.. .....Sweet-scented Tussilage.

K.

Knight-errantry .....Helmet Flower (Monks hood).

L.

Lamentation.....Aspen Tree.
Lasting beauty.....Stock.
Lasting pleasures.....Everlasting Pea.
Let me go..... :Butterfly Weed
Levity..... .....Larkspur.
Liberty.....Live Oak.
Life.....Lucern.
Lightheartedness.....Shamrock.
Lightness ....Larkspur.
Live for me .....Arbor vitæ.
Love.....Myrtle.
Love.....Rose.
Love, forsaken.....Creeping Willow.
Love returned.....Ambrosia.
Love is dangerous.....Carolina Rose.
Luster.....Aconite-leaved Crowfoot, or Fair Maid of France.
Luxury..... .....Chestnut Tree.

M.

Magnificent beauty.....Calla Æthiopica.
Majesty.....Crown Imperial.
Malevolence.....Lobelia.
Marriage.....Ivy.
Maternal affection.....Cinquefoil.
Maternal love.....Moss.
Maternal tenderness.....Wood Sorrel
Matrimony.....American Linden.
May you be happy.....Volkamenia.
Meanness.....Cuscuta.
Meekness.....Birch.
Melancholy.....Dark Geranium.
Melancholy.....Dead Leaves.
Mental beauty.....Clematis.
Mental beauty.....Kennedia.
Message.....Iris.
Mildness.....Mallow.
Mirth.....Saffron Crocus.
Misanthropy.....Aconite (Wolfsbane)
Misanthropy.....Fuller's Teasel.
Modest beauty.....Trillium Pictum.
Modest genius.....Creeping Cereus.
Modesty.....Violet.
Modesty and purity.....White Lily.
Momentary happiness....Virginian Spiderwort.
Mourning.....Weeping Willow.
Music.....Bundles of reed, with their panicles
My best days are past.....Colchicum, or Meadow Saffron.
My regrets follow you to the grave.....Asphodel.

N.

Neatness.....Broom.
Neglected beauty.....Throatwort.
Never-ceasing remembrance.....Everlasting.

O.

Old age.....Tree of Life.
Only deserve my love....Champion Rose.

P.

Painful recollections.....Flos Adonis.
Painting.....Auricula.
Painting the lily.....Daphne Odora.
Passion.....White Dittany.
Paternal error.....Cardamine.
Patience.....Dock. Ox-eye.
Patriotism.....American Elm.
Patriotism.....Nasturtium.
Peace.....Olive.
Perfected loveliness.....Camellia Japonica, White.
Perfidy.....Common Laurel, in flower.
Pensive beauty.....Laburnum.
Perplexity.....Love in a mist.
Persecution.....Checkered Fritillary.
Perseverance.....Swamp Magnolia.
Persuasion.....Althea Frutex.
Persuasion.....Syrian Mallow.
Pertinacity.....Clotbur.
Pity.....Pine.
Pleasure and pain.....Dog Rose.
Pleasure, Lasting.....Everlasting Pea.
Pleasures of memory.....White Periwinkle.
Popular favor.....Cistust or Rock Rose.
Poverty.....Evergreen Clematis
Power.....Imperial Montague.
Power.....Cress.
Precaution.....Golden Rod.
Prediction.....Prophetic Marigold.
Pretension.....Spiked Willow Herb
Pride.....Amaryllis.
Pride.....Hundred-leaved Rose.
Privation.....Indian Plum.
Privation.....Myrobalan.
Profit.....Cabbage.
Prohibition.....Privet.
Prolific.....Fig Tree.
Promptness.....Ten-week Stock.
Prosperity.....Beech Tree.
Protection.....Bearded Crepis.
Prudence.....Mountain Ash.
Pure love.....Single Red Pink.
Pure and ardent love.....Double Red Pink.
Pure and lovely.....Red Rosebud.
Purity.....Star of Bethlehem.

Q.

Quarrel.....Broken Corn-straw.
Quicksightedness.....Hawkweed.

R.

Reason.....Goat's Rue.
Recantation.....Lotus Leaf.
Recall.....Silver-leaved Geranium.
Reconciliation.....Filbert.
Reconciliation.....Hazel.
Refusal.....Striped Carnation.
Regard.....Daffodil.
Relief.....Balm of Gilead.
Relieve my anxiety.....Christmas Rose.
Religious superstition....Aloe.
Religious superstition....Passion Flower.
Religious enthusiasm.....Schinus.
Remembrance.....Rosemary.
Remorse.....Bramble.
Remorse.....Raspberry.
Rendezvous.....Chickweed.
Reserve.....Maple.
Resistance.....Tremella Nestoc.
Restoration.....Persicaria.
Retaliation.....Scotch Thistle.
Return of happiness.....Lily of the Valley.
Revenge.....Birdsfoot Trefoil.
Reverie.....Flowering Fern.
Reward of merit.....Bay Wreath.
Reward of virtue.....Garland of Roses.
Riches.....Corn.
Rigor.....Lantana.
Rivalry.....Rocket.
Rudeness.....Clotbur.
Rudeness.....Xanthium.
Rural happiness.....Yellow Violet.
Rustic beauty.....French Honeysuckle
Rustic oracle.....Dandelion.

S.

Sadness.....Dead Leaves.
Safety.....Traveler's Joy.
Satire.....Prickly Pear.
Sculpture.....Hoya.
Secret love.....Yellow Acacia.
Semblance.....Spiked Speedwell.
Sensitiveness.....Mimosa.
Sensuality.....Spanish Jasmine.
Separation.....Carolina Jasmine.
Severity.....Branch of Thorns.
Shame.....Peony.
Sharpness.....Barberry Tree.
Sickness.....Anemone (Zephyr Flower).
Silliness.....Fool's Parsley.
Simplicity.....American Sweetbrier.
Sincerity.....Garden Chervil.
Slighted love.....Yellow Chrysanthemum.
Snare.....Cactus. Dragon Plant.
Solitude.....Heath.
Sorrow.....Yew.
Sourness of temper.....Barberry.
Spell.....Circe.
Spleen.....Fumitory.
Splendid beauty.....Amaryllis
Splendor.....Austurtium.
Sporting.....Fox-tail Grass.
Steadfast piety.....Wild Geranium
Stoicism.....Box Tree.
Strength.....Cedar. Fennel.
Submission.....Grass.
Submission.....Hareben.
Success crown your wishes.....Coronella.
Succor.....Juniper.
Sunbeaming eyes.....Scarlet Lychnis.
Surprise.....Truffle.
Susceptibility.....Wax Plant.
Suspicion.....Champignon.
Sympathy.....Balm.
Sympathy.....Thrift.

T.

Talent.....White Pink.
Tardiness.....Flax-leaved Goldylocks.
Taste.....Scarlet Fuschia.
Tears.....Helenium.
Temperance.....Azalea.
Temptation.....Apple.
Thankfulness.....Agrimony.
The color of my fate.....Coral Honeysuckle.
The heart's mystery.....Crimson Polyanthus
The perfection of female loveliness.....Justicia.
The witching soul of music.....Oats.
Thoughts.....Pansy.
Thoughts of absent friends.....Zinnia.
Thy frown will kill me...Currant.
Thy smile I aspire to.....Daily Rose.
Ties.....Tendrils of Climbing Plants.
Timidity.....Amaryllis.
Timidity.....Marvel of Peru.
Time.....White Poplar.
Tranquillity.....Mudwort.
Tranquillity.....Stonecrop.
Tranquilize my anxiety...Christmas Rose.
Transient beauty.....Night-blooming Cereus.
Transient impressions....Withered White Rose.
Transport of joy.....Cape Jasmine.

Treachery.....Bilberry.
True love.....Forget me not.
True friendship.....Oak-leaved Geranium.
Truth.....Bitter sweet Nightshade.
Truth.....White Chrysanthemum.

U.

Unanimity.....Phlox.
Unbelief.....Judas Tree.
Unceasing remembrance.American Cudweed
Unchanging friendship...Arbor Vitæ.
Unconscious beauty.....Burgundy Rose.
Unexpected meeting.....Lemon Geranium.
Unfortunate attachment..Mourning Bride.
Unfortunate love.....Scabious.
Union.....Whole Straw.
Unity.....White and Red Rose together.
Unpatronized merit.....Red Primrose.
Uselessness.....Meadowsweet.
Utility.....Grass.

V.

Variety.....China Aster.
Variety.....Mundi Rose.
Vice.....Darnel (Ray Grass).
Victory.....Palm.
Virtue.....Mint.
Virtue, Domestic.....Sage.
Volubility.....Abecedary.
Voraciousness.....Lupine.
Vulgar minds.....African Marigold.

W.

War.....York and Lancaster Rose.
War.....Achillea Millefolia.
Warlike trophy.....Indian Cress.
Warmth of feeling.....Peppermint.
Watchfulness.....Dame Violet.
Weakness.....Moschatel.
Weakness.....Musk Plant.
Welcome to a stranger ..American Starwort
Widowhood.....Sweet Scabious.
Win me and wear me ....Lady's Slipper.
Winning grace.....Cowslip.
Winter.....Guelder Rose.
Wit.....Meadow Lychnis.
Wit ill-timed.....Wild Sorrel.
Witchcraft.....Enchanter's Nightshade.
Worth beyond beauty....Sweet Alyssum.
Worth sustained by judicious and tender affection.....Pink Convolvulus.
Worthy all praise.....Fennel.

Y.

You are cold.....Hortensia.
You are my divinity.....American Cowslip.
You are perfect.....Pine Apple.
You are radiant with charms.....Ranunculus.
You are rich in attractions Garden Ranunculus
You are the queen of coquettes.....Queen's Rocket.
You have no claims.....Pasque Flower.
You please all.....Branch of Currants.
You will be my death ....Hemlock.
Your charms are engraven on my heart ....Spindle Tree.
Your looks freeze me.....Ice Plant.
Your presence softens my pains.....Milkvetch.
Your purity equals your loveliness.....Orange Blossoms.
Your qualities, like your charms, are unequaled..Peach.
Your qualities surpass your charms.....Mignionette.
Youthful innocence.....White Lilac.
Youthful love.....Red Catchfly.

Z.

Zealousness.....Elder.
Zest.....Lemon

HOW TO PRESERVE YOUR HEALTH.

THE leading conditions essential to health may be thus enumerated:—1. A constant supply of pure air; 2. A sufficiency of nourishing food, rightly taken; 3. Cleanliness; 4. A sufficiency of exercise to the various organs of the system; 5. A right temperature; 6. A sufficiency of cheerful and innocent enjoyments; and, 7. Exemption from harassing cares.

AIR.

The common air is a fluid composed mainly of two gases, in certain proportions; namely, oxygen as twenty and nitrogen as eighty parts in a hundred, with a very minute addition of carbonic acid gas. Such is air in its pure and right state, and such is the state in which we require it for respiration. When it is loaded with any admixture of a different kind, or its natural proportions are in any way deranged, it cannot be breathed without producing injurious results. We also require what is apt to appear a large quantity of this element of healthy existence. The lungs of a healthy full-grown man will inhale the bulk of twenty cubic inches at every inspiration, and he will use no less than fifty-seven hogsheads in twenty-four hours.

Now, there are various circumstances which tend to surround us at times with vitiated air, and which must accordingly be guarded against. That first calling for attention is the miasma or noxious quality imparted to the air in certain districts by stagnant water and decaying vegetable matter. It is now generally acknowledged that this noxious quality is in reality a subtle poison, which acts on the human system through the medium of the lungs, producing fevers and other epidemics.

Putrid matter of all kinds is another conspicuous source of noxious effluvia. The filth collected in ill-regulated towns—ill-managed drains—collections of decaying animal substances, placed too near or within private dwellings—are notable for their effects in vitiating the atmosphere, and generating disease in those exposed to them. In this case also, it is a poison diffused abroad through the air which acts so injuriously on the human frame.

The human subject tends to vitiate the atmosphere for itself, by the effect which it produces on the air which it breathes. Our breath, when we draw it in, consists of the ingredients formerly mentioned; but it is in a very different state when we part with it. On passing into our lungs the oxygen, forming the lesser ingredient, enters into combination with the carbon of the venous blood (or blood which has already performed its round through the body); in this process about two-fifths of the oxygen is abstracted and sent into the blood, only the remaining three-fifths being expired, along with the nitrogen nearly as it was before. In place of the oxygen consumed, there is expired an equal volume of carbonic acid gas, such gas being a result of the process of combination just alluded to. Now, carbonic acid gas, in a larger proportion than that in which it is found in the atmosphere, is noxious. The volume of it expired by the lungs, if free to mingle with the air at large, will do no harm; but, if breathed out into a close room, it will render the air unfit for being again breathed. Suppose an individual to be shut up in an air-tight box: each breath he emits throws a certain quantity of carbonic acid gas into the air filling the box; the air is thus vitiated, and every successive inspiration is composed of worse and worse materials, till at length the oxygen is so much exhausted that it is insufficient for the support of life. He would then be sensible of a great difficulty in breathing, and in a little time longer he would die.

Most rooms in which human beings live are not strictly close. The chimney and the chinks of the doors and windows generally allow of a communication to a certain extent with the outer air, so that it rarely happens that great immediate inconvenience is experienced in ordinary apartments from want of fresh air. But it is at the same time quite certain that, in all ordinary apartments where human beings are assembled, the air unavoidably becomes *considerably vitiated*, for in such a situation there cannot be a sufficiently ready or copious supply of oxygen to make up for that which has been consumed, and the carbonic acid gas will be constantly accumulating. This is particularly the case in bedrooms, and in theaters, churches, and schools.

Perhaps it is in bedrooms that most harm is done. These are generally smaller than other rooms, and they are usually kept close during the whole night. The result of sleeping in such a room is very injurious. A common fire, from the draught which it produces, is very serviceable in ventilating rooms, but it is at best a defective means of doing so. The draught which it creates generally sweeps along near the floor

between the door and the fire, leaving all above the level of the chimney-piece unpurified. Yet scarcely any other arrangement is anywhere made for the purpose of changing the air in ordinary rooms.

FOOD.

The second requisite for the preservation of health is a sufficiency of nutritious food.

Organic bodies, in which are included vegetables as well as animals, are constituted upon the principle of *a continual waste of substance supplied by continual nutrition.*

The Nutritive System of animals, from apparently the humblest of these to the highest, comprehends an *alimentary tube or cavity*, into which food is received, and from which, after undergoing certain changes, it is diffused by means of smaller vessels throughout the whole structure. In the form of this tube, and in the other apparatus connected with the taking of food, there are, in different animals, varieties of structure, all of which are respectively in conformity with peculiarities in the quality and amount of food which the particular animals are designed to take. The harmony to be observed in these arrangements is remarkably significant of that Creative design to be traced in all things.

Man Designed to Live on a Mixed Diet.—Some animals are formed to live upon vegetable substances alone; others are calculated to live upon the flesh of other animals. Herbivorous animals, as the former are called, have generally a long and complicated alimentary tube, because the nutritious part of such food, being comparatively small in proportion to the whole bulk, requires a greater space in which to be extracted and absorbed into the system. The sheep, for example, has a series of intestines twenty-seven times the length of its body. For the opposite reasons carnivorous or flesh-devouring animals, as the feline tribe of quadrupeds, and the rapacious birds, have generally a short intestinal canal. The former class of animals are furnished with teeth calculated by their broad and flat surfaces, as well as by the lateral movement of the jaws in which they are set, to mince down the herbage and grain eaten by them. But the carnivorous animals, with wide-opening jaws, have long and sharp fangs to seize and tear their prey. These peculiarities of structure mark sufficiently the designs of nature with respect to the kinds of food required by the two different classes of animals for their support.

The human intestinal canal being of medium length, and the human teeth being a mixture of the two kinds, it necessarily follows that man was designed to eat both vegetable and animal food. As no animal can live agreeably or healthy except in conformity with the laws of its constitution, it follows that man will not thrive unless with a mixture of animal and vegetable food. The followers of Pythagoras argued, from the cruelty of putting animals to death, that it was proper to live on vegetables alone, and many eccentric persons of modern times have acted upon this rule. But the ordinances of Nature speak a different language; and, if we have any faith in these, we cannot for a moment doubt that a mixture of animal food is necessary for our well-being. On the other hand, we cannot dispense with vegetable food, without injurious consequences. In that case we place in a medium alimentary canal a kind of food which is calculated for a short one, thus violating an arrangement of the most important nature. A balance between the two kinds of food is what we should observe, if we would desire to live a natural and consequently healthy life.

Rules Connected with Eating.—In order fully to understand how to eat, what to eat, and how to conduct ourselves after eating, it is necessary that we should be acquainted in some measure with the *process of nutrition*—that curious series of operations by which food is received and assimilated by our system in order to make good the deficiency produced by waste.

Food is first received into the mouth, and there the operations in question may be said to commence. It is there to be chewed (or masticated), and mixed with saliva, preparatory to its being swallowed or sent into the stomach. Even in this introductory stage, there are certain rules to be observed. Strange as it may appear, to know *how to eat* is a matter of very considerable importance.

Many persons, thinking it all a matter of indifference, or perhaps unduly anxious to dispatch their meals, eat very fast. They tumble their meat precipitately into their mouths, and swallow it almost without mastication. This is contrary to an express law of nature, as may be easily shown.

Food, on being received into the mouth, has two processes to undergo, both very necessary to digestion. It has to be masticated, or chewed down, and also to receive an admixture of saliva. The saliva is a fluid arising from certain glands in and near the mouth, and approaching in character to the gastric juice afterward to be described. Unless food be well broken down or masticated, and also well mixed up with the salivary fluid, it will be difficult of digestion. The stomach is then called upon to do, beside its own proper duty, that which properly belongs to the teeth and saliva, and it is thus overburdened and embarrassed, often in a very serious manner. The pains of indigestion are the immediate consequence, and more remote injuries follow.

It is therefore to be concluded that *a deliberate mastication of our food is conducive to health, and that fast eating is injurious, and sometimes even dangerous.*

The food, having been properly masticated, is, by the action of the tongue, thrown into the gullet. It then descends into the stomach, not so much by its own gravity, as by its being urged along by the contractions and motions of the gullet itself. The stomach may be considered as an expansion of the gullet, and the chief part of the alimentary canal. It is, in fact, a membranous pouch or bag, very similar in shape to a bagpipe, having two openings, the one by which the food enters, the other that by which it passes out. It is into the greater curvature of the bag that the gullet enters; it is at its lesser that it opens into that adjoining portion of the canal into which the half-digested mass is next propelled.

When food has been introduced, the two orifices close, and that which we may term the second stage in the process of digestion commences. The mass, already saturated with saliva, and so broken down as to expose all its particles to the action of the gastric juice, is now submitted to the action of that fluid, which, during digestion, is freely secreted by the vessels of the stomach. The most remarkable quality of this juice is its solvent power, which is prodigious.

The food exposed to this dissolving agency is converted into a soft, gray, pulpy mass, called chyme, which, by the muscular contraction of the stomach, is urged on into the adjoining part of the alimentary canal, called the duodenum. This is generally completed in the space of from half an hour to two or three hours; the period varying according to the nature and volume of the food taken, and the mastication and insalivation it has undergone.

In the duodenum, the chyme becomes intimately mixed and incorporated with the bile and pancreatic juice; also with a fluid secreted by the mucous follicles of the intestine itself. The bile is a greenish, bitter, and somewhat viscid fluid, secreted by the liver, which occupies a considerable space on the right side of the body, immediately under the ribs. From this organ the bile, after a portion of it has passed up into the adjacent gall-bladder, descends through a small duct, about the size of a goose-quill, into the duodenum. The chyme, when mixed with these fluids, undergoes a change in its appearance; it assumes a yellow color and bitter taste, owing to the predominance of the bile in the mass; but its character varies according to the nature of the food that has been taken. Fatty matters, tendons, cartilages, white of eggs, etc., are not so readily converted into chyme as fibrous or fleshy, cheesy, and glutinous substances. The chyme, having undergone the changes adverted to, is urged by the peristaltic motion of the intestines onward through the alimentary canal. This curious motion of the intestines is caused by the contraction of the muscular coat which enters into their structure, and one of the principal uses ascribed to the bile is that of stimulating them to this motion. If the peristaltic motion be diminished, owing to a deficiency of bile, then the progress of digestion is retarded, and the body becomes constipated. In such cases, calomel, the blue pill, and other medicines, are administered for the purpose of stimulating the liver to secrete the biliary fluid that it may quicken by its stimulating properties the peristaltic action. But this is not the only use of the bile: it also assists in separating the nutritious from the non-nutritious portion of the alimentary mass, for the chyme now presents a mixture of a fluid termed *chyle*, which is in reality the nutritious portion eliminated from the food. The chyme thus mixed with chyle arrives in the small intestines, on the walls of which a series of exquisitely delicate vessels ramify in every direction. These vessels absorb or take up the chyle, leaving the rest of the mass to be ejected from the body. The chyle, thus taken up, is carried into little bodies of glands, where it is still further elaborated, acquiring additional nutritious properties; after which, corresponding vessels, emerging from these glands, carry along the fluid to a comparatively large vessel, called the thoracic duct, which ascends in the abdomen along the side of the back-bone, and pours it into that side of the heart to which the blood that has already circulated through the body returns. Here the chyle is intimately mixed with the blood, which fluid is now propelled into the lungs, where it undergoes, from being exposed to the action of the air we breathe, the changes necessary to render it again fit for circulation. It is in the lungs, therefore, that the process of digestion is completed; the blood has now acquired those nutrient properties from which it secretes the new particles of matter adapted to supply the waste of the different textures of the body.

When food is received into the stomach, the secretion of the gastric juice immediately commences; and when a full meal has been taken, this secretion generally lasts for about an hour. It is a law of vital action, that when any living organ is called into play, there is immediately an increased flow of blood and nervous energy toward it. The stomach, while secreting its fluid, displays this phenomenon, and the consequence is, that the blood and nervous energy are called away from other organs. This is the cause of that chilliness at the extremities which we often feel after eating heartily. So great is the demand which the stomach thus makes upon the rest of the system, that, during and for some time after a meal, we are not in a condition to take strong exercise of any kind. Both body and mind are inactive and languid. They are so, simply because that which supports muscular and mental activity is concentrated for the time upon the organs of digestion. This is an arrangement of nature which a regard to health requires that we should not interfere with. *We should indulge in the muscular and mental repose which is demanded: and this should last for not much less than an hour after every meal.* In that time the secretion of gastric juice is nearly finished; the new nutriment begins to tell upon the general circulation; and we are again fit for active exertion. The consequence of not observing this rule is very hurtful. Strong exercise, or mental application during or immediately after a meal, diverts the flow of nervous energy and of blood to the stomach, and the process of digestion is necessarily retarded or stopped. Confusion is thus introduced into the system, and a tendency to the terrible calamity of dyspepsia is perhaps established.

For the same reason that repose is required after a meal, it is necessary, in some measure, for a little while before. At the moment when we have concluded a severe muscular task, such, for example, as a long walk, the flow of nervous energy and of circulation is strongly directed to the muscular system. It requires some time to allow this flow to stop and subside; and, till this takes place, it is not proper to bring the stomach into exercise, as the demand it makes when filled would not in that case be answered. Just so if we be engaged in close mental application, the nervous energy and circulation being in that case directed to the brain, it is not right all at once to call another and distant organ into play; some time is required to allow of the energy and circulation being prepared to take the new direction. It may, therefore, be laid down as a maxim, that, *a short period of repose or at least of very light occupation, should be allowed before every meal.*

Kinds of Food.—It has been shown by a reference to the structure of the human intestinal canal, that our food is designed to be a mixture of animal and vegetable substances.

Inquiries with respect to the comparative digestibility of different kinds of food, are perhaps chiefly of consequence to those in whom health has already been lost. To the sound and healthy it is comparatively of little consequence what kind of food is taken, provided that some variation is observed, and no excess committed as to quantity. Within the range of fish, flesh, and fowl, there is ample scope for a safe choice

There is scarcely any of the familiar aliments of these kinds, but, if plainly dressed, will digest in from two to four hours, and prove perfectly healthy. One rule alone has been pretty well ascertained, with respect to animal foods, that they are the more digestible the more minute and tender the fiber may be. They contain more nutriment in a given bulk than vegetable matters, and hence their less need for length of intestine to digest them. Yet it is worthy of notice, that between the chyle produced from animal and that from vegetable food, no essential distinction can be observed.

Tendon, suet, and oily matters in general, are considerably less digestible than the ordinary fiber; and these are aliments which should be taken sparingly. Pickling, from its effects in hardening the fiber, diminishes the digestibility of meat. Dressed shell-fish, cheese and some other animal foods, are avoided by many as not sufficiently digestible.

Farinaceous foods of all kinds—wheat, oaten, and barley bread, oaten porridge, sago, arrow-root, tapioca, and potatoes—are highly suitable to the human constitution. They generally require under two hours for digestion, or about half the time of a full mixed meal. The cottage children of Scotland, reared exclusively upon oaten porridge and bread, with potatoes and milk, may be cited as a remarkable example of a class of human beings possessing in an uncommon degree the blessing of health. Green vegetables and fruit, however softened by dressing, are less digestible, and less healthy as a diet. One important consideration here occurs. There is need for a certain bulk in our ordinary food. Receiving nutriment in a condensed form and in a small space will not serve the purpose. This is because the organs of digestion are calculated for receiving our food nearly in the condition in which nature presents it, namely in a considerable bulk with regard to its nutritious properties.

Quantity of Food.—Number and Times of Meals.—With respect to the amount of food necessary for health, it is difficult to lay down any rule, as different quantities are safe with different individuals, according to their sex, age, activity of life, and some other conditions.

The number and times of meals are other questions as yet undetermined. As the digestion of a meal rarely requires more than four hours, and the waking part of a day is about sixteen, it seems unavoidable that at least three meals be taken, though it may be proper that one, if not two of these, be comparatively of a light nature. Breakfast, dinner, and tea as a light meal, may be considered as a safe, if not a very accurate, prescription for the daily food of a healthy person. Certainly four good meals a day is too much.

The interval between rising and breakfast ought not to be great, and no severe exercise or task-work of any kind should be undergone during this interval. There is a general prepossession to the contrary, arising probably from the feeling of freedom and lightness which most people feel at that period of the day, and which seems to them as indicating a preparedness for exertion. But this feeling, perhaps, only arises from a sense of relief from that oppression of food under which much of the rest of the day is spent. It is quite inconsistent with all we know of the physiology of aliment, to suppose that the body is capable of much exertion when the stomach has been for several hours quite empty. We have known many persons take long walks before breakfast, under an impression that they were doing something extremely favorable to health. Others we have known go through three hours of mental task-work at the same period, believing that they were gaining so much time. But the only observable result was to subtract from the powers of exertion in the middle and latter part of the day. In so far as the practice was contrary to nature, it would likewise of course produce permanent injury. Only a short saunter in the open air, or a very brief application to business or task-work, can be safely indulged in before breakfast.

With regard to the time for either breakfast or dinner, nothing can be said with scientific authority.

Variety of Food.—A judicious variation of food is not only useful, but important. There are, it is true, some aliments, such as bread, which cannot be varied, and which no one ever wishes to be so. But apart from one or two articles, a certain variation of rotation is much to be desired, and will prove favorable to health. There is a common prepossession respecting *one dish*, which is more spoken of than acted upon. In reality, there is no virtue in this practice, excepting that, if rigidly adhered to, it makes excess nearly impossible, no one being able to eat to satiety of one kind of food. There would be a benefit from both a daily variation of food and eating of more than one dish at a meal, *if moderation were in both cases to be strictly observed*, for the relish to be thus obtained is useful as promotive of the flow of nervous energy to the stomach, exactly in the same manner as cheerfulness is useful. The policy which would make food in any way unpleasant to the taste, is a most mistaken one; for to eat with languor, or against inclination, or with any degree of disgust, is to lose much of the benefit of eating. On the other hand, to cook dishes highly, and provoke appetite by artificial means, are equally reprehensible. Propriety lies in the mean between the two extremes.

Beverages.—The body containing a vast amount of fluids, which are undergoing a perpetual waste, there is a necessity for an occasional supply of liquor of some kind, as well as of solid food. It remains to be considered what is required in the character or nature of this liquor, to make it serve the end consistently with the preservation of health.

When the digestion is good and the system in full vigor, the bodily energy is easily sustained by nutritious food, and "artificial stimulant *only increases the wasting of the natural strength.*" Nearly all physicians, indeed, concur in representing ardent liquors as unfavorable to the health of the healthy, and as being in their excess highly injurious. Even the specious defense which has been set up for their use, on the ground that they would not have been given to man if they had not been designed for general use, has been shown to be ill-founded, seeing that *vinous fermentation*, from which they are derived, is not a healthy condition of vegetable matter, but a stage in its progress to decay. Upon the whole, there can be little doubt that these liquors are deleterious in our ordinary healthy condition; and that simple water, toast water, whey, ginger beer, or lemonade, would be preferable (the first being the most natural and the best of all), if we could only consent to deny ourselves further indulgence.

CLEANLINESS.

To keep the body in a cleanly condition is the third important requisite for health. This becomes necessary in consequence of a very important process which is constantly going on near and upon the surface of the body.

The process in question is that of *perspiration*. The matter here concerned is a watery secretion produced by glands near the surface of the body, and sent up through the skin by channels imperceptibly minute and wonderfully numerous. From one to two pounds of this secretion is believed to exude through these channels or *pores* in the course of twenty-four hours, being in fact the chief form taken by what is called the waste of the system, the remainder passing off by the bowels, kidneys, and lungs. To promote the egress of this fluid is of great consequence to health; for when it is suppressed, disease is apt to fall upon some of the other organs concerned in the discharge of waste.

One of the most notable checks which perspiration experiences is that produced by a current of cold air upon the skin, in which case the pores instantly contract and close, and the individual is seized with some ailment either in one of the other organs of waste, whichever is in him the weakest, or in the internal lining of some part of the body, all of which is sympathetic with the condition of the skin. A result of the nature of that last described is usually recognized as a cold or catarrh. We are not at present called on particularly to notice such effects of checked perspiration, but others of a less immediately hurtful or dangerous nature.

The fluid alluded to is composed, besides water, of certain salts and animal matters, which, being solid, do not pass away in vapor, as does the watery part of the compound, but rest on the surface where they have been discharged. There, if not removed by some artificial means, they form a layer of hard stuff, and unavoidably impede the egress of the current perspiration. By cleanliness is merely meant the taking proper means to prevent this or any other matter accumulating on the surface, to the production of certain hurtful consequences.

Ablution or washing is the best means of attaining this end; and accordingly it is well for us to wash or bathe the body very frequently. Many leave by far the greater part of their bodies unwashed, except, perhaps, on rare occasions, thinking it enough if the parts exposed to common view be in decent trim. If the object of cleaning were solely to preserve fair appearances, this might be sufficient; but the great end, it must be clearly seen, is to keep the skin in a fit state for its peculiar and very important functions. Frequent change of the clothing next to the skin is of course a great aid to cleanliness, and may partly be esteemed as a substitute for bathing, seeing that the clothes absorb much of the impurities, and, when changed, may be said to carry these off. But still this will not serve the end nearly so well as frequent ablution of the whole person. Any one will be convinced of this, who goes into a bath, and uses the flesh-brush in cleansing his body. The quantity of scurf and impurity which he will then remove, from even a body which has changes of linen once a day, will surprise him.

EXERCISE.

The constitution of external nature shows that man was destined for an active existence, as, without labor, scarcely any of the gifts of providence are to be made available. In perfect harmony with this character of the material world, he has been furnished with a muscular and mental system, constructed on the principle of being fitted for exertion, and requiring exertion for a healthy existence. Formed as he is, it is not possible for him to abstain from exertion without very hurtful consequences.

Muscular Exercise.—With regard to merely bodily exercise, it is to be observed, in the first place, that we have no fewer than four hundred muscles, each designed to serve some particular end in locomotion or in operating upon external objects. A sound state of body depends very much upon each of these muscles being brought into action in proper circumstances and to a suitable extent. There is even a law operating within a certain range, by which each muscle will gain *in strength and soundness* by being brought into a proper degree of activity.

The process of waste and renovation may be said to be always going on in the body, but it does not go on with permanent steadiness unless the muscular system be exercised. Whenever one of the organs is put into exertion, this process becomes active, and the two operations of which it consists maintain a due proportion to each other. A greater flow of blood and of nervous energy is sent to the organ, and this continues as long as it is kept in activity. When one state of action follows close upon another, the renovating part of the process rather exceeds the waste, and an accretion of new substance, as well as an addition of fresh power takes place. On the contrary, when an organ is little exercised, the process of renovation goes on languidly, and to a less extent than that of waste, and the parts consequently become flabby, shrunken, and weak. Even the bones are subject to the same laws. If these be duly exercised in their business of administering to motion, the vessels which pervade them are fed more actively with blood, and they increase in dimensions, solidity, and strength. If they be little exercised, the stimulus required for the supply of blood to them becomes insufficient; imperfect nutrition takes place; and the consequences are debility, softness, and unfitness for their office. Bones may be so much softened by inaction, as to become susceptible of being cut by a knife. In a less degree, the same cause will produce languor and bad health.

It is of the utmost importance to observe, that the exercise of any particular limb does little besides improving the strength of that limb; and that, in order to increase our general strength, the whole frame must be brought into exercise.

In order, then, to maintain in a sound state the energies which nature has given us, and still more particularly, to increase their amount, *we must exercise them*. If we desire to have a strong limb, we must exercise that limb; if we desire that the whole of our frame should be sound and strong, we must exercise the whole of our frame. It is mainly by these means that health and strength are to be preserved and in-

proved. There are rules, however, for the application of these laws of our being.

1. In order that exercise may be truly advantageous, the parts must be in a state of sufficient health to endure the exertion. In no case must exercise be carried beyond what the parts are capable of bearing with ease; otherwise a loss of energy, instead of a gain, will be the consequence.

2. Exercise, to be efficacious even in a healthy subject, must be excited, sustained, and directed by that nervous stimulus which gives the muscles the principal part of their strength, and contributes so much to the nutrition of parts in a state of activity.

3. The waste occasioned by exercise must be duly replaced by food; as, if there be any deficiency in that important requisite, the blood will soon cease to give that invigoration to the parts upon which increased health and strength depend.

Kinds of Bodily Exercise.—Exercise is usually considered as of two kinds—active and passive. The active consists in walking, running, leaping, riding, fencing, rowing, skating, swimming, dancing, and various exercises, such as those with the poles, ropes, &c., prescribed in gymnastic institutions. The passive consists in carriage-riding, sailing, friction, swinging, &c.

Walking is perhaps the readiest mode of taking exercise, and the one most extensively resorted to. If it brought the upper part of the body as thoroughly into exertion as the lower, it would be perfect, for it is gentle and safe with nearly all except the much debilitated. To render it the more effectual in the upper part of the body it were well to walk at all times, when convenient, *singly* and allow the arms and trunk free play. It is best to walk with a companion, or for some definite object, as the flow of nervous energy will be by these means promoted, and the exercise be rendered, as has been already explained, the more serviceable.

Very long or rapid walks should not be attempted by individuals of sedentary habits, nor by weakly persons. Their frames are totally unprepared for such violent exertion.

Running is an exercise which is intermediate between walking and leaping; it consists, in fact, of a series of leaps performed in progression from one foot to another, and the degree of its rapidity bears a constant proportion to the length of the individual and successive leaps. Although this and other gymnastic exercises, such as leaping, wrestling, throwing heavy weights, etc., may, when judiciously had recourse to, invigorate the body, yet, from apprehension of the evils and accidents which may be so occasioned, young persons ought not to be permitted to engage extensively in such exercises, except under the care of some one well acquainted with gymnastics.

Fencing is of all active exercises that which is the most commendable, inasmuch as it throws open the chest, and at the same time calls into action the muscles both of the upper and lower extremities. Add to this, that it improves very much the carriage of the body; for which reason it may be reckoned a branch of polite education.

Dancing is exhilarating and healthful, and seems to be almost the only active exercise which the despotic laws of fashion permit young ladies to enjoy.

Riding is generally classed among the passive exercises, but in reality it is one which involves much action of the whole frame, and as such is very useful for health. Pursued solitarily, it has the drawback of being somewhat dull; but, when two or three ride in company, a sufficient flow of the nervous energy may be obtained.

The amount of bodily exercise which should be taken must vary according to the habits, strength, and general health of the individual. It was an aphorism of Boerhaave, that every person should take at least two hours' exercise in the day, and this may be regarded as a good general rule.

Mental Exercise.—Having thus explained the laws and regulations by which exercise may be serviceable to the physical system, we shall proceed to show that the same rules hold good respecting the mental faculties. These, as is generally allowed, however immaterial in one sense, are connected organically with the brain—a portion of the animal system nourished by the same blood, and regulated by the same vital laws, as the muscles, bones, and nerves. As, by disuse, muscle becomes emaciated, bone softens, blood-vessels are obliterated, and nerves lose their natural structure, so, by disuse, does the brain fall out of its proper state, and create misery to its possessor; and as, by over-exertion, the waste of the animal system exceeds the supply, and debility and unsoundness are produced, so, by over-exertion, are the functions of the brain liable to be deranged and destroyed. The processes are physiologically the same, and the effects bear an exact relation to each other. As with the bodily powers, the mental are to be increased in magnitude and energy by a degree of exercise measured with a just regard to their ordinary health and native or habitual energies. Corresponding, moreover, to the influence which the mind has in giving the nervous stimulus so useful in bodily exercise, is the dependence of the mind upon the body for supplies of healthy nutriment. And, in like manner with the bodily functions, each mental faculty is only to be strengthened by the exercise of itself in particular.

It ought to be universally known, that the uses of our intellectual nature are not to be properly realized without a just regard to the laws of that perishable frame with which it is connected; that, in cultivating the mind, we must neither overtask nor undertask the body, neither push it to too great a speed, nor leave it neglected; and that, notwithstanding this intimate connection and mutual dependence, the highest merits on the part of the mind will not compensate for muscles mistreated, or soothe a nervous system which severe study has tortured into insanity. To come to detail, it ought to be impressed on all, that to spend more than a moderate number of hours in mental exercise diminishes insensibly the powers of future application, and tends to abbreviate life; that no mental exercise should be attempted immediately after meals, as the processes of thought and of digestion cannot be safely prosecuted together; and that, without a due share of exercise to the whole of the mental faculties, there can be no soundness in any, while the whole corporeal system will give way beneath a severe pressure upon any one in particular. These are truths completely established with physiologists, and upon which it is undeniable that a great portion of human happiness depends.

Repose a Condition Demanded by Exercise.—Exercise demands occasional periods of repose, and, in particular, that a certain part of every twenty-four hours be spent in sleep. After having been engaged in daily occupations for fourteen or sixteen hours, a general feeling of fatigue and weakness is induced; the motions of the body become difficult, the senses confused, the power of volition or will suspended, and the rest of the mental faculties, becoming more and more inactive, sink at length into a state of unconsciousness. The sense of sight first ceases to act by the closing of the eyelids; then the senses of taste and smell become dormant; and then those of hearing and touch. The muscles, also, dispose themselves with a certain reference to ease of position, those of the limbs having grown indolent before those that support the head, and those that support the head before those of the trunk. In proportion as these phenomena proceed, the respiration becomes slower and more deep, the circulation diminishes in impetus, the blood proceeds in great quantity toward the head, and all the functions of the internal organs become retarded. In this state, shut out as it were from the external world, the mind still retains its wonted activity, deprived, however, of the guidance of judgment and the power of distinct recollection; in consequence of which, it does not perceive the monstrous incongruities of the imagery which sweeps before it, and takes but faint cognizance of the time which elapses.

It may be laid down as an axiom, that the more uninterrupted sleep is, the more refreshing and salutary will be its effects; for during this period, the body undoubtedly acquires an accession of nervous energy, which restlessness, however induced, must disturb; and therefore the state of the body before going to sleep, the kind of bed, and the manner of clothing, require especial attention. As the functions of the body are performed more slowly during our sleeping than our waking hours, a full meal or supper, taken immediately before going to bed, imposes a load on the stomach which it is not in a condition to digest, and the unpleasant consequence of oppressive and harassing dreams is almost certain to ensue. When the sleeper lies on his back, the heart pressing, while pulsating, on the lungs, gives rise to a sense of intolerable oppression on the chest, which seems to bear down upon the whole body, so that in this painful state not a muscle will obey the impulse of the will, and every effort to move appears to be altogether unavailing. This constitutes *incubus* or *nightmare;* and it may be observed, that, as acidity on the stomach, or indigestion, gives rise to such dreams, so all dreams of this disturbed character are converse indications of indigestion; for which reason the great physiologist Haller considered dreaming to be a symptom of disease.

The kind of bed on which we repose requires attention. Some are advocates for soft, others for hard beds; hence some accustom themselves to feather-beds, others to mattresses. The only difference between a soft and a hard bed is this—that the weight of the body in a soft bed presses on a larger surface than on a hard bed, and thereby a greater degree of comfort is enjoyed. Parents err in fancying that a very hard bed contributes to harden the constitution of their children; for which reason they lay them down on mattresses, or beds with boarded bottoms. A bed for young children cannot be too soft, provided the child does not sink into it in such a manner that the surrounding parts of the bed bend over and cover the body. The too great hardness of beds, says Dr. Darwin, frequently proves injurious to the shape of infants, by causing them to rest on too few parts at a time; it also causes their sleep to be uneasy and unrefreshing. Whatever be the time chosen for sleep, it is evident that no person can with impunity convert day into night. Eight o'clock for children, and eleven for adults, may be recommended as good hours for retiring to rest. It is well known that children require more sleep than adults; and more sleep is requisite in winter than in summer. The average duration of sleep which may be recommended for adults is *eight* hours; but much depends upon habit, and many persons require only six. It is scarcely necessary to observe, that, on rising in the morning, the strictest attention should be paid to washing the face, neck and hands; the mouth and teeth should also be well cleansed. The most simple powder for the teeth is finely brayed charcoal, a little of which will clear away all impurities, and preserve the teeth. On leaving the bedroom, the windows should be opened, and the clothes of the bed turned down, in order that the exhalations of the body during sleep may be dissipated. If, instead of this, the bed be made immediately after we have risen, these exhalations are again folded up with the clothes—a practice which is not consonant either with cleanliness or health.

TEMPERATURE.

The fifth important requisite for health is that the body be kept in a temperature suitable to it.

The degree of heat indicated by sixty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, or that of a temperate summer day, is what the human body finds it agreeable to be exposed to when in a state of inactivity.

There is no period of life at which warmth is of more consequence than in infancy. In a very young babe, the circulation is almost altogether confined to the surface, the internal organs being as yet in a very weak state. In such circumstances, to plunge the child into cold water, from an idea of making it hardy, as is customary in some countries, and among ignorant persons in our own, is the height of cruelty and folly; for the unavoidable consequence is, that the blood is thrown in upon the internal organs, and inflammation, bowel-complaints, croup, or convulsions, are very apt to ensue. A baby requires to be kept at a temperature above what is suitable to a grown person; it should be warmly, but not heavily clothed; the room where it is kept should be maintained at a good, but not oppressive heat; and it should never be put into other than tepid water. It should not be exposed to the open air for some days after its birth.

At all periods of life, it is most desirable to avoid exposure to very low temperatures, especially for any considerable length of time. To sit long in cold school-rooms, or work-rooms, with the whole body, and especially the feet, in a chilled condition, is very unfavorable to the health of young people.

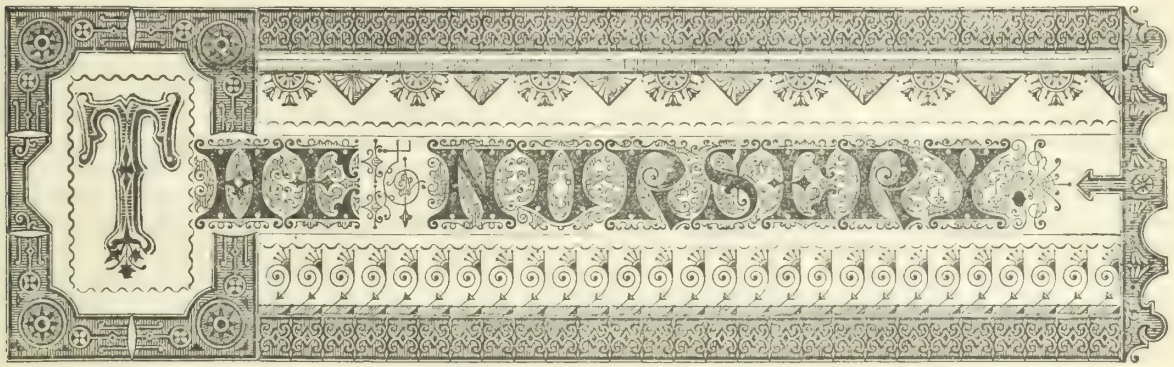
Clothing should be in proportion to the temperature of the climate and the season of the year; and where there are such abrupt transitions from heat to cold as in our country, it is not safe ever to go very thinly clad, as we may in that case be ex-

posed to a sudden chill before we can effect the proper change of dress. Very fatal effects often result to ladies from incautiously stepping out of heated rooms in the imperfect clothing which they ludicrously style *full-dress;* all such injuries might be avoided by putting on a sufficiency of shawls, and allowing themselves a little time in the lobby to cool. The underclothing in this country should be invariably of flannel, which is remarkably well calculated to preserve uniformity of temperature, as well as to produce a healthy irritation in the skin.

Wet clothes applied to any part of the body, when it is in an inactive state, have an instantaneous effect in reducing the temperature, this being an unavoidable effect of the process of evaporation which then takes place. Hence it is extremely dangerous to sit upon damp ground, or to remain at rest for a single minute with wetted feet, or any other part of the body invested in damp garments. Dampness in the house in which we live has the same effect, and is equally dangerous. The chill produced by the evaporation from the wetted surface checks the perspiration, and sends the blood inward to the vital parts, where it tends to produce inflammatory disease.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The fundamental principle of all efforts to improve and preserve health has been thus stated: "Man, as an organized being, is subject to organic laws, as much as the inanimate bodies which surround him are to laws mechanical and chemical; and we can as little escape the consequences of neglect or violation of those natural laws, which affect organic life through the air we breathe, the food we eat, and the exercise we take, as a stone projected from the hand, or a shot from the mouth of a cannon, can place itself beyond the bounds of gravitation." It may be added, that "all human science, all the arts of civilized man, consist of discoveries made by us of the laws impressed upon nature by the Author of the universe, and the applications of those laws to the conditions—which are laws also—in which man and the particular bodies and substances around him are placed; nor, it is manifest, should any science concern us more than that which relates to the conditions on which organic life is held by each individual."



IT is a well-known fact that some of the greatest blessings we enjoy are the least appreciated, and this may be truly said of light. We are so accustomed to it, that we fail to remember its importance, though did we but recollect that it is synonymous with life we could not fail to be sensible of the inestimable value of this essential of our being.

Deprived of its wholesome and enlivening stimulus children become pale and sickly in appearance, the blood is imperfectly oxygenated, and a proneness to disease or debility arises.

A dark, dull room, or one from which light is more or less excluded, should by all means be avoided, for it is injurious alike to the eyes, health and spirits of children. But necessary as light is (it is the natural food of the eye), it requires regulating according to the age. During early infancy the eyes should not be exposed to a concentrated or strong light; the sun's light should be softened by window blinds, and an infant ought never to be held too near a lamp or candle.

The best arguments in favor of the beneficial effects of light are found in the facts that nearly the whole of the vegetable kingdom will cease to flourish if deprived of it, and that those children brought up in the dreary dark slums of cities, although quite as well fed as those of an agricultural laborer, are invariably puny, sickly creatures, without a vestige of color in their cheeks.

The pernicious custom which obtains so much amongst the lower middle classes in the suburbs of living almost entirely in the basement breakfast-room cannot be too strongly condemned, where, as is invariably the case, it is dark. The room that is most in use should be "the best room," not on account of the amount of furniture it contains but owing to its being the lightest, and into this room the sun should be allowed to freely enter, all ideas of excluding it on account of the carpet being but false economy.

Notwithstanding, however, that a proper amount of light is necessary for a child when awake, equal care should be exercised in darkening the room when it (the child) is asleep, as too much light then will not merely prevent or interrupt sleep, but may act as a very injurious stimulus to the eyes and brain. It goes without saying that the nursery must, of course, have plenty of sunlight, and with this view should face the south, east or west, but there is another place about which great care should be taken—the school-room. There is no doubt that the influence of a sunless schoolroom is most baneful to a young mind, and the want of interest in their study often displayed by children might in many instances be traced to this cause.

BATHING.

Macbeth's maxim, "If it were done, when 'tis done, then 'twere well it were done quickly," is especially applicable to the bathing of children. There should be no nonsense about it. The object of bathing is not only for the purpose of cleanliness but as a means of invigorating the capillary circulation, and so fortifying the system as to enable it to resist atmospheric vicissitudes.

To do this, however, it is imperative that the child should not remain in the bath (presuming it is not warm) more than a minute or two, as when the body is immersed in water below ninety degrees there is a sensation of cold, a shrinking of the skin, and a rush of blood from the small capillary vessels of the surface to the internal vessels, which state of things should be speedily followed by a reaction by the heart and large vessels forcing the blood back again to the surface, and indeed to all the outlets; so that the skin glows and perhaps perspires, the secretory organs act more strongly, the liver and other organs show an increased activity, and there is a general feeling of liveliness and vigor.

But this will not be the case if there is any dawdling or delay, not only while in the water but during the process of rubbing and drying, which must be performed with the greatest briskness in order that the proper reaction, upon which the virtue of the bath depends, should take place; otherwise the child will get a chill, which will, in addition to nullifying the good, do it absolute harm.

Up to the age of three months infants should in all weathers be bathed in warm water, but after that age at the warm seasons and during Summer cold may be used, provided the child be strong enough, and is not frightened, but if the experiment is attended with convulsive screaming and great distress, discontinue it and substitute a warmer temperature In washing a very young child the head should always be the first part damped, and a flannel is preferable for that purpose rather than a sponge.

With regard to all children there are not two opinions on the subject of a daily bath given immediately on rising being

beneficial, in fact it is a *sine qua non* of perfect health, provided, of course, the child is not too delicate, and for the elder ones a large sponge is a necessity, as by its use a much larger quantity of oxygen can be introduced into the skin than by any other means.

The addition of sea-salt is a most desirable adjunct, especially when the hips are weak, but even when in good health its occasional use will add greatly to the tonic properties of the bath. It should be added in such quantity to a bath that the mineral ingredient is equal to that contained in salt water; it will be far more efficacious than a simple fresh water bath, as it combines the advantages of temperature with the stimulating action of the salt upon the skin.

The advantages of such a bath taken at the time mentioned are twofold. It inures the body to a greater degree of cold than it is likely to be exposed to during the rest of the day, and so proves most serviceable in protecting it from atmospheric influences; and it tends to remove irregularities in the circulation, and, by exciting the healthy action of the skin, may aid that organ in removing disease.

All, however, are not strong enough to stand the shock to the system, and not only those who are extremely weak, or who have any organic disease, especially the heart or lungs, but there may be some idiosyncrasy or condition of the constitution peculiar to the individual which would render it impossible. The invariable test is that if after a bath the child remains chilly, languid and dejected, or suffers from headache, then it is not beneficial, but if the sense of cold rapidly passes off and a glow of warmth and animation of spirits succeeds and continues for some time, the cold bath cannot fail to be productive of good.

SLEEP.

Although much has been written, and rightly so, on the subject of laziness, there is as much, if not more, to be said on the necessity of enough sleep, for it is as great a necessity as eating and drinking.

Infants sleep almost continually, and (in this we know most mothers will heartily concur) they cannot sleep too much, owing to the necessity for providing the materials for growth. When they are unable to sleep for any length of time their condition is unnatural, and shows us that they are suffering in some way or other, the cause of which should be ascertained and removed; but not by the use of sirups, elixirs, etc. which, though they produce slumber, do not produce sleep.

For young children from twelve to fourteen hours' sleep is necessary, and this must be regular, the proper time for bed during the Winter months being about six o'clock, and in the Summer months about seven.

A proper desire for sleep is only obtained by a due amount of exercise, both mental and physical, which must not have continued sufficiently long to produce prostration. Exercise in moderation is most necessary before going to bed, but anything of a violent nature, like romping, should be avoided for at least half an hour before.

With regard to the hour at which children and others should rise, that must be determined by the time of their waking, and in order to wake at a proper time all that is necessary is that you go to bed at some regular early hour, and then, says an authority, "within a fortnight nature, with almost the regularity of the rising sun, will unloosen the bonds of sleep the moment enough repose has been secured for the wants of the system." To remain in bed after this, to indulge in that short morning doze into which so many allow themselves to fall because it is not, they think, quite time to get up, is a baneful practice.

Care should also be taken with regard to the quantity of bed-clothes indulged in, too much clothing having the effect of relaxing the body, and it is right therefore to have only sufficient to enable the individual to sleep, for it is better to wake with an inclination to draw the clothes round you than to feel oppressed by their weight and heat and a desire to throw them off.

With regard to the proper position of a sleeper all are agreed that it should be on the right or left side, because if you sleep on your back, especially soon after a hearty meal, the weight of the digestive organs and that of the food, resting upon the great vein of the body, near the backbone, compresses it, and arrests the flow of the blood more or less. If the arrest is partial, the sleep is disturbed, and there are unpleasant dreams, a state of things carefully to be avoided when we remember that "the man who dreams does but half sleep. The child who dreams scarcely sleeps at all."

Too much attention cannot be paid to the proper ventilation of sleeping-rooms. In too many cases this important subject is entirely neglected. The sleeper retires to rest in an apartment from which every effort has been made to exclude the outer air—until it seems almost hermetically sealed—and rises with a dull headache and a feverish, unrefreshed sensation to go about the duties of the day.

ON CATCHING COLD.

It is a very common, but a very great, mistake to attach little importance to catching cold. How frequently we hear the remark in reference to some one being indisposed, "Oh, it's nothing; only a severe cold." Considering that in adults severe cold is the cause of one-half "the ills that flesh is heir to," it will readily be understood that colds with children are of the greatest consequence, for, in the language of one whose revered name is the synonym for nursing, "It is as easy to put out a sick baby's life as it is to put out the flame of a candle."

The most common kind of cold is that in the head, professionally described as *catarrh*, which consists of inflammation of the mucous membrane of the air passages, and is ordinarily caused by the child having been exposed to a draught, having got its clothes wet and not been able to have them changed, or by not being sufficiently warmly clad when the body is getting cool after being heated. The latter is the most to be feared, as in this condition the body is incapable, from exhaustion, of reaction, and the exposure intensifies the depression.

Wet clothing does not frequently produce "a cold" if the child is walking or running about, and is able to get the things changed when the active exercise ceases, and avoids all exposure for some little time; but where exertion has been indulged in, and the body is in a state of perspiration, then, if the child receives a chill from wet feet or any other cause and

does not continue its play or its active exercise, *catarrh* is almost inevitable.

When it is remembered that a neglected cold sometimes produces bronchitis, pneumonia, quinsy, rheumatism, erysipelas, toothache, neuralgia, inflammatory fever, consumption, etc., it is scarcely possible to impress upon mothers too strongly the great necessity for extreme care in this matter; and as prevention should be much more easy when the cause of a complaint is understood, I propose to try and explain in as simple language as possible the why and wherefore.

The action of cold is to partially close the pores of the skin, check the natural perspiration by constricting and obstructing the vessels of the skin, and so throw more blood inwardly, producing internal congestions; for the outer skin being incapable of performing its functions, and perspiration being an absolute necessity, the inner skin, or mucous membrane, has to do the work, and hence the inflammation.

The effect of cold is felt in a greater or less degree according to the capillary circulation. If this be weak, or be rendered so by excitement, exercise, or by sleep, the danger is increased; consequently children—and any one else, for matter of that—are most susceptible to cold when coming out of a hot room, after being unduly heated by running, or when sleeping.

From this it will be understood that the chilling influences enumerated derange the balance of the circulation, and by determining a corresponding amount of congestion inwardly, fix it in some part previously weakened and made susceptible to disease; or, in still plainer language, the cold flies to the weakest part, which accounts for one person getting rheumatism, another congestion of the lungs, a third a sore throat, and a fourth, perhaps, merely a cold in the head or chest.

To cure a cold is to restore the action of the skin and induce perspiration, and this, if done at the proper time, when the symptoms are first observed, is exceedingly simple. People may sneer as they will at the mention of the word gruel, but a basin-full of hot gruel, made thin, and taken when in bed, will invariably arrest an ordinary catarrh. If the chill be severe, the child's feet should be placed in warm water, a little extra clothing be placed on the bed, and the patient allowed to lie in bed a little longer than usual the next morning; but the apartment must not be too warm or close, or the additional clothing be too great, as, though the cure may be accelerated thereby, the susceptibility is increased, and the child rendered more liable to a recurrence of the attack.

To those who will not believe in anything old-fashioned or simple, the plan of a "wet sheet pack" will be found equally efficacious. This is managed by spreading three blankets on the bed and putting on the top a sheet, which has been saturated in hot water and wrung out. The child is then placed upon the sheet, enveloped in it, and the blankets wrapped tightly round the whole body excepting the head, and allowed to remain in this situation for about an hour, when a quick sponging of cold water should be given, followed by a brisk and thorough rubbing with dry towels.

Another remedy believed in by many of our medical brethren is the "dry" plan, which, at any rate, has the merit of simplicity, for it consists in merely abstaining from every kind of liquid until the disorder is gone.

Although opinions may differ, however, as to the precise method of cure, and any of those given will be found equally efficient, there is no difference of opinion as to the cause and prevention. The too frequent cause is simply the result of carelessness or imprudence in not protecting the body against the variation of temperature, an insufficient use of cold or warm water to the body, or, plainly, uncleanliness, sleeping under too much clothing, or by sleeping in badly-ventilated rooms; but the first mentioned, the passing from a hot room out into the open air, or into a room where the temperature is less, without being suitably attired, is the most frequent and the most to be guarded against with children.

The prevention of cold is best achieved by diminishing the susceptibility of the system by abstemious living, taking regular and daily exercise in the open air, and a morning bath of cold water if the child be strong enough, and if not, a tepid one; but the best prevention and cure for colds is "the cold water cure."

TEETHING

is one of the most distressing of the ordinary ailments of children, for it comes to them at an age when they are incapable of making the nature of their sufferings known, and as they do suffer most acutely sometimes during the process of dentition, it is very trying to mothers and nurses to have to witness their torture and be unable to alleviate it because the poor little mites cannot explain their symptoms.

Being one of the very common ills that flesh is heir to, it is a time frequently regarded by some as more troublesome than important—a great mistake, to prevent which a simple statement showing the action of one of the phases of the disease may be advisable. The chief disorders of the first set of teeth are caries and inflammation in the periosteal membranes, terminating in abcess, or what is commonly called *gumboil*. The first effect of inflammation in the periosteum is to create pain, tenderness and swelling in that part of the gum in close proximity to the tooth, and an effusion of fluid between the fang and its investing membrane, which is thus converted into a sort of cyst or tiny sack of skin. Repeated attacks of inflammation at length end in the formation of pus, which either bursts through the tumor in the gum or may be removed by lancing. Sometimes after the abscess has burst or been opened, a fungus springs up from the diseased membrane lining the cavity. With some children the presence of the abscess having produced absorption of a portion of the alveolar process at its lower part, it effuses its contents through the aperture thus formed, and matter forces itself along the surface of the lower jaw, and forms an external tumor near its base.

With regard to the process of dentition in actual infants, the time at which it takes place is naturally subject to slight variation, when it is stated that many medical men give instances in their experience of children being born with teeth, or having cut them almost immediately after birth—Louis XIV., of France, and Richard III., of England, being historic cases in point; the usual time, however, when babies begin to be troubled with the advent of teeth is at the seventh

month, the period of the first dentition lasting up to the age of two years or two and a half years.

The symptoms of teething in a healthy child are that for some time before the gums are much swollen, there is an excessive flow of saliva from the mouth, and the child indulges in what is known to most as "dribbling," at the same time evincing a very strong desire to drag anything upon which it can fix its tiny little clutch into its mouth, while, if we place our finger into its mouth we perceive at once a decided attempt to bite, which affords a relief to the irritation of the gums. Where the child is inconvenienced only to the extent described there is no remedy required provided there is no constipation, but where this is the case small doses of castor oil are the safest. As to the article it should be given to suck, I personally prefer an ivory ring or a "finger" of crust of bread, great care being observed in the latter case that it is taken away before there is a possibility of its being broken or bitten off.

When the child is extremely restless, cross and uneasy, crying bitterly without any apparent cause, and refuses all ordinary attempts at pacification, its suffering is very considerable, which is increased by its ineffectual efforts to sleep for any length of time. The cheeks become flushed at this time, and if the local inflammation continue to increase the gums may ulcerate; in this case apply a little borax and honey to them, but where the irritation continues and the pain is obviously great it will be necessary to lance the gums, for which purpose it is almost unnecessary to add the services of a surgeon should be secured at once. At this time it is more than ever necessary to keep the bowels well open, a mild attack of diarrhea being far more preferable under the existing circumstances than the reverse state of things.

All food requires to be carefully chewed in order that the various organs may perfectly perform their proper functions, and this can only be the case when the meat, or whatever it may be, is broken into minute portions and duly mixed with saliva, without which it will not be properly digested. The horrors and evils of indigestion are too well known to need commenting upon here, but the necessity for a due attention to the mastication of food by children will be seen when it is stated that a weak stomach acts tardily and imperfectly upon anything introduced into it not properly chewed; and the consequences are, the warmth and moisture of the stomach evolve gases, acids are formed, and then follow those distressing symptoms such as loss of appetite, flatulence, furred tongue, etc.

The period of "teething" is more than interesting, from the fact that, at this stage of child-life, the whole organization seems to undergo a transition. The features, hitherto more or less expressionless, become decided and distinct; the eye becomes endued with expression, through which the mind seems to speak, as it were; the round appearance of the facial outline appears elongated, the result of the teeth expanding the jaws; the forehead is perceptibly developed, and, in short, the entire face assumes an animation previously unknown, but most precious to mothers, on account of its being the ordinary time when "baby is beginning to notice."

The order in which teeth usually make their appearance is, first, the two central incisors of the lower jaw appear; then shortly after those of the upper jaw, followed by the lower lateral incisors, and then by the upper lateral incisors. At the age of a year or fourteen months the four first molar teeth should begin to show, and at the sixteenth to the twentieth month the lower and upper canine teeth, followed by the four last molars.

Although the suffering of infants from the process of dentition arises mainly from irritation of the gums, owing to the teeth working their way through, it is not in the mouth alone that pain is caused; and where this is excessive, or in children whose constitutions are naturally irritable, the irritation is reflected by the nervous system to some other organ or system of organs.

The most ordinary effect of this is stomach-ache, or diarrhea, with griping pain, which, if in a mild form, is the least to be feared of all the unpleasantnesses arising from teething; and though its violence may be moderated, it should not be entirely arrested. Under these circumstances, a child soon gets weak and thin, and its flesh soft and flabby; but, generally speaking, this need not (except, of course, in an extreme case) be viewed with alarm; for, as soon as the teeth are through, nature soon rights itself, and the little one will resume its wonted good looks. When, however, the symptoms are very distressing, by the quantity and frequency of the discharge, a chalk mixture, with a drop or two of laudanum to the ounce, according to the age of the child, may be given, in the event of a medical man not being procurable. Where there is a great pain and flatulence, an occasional warm bath, and the use of liniment, composed of half a drachm of laudanum to two ounces of compound camphor liniment, or a mustard or linseed-meal poultice, composed of one-third of the former to two-thirds of the latter. When the foregoing symptoms are accompanied by vomiting, it is exceedingly troublesome, and, if the sickness is not relieved by the division of the gums, it should be checked by administering a half-drop or a drop of laudanum.

Besides the maladies mentioned that are the outcome of teething, there are many others, such as eruptions of the skin, spasm of the glottis, and affections of the nervous system generally, of too complicated a nature to treat in this article, as the remedies necessitated are as complex as the diseases; but there is one serious disorder connected with dentition unfortunately too common. I allude to convulsions, the treatment of which should be known to all.

Convulsions in their mild form consist of muscular twitchings of the face, accompanied by an obvious difficulty in breathing and a rolling of the eyes. When severe, the child becomes insensible, and the muscles of the head, neck, and extremities are convulsed in various directions. The eyes are insensible to light, and turned rigidly up to one side. The appearance and symptoms vary, of course, for, in addition to those named, with some children the face is congested, but sometimes pale, the lips livid, and there is frothing at the mouth. The hands are usually tightly clinched, and the thumbs turned inward, with the fingers on them, and in some cases the soles of the feet are turned together, with the great toe bent into the sole.

The treatment for convulsions is, as a rule, a warm bath, and, in the absence of a doctor, the best thing to be done is to immerse the child in warm water of about ninety degrees temperature for about ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, applying at the same time a cold, wet towel for two or three minutes to the little sufferer's head. Previous to the bath, which will take a few minutes at least to get ready, loosen all the clothing about the neck, chest and body, raise the head, sprinkle the face with water, and admit plenty of fresh air.

With regard to the general treatment of children during teething, their heads should be kept cool and their feet warm, and, if the weather will admit, they should be bathed in cold water, especially about the head, and taken out daily in the open air. At night it is equally essential that their heads be kept cool, and therefore no caps or coverings should be used.

As before stated, diarrhea during dentition, unless very severe, should not be stopped, but regarded as an effort of nature to relieve congestion to the head ; and where the opposite effect is the case, purgatives should be avoided, and the bowels regulated by suitable diet ; in obstinate cases by injections. Constipation in infants may be almost entirely attributed to defective diet, and if, while nursing, mothers and nurses would carefully avoid any article of food or drink of an indigestible or stimulating character, this ailment would be comparatively unknown.

HOOPING-COUGH.

This disease, almost absolutely confined to infants and children, is, luckily for them, more distressing in its symptoms than dangerous in its effects, a case of hooping-cough, *pur et simple*, being rarely fatal. Like croup, it is more common with very young children, the usual age when they are more subject to it being from two to ten years ; but, unlike croup, it is more common to girls than to boys, and appears but once in a lifetime, though cases have been known where the cough continued daily at a certain hour for several months, and, after ceasing for some time, returned for two successive seasons.

The symptoms which usually precede this malady are those of ordinary influenza. First and foremost there is a languor, restlessness, feverishness and unaccountable irritation, except that the little one is thought "to have caught a slight cold," then loss of appetite, sneezing, coughing, follows, with a running at the nose ; this is in the case of an ordinary and not severe attack. Where the disease is in an aggravated form the fever is more intense, the thirst greater, the pulse quicker, and the oppression and distress in proportion, the cough very frequent and painful, dry at first, but with excessive expectoration afterward. This may be called the first stage of the disease, and is the customary prelude to hooping, but it is perfectly possible to dispense with these preliminaries, and for a child to be suddenly seized with the too well-known cough. These symptoms ordinarily continue from ten days to a fortnight.

The second stage is marked by the dying-out of the symptoms of cold and the commencement of the fits of coughing, which are best described as a number of expirations made with such violence, and repeated in such quick succession, that the child seems almost in danger of suffocation. The face and neck are swollen and livid, the eyes protruded and full of tears ; at length, one or two inspirations are made with similar violence, and by them the peculiar hooping sound is produced ; a little rest probably follows, and is succeeded by another fit of coughing, and another hoop, until after a succession of these actions, the paroxysm is terminated by vomiting, or a discharge of mucus from the lungs, or perhaps both. The duration of this stage is usually from six weeks to a couple of months, but sometimes continues for a much longer period, the disease, in some cases, lasting from the beginning of Winter until the end of Spring.

The debilitating results of the disease depend to a great extent upon the violence and duration of the attack, and the strength or weakness of the constitution, but as a rule, if there are no complications, these are of no great moment. The frequent vomiting decreases the appetite, and disturbs digestion, which interferes with nutrition, and the child naturally loses flesh, which is more or less flabby, and the skin is unusually dark, especially underneath the eyes.

The subsiding of the attack is marked by the fits of coughing becoming less frequent, though possibly they may be as fierce as ever, the paroxysms lasting from a minute to a quarter of an hour. In proportion to their violence and duration will be the child's breathlessness and fright and its efforts to respire. If in a recumbent position it will suddenly jump up and seize hold of whatever or whoever is nearest, in order to be assisted in overcoming the spasm. When the fit is over the child appears exhausted, and requires a short rest to recover itself ; but then and during the interval to the next cough, it is comparatively easy and cheerful, often playing about as usual, and not averse to food, except where the case is a severe one, when extreme languor supervenes.

The period at which these paroxysms recur varies considerably ; during the early part of the attack they are very frequent—about every half-hour, and in some extremely severe cases as often as every ten minutes—the chief cause of their return being the accumulation of mucus. Consequently, if this be got rid of by the coughing, the fit will be light ; but if it is expelled with difficulty the efforts will be greater, and the cough renewed almost immediately. These fits are produced by many things—a hearty meal, a fit of passion, crying, fright or laughter, will either of them be sufficient to bring on an attack.

Although we have stated that this disease is rarely attended with fatal results, it must be distinctly understood that this statement applies to hooping-cough *per se ;* it is perfectly correct, but for fear any one should not be sufficiently careful, it is a disorder which, if improperly treated, or if the case be one of an extremely acute character, may lead to something of a complicated and highly dangerous nature.

It is a complaint which lends itself a great deal more to careful nursing than to an elaborate course of medicine, for it will run its course, and requires guiding and watching more than checking, great care being necessary to note the symptoms, lest they assume a conspicuous or alarming character, and by appropriate treatment prevent the affection having those complications alluded to which constitute it a disease

of danger. On the slightest appearance either of inflammatory affection of the lungs or of a tendency to convulsion a medical man should be sent for immediately.

During the first stage an emetic of ipecacuanha, followed by an expectorant every four hours, should be given, the latter consisting of ipecacuanha wine, sirup of squills, a little sirup of white poppies and almond milk, and some mild aperient, such as castor oil or salts and senna, the emetic only to be repeated occasionally. The rooms to which the child should be confined should be of an equable temperature, about sixty-five degrees, the bedroom being ventilated during the day and the sitting-room during the night; but the windows of the apartment must on no account be opened while the patient is in them.

When the second stage arrives, while proper attention is paid to temperature, the cough will be found much slighter and the expectoration much less than if the child were permitted to be exposed to the external air, the emetic being continued occasionally, and also the mixture, with a few drops of laudanum added to it.

With regard to change of air, there is no doubt that while the attack is unsubdued, no matter what the weather may be, the patient should be confined not only to the house but to rooms, as already stated, but when the disease is on the wane the change from a cold situation to one of warm temperature is most beneficial in accelerating a return to convalescence, though the greatest caution is needed in this matter.

The diet of the child during the entire illness is a most important feature in connection with the treatment, and should consist chiefly of milk and farinaceous foods, meat being of too heating a nature, unless the child is very weak and low, in which case tolerably good broth will be the best mode of giving animal food.

VACCINATION.

Unfortunately that dangerous and much dreaded malady—smallpox—is prevalent, and it would be well for parents and others to be reminded of the necessity of revaccination every seven years.

It is astonishing that though this discovery is undoubtedly one of the very greatest blessings to poor humanity it should now be thought so little of, and that there should be some who actually decry and refuse to accept it as such, when there is no doubt that if every one had followed the instructions as to revaccination, by this time smallpox would have ceased altogether.

No language can be too strong to depict the horrors of this disease, or to denounce the culpable ignorance of those who, blinding themselves to the blessings of vaccination, set the law at defiance and thus endanger the lives of their fellow-creatures. Supposing it could be proved (which it cannot) that in some cases it has been the means of imparting disease, the overwhelming number of cases where it has not, but has been a preventive of this terrible malady, ought to show its necessity on the beneficent principle of studying the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

To children smallpox has ever been distressingly fatal, and though it is impossible to give any course of treatment for its cure in an article of this character, as so much depends upon the violence of the case, the state of the patient's constitution, and the stage of the complaint, it may be said that the old practice of close, hot rooms, warm clothing, and hot drinks are proved mistakes; cool, well-ventilated apartments, comfortably cool bedclothes and cooling drinks having been found to be not only more pleasant but more successful in their results. When the disease first makes its appearance, if the fever be moderate and no professional advice be procurable, the patient should be confined to bed, and cool drinks and a dose or two of purgative medicine administered.

FEVERS.

Measles.—An acute specific disease—febrile and infectious, ushered in with catarrhal symptoms and characterized by an eruption on the skin, which appears usually on the fourth day.

Usual Symptoms.—After a period of incubation varying from twelve to fourteen days (the period of incubation in cases produced by inoculation is seven days), there is manifested alternate chilliness and heat, a quickened pulse, aching in the limbs, slight headache, soon followed by redness of the eyes, coryza, huskiness and hoarse cough. On the fourth day there is an eruption of soft, circular, very slightly elevated dusky red spots, which appear first on the forehead, and extend over the face, neck and whole body. The spots gradually coalesce and present a peculiar crescentic or horseshoe shape. The spots disappear on pressure. They attain their greatest intensity on the fourth day from their invasion, and by the seventh day they fade away with a slight desquamation of the cuticle. As a rule the fever does not abate on the appearance of the eruption.

The contagion of measles is active during the prodromic stage. Red spots are visible on the velum palati four, five, or six days before the eruption appears on the skin.

Occasional Symptoms.—There may be no prodromata whatever, or the attack may be ushered in with convulsions (especially in children), or there may be delirium, or there may be a great amount of fever, or there may be and often is sore throat; more rarely severe headache, and sometimes absence of the coryza.

The eruption may be scanty, or most abundant and confluent, but the quantity of the eruption *per se* does not affect the gravity of the attack; the color of the eruption may be dark, constituting so called "black measles"; there may be petechiæ, which do not fade on pressure and resemble purpura; these do not *per se* affect the prognosis. Miliary vesicles are often present, and when abundant the amount of desquamation will be greater.

Average Mortality.—One in fifteen.

Prognosis.—If uncomplicated, favorable. Unfavorable signs are great fever, great dyspnœa, sudden vanishing of the rash, together with an access of delirium; brown dry tongue, with special severity of some two or three symptoms; petechiæ, with a typhoid form of fever. Capillary bronchitis and pneumonia are the most frequent proximate causes of death.

Treatment.—The child must be kept in bed in a large, well-ventilated room, free from drafts—a point of vital importance, looking to the frequency and danger of chest complications. The diet must be low. Tepid drinks may be freely given. It is very important in measles, as in all infectious fevers, to remove all discharge and soiled linen instantly; the motions should be passed into vessels containing chloride of lime, carbolic acid, or Condy's fluid; this with ventilation will go far to prevent infection. There is no objection, if it be grateful to the patient, to have the body gently sponged with warm water; and if itching be much complained of, inunction with unsalted lard is useful. Cough is often the first troublesome symptom which requires special treatment. A mixture containing citrate of potash and ipecacuanha wine with a few drops of nepenthe or Tinct. Camph. Co., will usually quiet this. If the fever runs high, the weak mineral acids sweetened and largely diluted will be very grateful. Or a mixture of citrate of potash and Rochelle salt may be given in an effervescing form. If the fever be of low type, with brown tongue and failing powers, large doses of chlorate of potash will be useful, and stimulants will be required. Yelk of egg beaten up with wine is excellent in such cases. Purgatives, as a rule, are not required; if employed they should be mere laxatives, remembering the diarrhea which usually sets in toward the close of the disease. In cases attended with much nervous excitability and convulsions or delirium, bromide of potassium in full doses will be useful. This drug will also procure sleep, and is better for the purpose than any opiate. Sudden recession of the rash attended with an onset of delirium should be met by plunging the child into a bath containing mustard, and leaving it in until the surface becomes red, which usually occurs in a few minutes. The child should then be rolled in a blanket, and the strength supported by nutritious diet, and stimulants are needed. For laryngitis, a sponge wrung out of very hot water should be applied over the larynx, and inhalation of steam encouraged. Pneumonia will call for a stimulating embrocation over its site, and the administration of stimulants, expectorants—carbonate of ammonia with senega is the best.

Lung and indeed all complications occurring during the early stages are best treated by endeavoring, with external stimulants, *e.g.*, the mustard bath, and internal gentle diaphoretics, to get the rash thrown out freely. Later on this is, of course, inadmissible, and the strength must be supported in every way.

As the disease declines the diet may be more solid, and tonics will be of service. Convalescence from measles is often slow, and as discharges from the ears, eyes, and nose are not uncommon, sea-air is very beneficial in re-establishing the health. Such discharges will require astringent lotions and the use of cod-liver oil and steel.

SCARLATINA.

An acute specific disease—febrile, contagious, and infectious, and accompanied by a peculiar eruption of the skin. After a period of incubation varying according to different authors at from four to forty days, and probably averaging from four to six days, there appears in children vomiting; in older persons sore throat, and the onset is usually sudden. It is common for adults to be able to fix the hour in which the sore throat began. In children severe vomiting often prognosticates severe throat affection. Next there is noticed fever, a frequent pulse, commonly 130—170, a flushed face, a high temperature (103 or 104 degrees F., even on the first day), hurried breathing, furred tongue, hot skin and thirst. At the same time there is lassitude and restlessness, headache, and at night delirium. On the second day, usually about the root of the neck and upper part of the chest, appears the eruption, which is a scarlet efflorescence consisting of innumerable red spots at first separated by natural skin, but soon coalescing and producing a general redness; the skin is rendered pale by pressure, but the redness immediately returns—the rash is not elevated to the touch. It is most abundant about the hips and loins, and the flexures of the joints—in fact where the papillæ of the skin are largest. The eruption reaches its maximum intensity on the third or fourth day; by the fifth it has begun to fade, and by the eighth it disappears. It goes off in an order corresponding with its invasion. Miliaria are often present, perhaps more commonly in adults than in children; they in nowise affect the prognosis. The sore throat is very important, especially in children. A child may die from throat disease without any complaint about its throat having been made. The throat should therefore always be carefully examined. The tonsils will usually be found enlarged and inflamed, and often coated with a thick white tenacious mucus.

CROUP.

This disease is characterized by difficulty of breathing; hoarseness; a ringing cough, which, when once heard, will be distinctly remembered; the cough is followed by a "*crowing* inspiration."

There is inflammatory fever; frequent and hard pulse; thirst.

The attack is most liable to come on in the night—either altogether unexpected, or preceded by a cold, sore throat, or catarrh.

Treatment.—Apply to the throat very cold wet cloths well covered with dry. Keep the child in bed. Rub with the dry hand the back and limbs, and continue this until a hot bath is made ready; renewing the cold cloths to the throat every few moments. When the room is made very warm and the bath at hand, place the child in the hot water, as hot as can be borne, and rub the chest and abdomen and the whole body very briskly. Add more hot water, and keep the body (even to the neck) immersed.

Have a dry hot sheet ready in which to wrap and rub dry the little patient. If fever is high, now put on the abdominal bandage wrung from warm water. Cover well with dry flannel—a small blanket or even a good-sized one is none too much. Apply again the cold wet cloth to the throat. Keep the feet warm; and, if the breathing is not easier now, foment the throat and upper part of the chest for twenty minutes alternately with the cold compress.

Pat and rub the back and chest. Manipulate the arms and legs. Give drinks of hot water and of cold. Follow the symptoms with "all diligence." Do not relax effort until the

breathing is liberated. If the bowels are not free, give full warm enema.

If there is tendency to coldness of extremities, give hot foot bath occasionally; also apply dry flannels heated very hot to the throat, if they seem more agreeable than the hot fomentation.

Keep the patient in a warm, well-ventilated room. Give only baked apple, or toast water, or gruel as food, until the symptoms yield positively.

I have been told by my patrons that it often occurs in their domestic practice with children, that, by the time the patient is rubbed with the dry hand, having the cold compress on the throat until the hot bath is made ready, there is no need of the bath; the breathing is relieved. But it is not always so. I have treated cases of what is called "membranous croup," and it lasted persistently for days. I never lost a case of croup. But it is a dreaded disease, and justly so.

MUMPS (PAROTITIS).

This disease often prevails epidemically.

It usually affects children and young persons, and is contagious.

The parotid gland swells; swelling beneath the ear, the chin, and all around the neck, deforming the countenance curiously.

It affects one side only sometimes, but usually both.

The swelling is hot, tender, and painful; the lower jaw can scarcely be moved. In about four days the disease begins to decline, and usually lasts in all about ten days.

Sometimes the swelling suddenly becomes transferred to the mammæ in the female and to the testicle in the male, and may oscillate between the throat and the mammæ or testicle. Metastasis to the brain is known to take place also, but this is rare.

Treatment.—Very little treatment is necessary. Apply warm cloths to the swelling; let them be kept on constantly.

If there is general feverishness, a tepid sponge bath and enema of tepid water. A little gruel or bran tea as food.

Keep the patient comfortably warm and quiet. If metastasis to the parts named occur, a warm sitz bath or fomentation to the affected region will give relief. Keep the feet warm.

Should the brain become affected, give *very hot* sitz and foot bath ten minutes. Follow this with enema of hot water. Apply cool cloths to the head, or, if more agreeable to the patient, warm spongings. Let the patient be kept in bed and seek to induce perspiration by applying bottles of hot water to the back and feet and drinking of hot water

In fact, the treatment now should be the same as for inflammation of the brain.

DIPHTHERIA.

In this to be dreaded and terrible disease, a false membrane forms in the throat, and if the larynx becomes affected the chances of recovery are very few indeed. Frequent vomiting, diarrhea, hemorrhage from the nostrils or elsewhere, frequency and fullness of the pulse, convulsions, delirium, and coma, are symptoms which denote great danger. Occasionally the muscles of both the upper and lower limbs are affected. The chief objects in the treatment are to palliate symptoms, and support the powers of life by the judicious employment of tonic remedies, conjoined with alimentation and alcholic stimulants. The latter are given in large quantities. The best advice to give to mothers in regard to diphtheria is, *send instantly for the doctor.* Do not delay one moment!

ACCIDENTS.

It is an accepted axiom that accidents will happen, no matter how well regulated the household; and though much has been written with a view to avert the more serious calamities supposed to be the outcome of accident, but which are invariably the result of carelessness, children still manage to burn themselves at fires, to scald themselves with hot water, to cut their fingers, to break their heads, etc.

As a rule, the remedies required to be of any service should be applied at once; and it is, therefore, no earthly use suggesting antidotes or appliances only to be met with in a doctor's surgery. I shall, therefore, in the few suggestions I make, more particularly dwell upon those simple remedies which may reasonably be expected to be found in every home.

In the Summer months, when the weather is seasonable, the heat is oftentimes sufficient to cause children to bleed at the nose. In such cases, if the bleeding be not excessive or too frequent, it is not desirable to stop it, as, when caused by an undue fullness of the blood-vessels of the head, it affords great relief. When, however, the bleeding is the result of a knock or blow, cold applications should be applied to the nose or forehead, and the child kept standing in the open air.

Another excellent way of arresting the bleeding is to cause the arms to be raised above the head, and kept so for a few minutes, which will usually have the desired effect. In the event of these remedies proving ineffectual, and it being evident that the bleeding is dangerous, the nostrils must be plugged with pieces of linen rag made into stoppers of oval shape, about one inch in the long diameter and half an inch in the transverse, sufficient linen being left hanging in order to withdraw them when necessary. The great thing to determine in cases where the bleeding is not the result of accident is whether it be a disease, or Nature's mode of assisting the removal of one; and this, of course, can only be arrived at by a knowledge of the child's state of health at the time.

CUTS.

With regard to the bleeding caused by a cut from a knife, or something similarly sharp, if it be only slight, after being bathed with cold water, the edges or sides of the wound should be brought together and bound with narrow strips of arnica plaster, if this is to be had; but if not, a simple band of linen, smeared with the white of an egg, will be the best substitute. If the band becomes tight, and causes pain owing to the swelling, don't remove the bandage, but insert the blade of a pair of scissors underneath the binding on the opposite side to the wound, and cut the linen across. Where it is necessary to remove the strapping on account of there being pain and throbbing, the part affected should be soaked in warm water, and a soft, warm poultice applied. When the wound does not show signs of inflammation, and the discharge is good, that

is to say, resembling cream in consistence and custard in color, the bandage may be put on again ; but when the edges are inflamed, or pale and flabby, and the discharge thin and objectionable in its odor, a single strap of adhesive plaster should be used to keep the edges together, and this should be covered with a warm poultice.

When a mishap of this kind occurs, it is either a vein or an artery that is cut. In the former case the blood is dark-colored, and will flow in a steady stream, which can usually be stopped by the application of cold water or ice, and by exposing the wound to the open air. In the latter the blood is bright-red, and flows in jets, when, if the bleeding is excessive, a strong bandage should be tied around the limb, just above the wound, and between it and the heart, and compressed sufficiently tight (by means of a stick inserted underneath and twisted) until the circulation be stopped.

When the wound is not a clean cut, and there is any foreign substance, such as dirt, hair, etc., it must be carefully removed by sponging with cold water.

BURNS.

Accidents caused by burning demand immediate attention, and can only be cured in one way—by excluding the air from the part affected. Where it is a case of the clothes having caught fire, envelop the child in the heavest article available, such as a blanket, tablecloth, curtain, etc., and roll it over and over on the ground until the flames are extinguished, in the event of there not being sufficient water at hand for that purpose.

This done, the charred garments should be quickly but most gently removed, and cut away, instead of being torn, from the body, in order that the damaged skin should not be unnecessarily irritated ; but where a piece of the underlinen happens to be burnt into the wound, or is not easily detached, cut away all round it, and leave it to come away afterward. Then immediately cover the injured surface with something that will exclude the air, either with flour sprinkled thickly over the wound, with cotton-wool steeped in oil, or with a piece of linen on which is spread a layer of soap about the sixteenth of an inch thick. When procurable, a better remedy than either of those mentioned is to apply strips of lint saturated in carron oil, which dressing should be left on as long as possible until they become loosened or objectionable from the discharges, it being most desirable that these bandages be changed as seldom as possible, as their removal is apt to cause detachment of portions of the new skin, which is most painful and undesirable. Where there is much discharge it must be removed, and the place kept as clean as possible.

When the injury is of an extensive character, and a shock ensues, the shivering is best checked by the application of hot bottles to the hands and feet, and the administering of hot drinks—either warm sherry or warm brandy and water. To prevent disfigurement from accidents of this nature, the child must be carefully watched until the part is completely healed, and must be prevented from sitting or lying in anything but a straight posture, to avoid contraction of the skin.

The danger attending burns depends more upon their superficial extent than the depth of the injury—those to the body, head or neck being much more dangerous than those to the hands or feet, the neck being the most risky portion of all.

Where the part is simply blistered, though these be extensive in character and large in number, it is comparatively of little moment as long as they are whole. They must consequently not be broken, but allowed to remain, and the fluid to accumulate till the new skin forms underneath. When this formation takes place, the part becomes distended and painful, there is a red line round the edge of the blister, and the contained fluid looks milky. It may then be let out by puncturing with a needle, so that it all escapes.

SCALDS.

Scalds from hot water, as a rule, are not so severe, as, excepting in extreme cases, the scurf skin is only raised like an ordinary blister, and the dressing being wet, can be removed without difficulty. Any of the remedies prescribed for burns are equally efficacious for scalds, but if the scalded surface be instantly covered with cotton-wool, it is, if the accident be of a slight character, sufficient. Another admirable remedy, more particularly on account of its usually being "in the house," is lard. That specially prepared by chemists is, of course, the best ; but this only means the ordinary kind divested of the salt by washing. It should be thickly spread on pieces of old, soft linen, and when placed on the scald or burn be kept in its place by bandages of lint, or, better still, by strips of calico torn from an old garment, always bearing in mind that the great thing is to protect the damaged part from the air, and remembering on no account to apply cold water or similar cold bandages.

BRUISES.

Bruises from knocks and tumbles are by far the most frequent of the numerous accidents of the nursery, and where the injury is slight and the skin not lacerated, a warm application of arnica (which should always be kept where there are children) and water, in the proportion of one part of arnica to ten of water, is advisable ; but in the absence of this, the old-fashioned remedy of covering the bruise with fresh butter should be resorted to.

Jammed fingers, through the unexpected shutting of a drawer or door, though not usually looked upon as at all serious casualties, may sometimes be attended by the most serious consequences, for if all the parts of the end of the fingers be injured, the whole (bone and flesh) may mortify. In ordinary cases of this kind the best and quickest way of obtaining relief is to plunge the finger or fingers into warm water as hot as the child can bear it. By this means the nail is softened, and yields so as to accommodate itself to the blood poured out beneath it, and the pain is speedily lessened ; the finger should then be covered with a bread and water poultice pending the surgical treatment necessary where the fingers are badly crushed.

Instant care and attention in such cases will often prevent the loss of the nail, a result to be avoided if possible, since the formation and growth of the new nail are necessarily slow, and changes of shape frequently occur, sometimes resulting in permanent disfigurement.

HINTS TO HOUSEKEEPERS.

CHOICE OF ARTICLES OF FOOD.

NOTHING is more important in the affairs of housekeeping than the choice of wholesome food.

Mackerel must be perfectly fresh. The firmness of the flesh and the clearness of the eyes must be the criterion of fresh mackerel, as they are of all other fish.

Flounders, and all flat white fish, are rigid and firm when fresh; the under side should be of a rich cream color.

Cod is known to be fresh by the rigidity of the muscles (or flesh); the redness of the gills, and clearness of the eyes.

Salmon.—The flavor and excellence of this fish depend upon its freshness, and the shortness of time since it was caught.

Herrings can only be eaten when very fresh.

Fresh Water Fish.—The remarks as to firmness and clear, fresh eyes, apply to this variety of fish, of which there are pike, perch, etc.

Lobsters recently caught have always some remains of muscular action in the claws, which may be excited by pressing the eyes with the finger; when this cannot be produced, the lobster must have been too long kept. When boiled, the tail preserves its elasticity if fresh, but loses it as soon as it becomes stale.

Crabs have an agreeable smell when fresh.

Prawns and Shrimps, when fresh, are firm and crisp.

Oysters.—If fresh, the shell is firmly closed; when the shells of oysters are opened, they are dead and unfit for food. The small-shelled oysters are the finest in flavor. Larger kinds are generally considered only fit for stewing and sauces, though some persons prefer them.

Beef.—The grain of ox beef, when good, is loose, the meat red, and the fat inclining to yellow. When meat pressed by the finger rises up quickly, it may be considered as that of an animal which was in its prime; when the dent made by pressure returns slowly, or remains visible, the animal had probably past its prime, and the meat consequently must be of inferior quality.

Veal should be delicately white, though it is often juicy and well flavored when rather dark in color. On examining the loin, if the fat enveloping the kidney be white and firm looking, the meat will probably be prime, and recently killed.

Mutton.—The meat should be firm and close in grain, and red in color, the fat white and firm. Mutton is in its prime when the sheep is about five years old, though it is often killed much younger. If too young, the flesh feels tender when pinched, if too old on being pinched it wrinkles up, and so remains. In young mutton, the fat readily separates; in old, it is held together by strings of skin.

Lamb.—This meat will not keep long after it is killed. The large vein in the neck is bluish in color when the forequarter is fresh, green when becoming stale. In the hindquarter, if not recently killed, the fat of the kidney will have a slight smell, and the knuckle will have lost its firmness.

Pork.—When good, the rind is thin, smooth, and cool to the touch; when changing, from being too long killed, it becomes flaccid and clammy.

Bacon should have a thin rind, and the fat should be firm and tinged with red by the curing; the flesh should be of a clear red, without intermixture of yellow, and it should firmly adhere to the bone. To judge the state of a ham, plunge a knife into it to the bone; on drawing it back, if particles of meat adhere to it, or if the smell is disagreeable, the curing has not been effectual, and the ham is not good; it should, in such a state, be immediately cooked.

Venison.—When good, the fat is clear, bright, and of considerable thickness.

Turkeys.—In choosing poultry, the age of the bird is the chief point to be attended to. An old turkey has rough and reddish legs; a young one, smooth and black. Fresh killed, the eyes are full and clear, and the feet moist. When it has been kept too long, the parts about the vent begin to wear a greenish, discolored appearance.

Common Domestic Fowls, when young, have the legs and combs smooth; when old, they are rough, and on the breast long hairs are found instead of feathers. Fowls and chickens should be plump on the breast, fat on the back, and white legged.

Geese.—The bills and feet are red when old, yellow when young. Fresh killed, the feet are pliable, stiff when too long kept. Geese are called green while they are only two or three months old.

Ducks.—Choose them with supple feet and hard, plump breasts. Tame ducks have yellow feet, wild ones red.

Pigeons are very indifferent food when they are too long kept. Suppleness of the feet shows them to be young; the

state of the flesh is flaccid when they are getting bad from keeping. Tame pigeons are larger than the wild.

Partridges, when young, have yellow legs and dark-colored bills. Old partridges are very indifferent eating.

Woodcock and Snipe, when old, have the feet thick and hard; when these are soft and tender, they are both young and fresh killed. When their bills become moist, and their throats muddy, they have been too long killed.

SEASONABLE FOOD.

There is an old maxim, "a place for everything, and everything in its place." To which we beg to add another, "A season for everything, and everything in season."

January.

[Fish, poultry, etc., distinguished by *italics* are to be had in the highest perfection.]

Fish.—Cod, crabs, eels, flounders, herrings, lobsters, oysters, perch, pike, sturgeon, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal, and doe venison.

Poultry and Game.—Capons, chickens, ducks, wild-ducks, fowls, geese, partridges, pheasants, pigeons (tame), pullets, *rabbits*, snipes, turkeys (hen), woodcock.

Vegetables.—Beets, sprouts, cabbage, cardoons, carrots, celery, onions, parsnips, potatoes, turnips.

Fruit.—Almonds, apples.

February.

Fish.—Cod, crabs, flounders, herrings, oysters, perch, pike, sturgeon, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal.

Poultry and Game.—Capons, chickens, ducklings, fowl (wild), green geese, partridges, pheasants, pigeons (tame and wild), pullets, rabbits, snipes, turkeys, woodcock.

Vegetables.—Beets, cabbage, carrots, celery, mushrooms, onions, parsnips, potatoes, turnips.

Fruit.—Apples, chestnuts, oranges.

March.

Fish.—Eels, crabs, flounders, lobsters, mackerel, oysters, perch, pike, shrimp, smelts, sturgeon, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal.

Poultry and Game.—Capons, chickens, ducklings, fowls, green geese, pigeons, rabbits, snipes, turkeys, woodcock.

Vegetables.—Beets, carrots, celery, cresses, onions, parsnips, potatoes, turnip tops.

Fruit.—Apples, chestnuts, oranges.

April.

Fish.—Shad, cod, *crabs*, eels, flounders, halibut, herrings, *lobsters*, mackerel, oysters, perch, pike, *salmon*, shrimps, smelts, sturgeon, trout, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducklings, fowls, green geese, leverets, pigeons, pullets, rabbits, turkey-poults, wood-pigeons.

Vegetables.—Onions, parsnips, spinach, small salad, turnip tops, and rhubarb.

Fruit.—Apples, nuts, oranges, pears.

May.

Fish.—*Shad*, cod, *crabs*, eels, flounders, halibut, herring, *lobsters*, mackerel, mullet, perch, pike, *salmon*, shrimps, smelts, sturgeon, trout, clams.

Meat.—Beef, grass-lamb, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, fowls, green geese, pigeons, pullets, rabbits.

Vegetables.—Artichokes, green peas, asparagus, kidney-beans, cabbage, carrots, onions, peas, potatoes, radishes, rhubarb, salad, spinach, turnips.

Fruit.—Apples, pears.

June.

Fish.—Cod, shad, *crabs*, eels, flounders, herrings, *lobsters*, mackerel, perch, pike, *salmon*, clams, smelts, sturgeon, trout cat-fish, black-fish.

Meat.—Beef, *grass-lamb*, mutton, pork, veal.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducklings, fowls, green geese, pigeons, pullets, rabbits.

Vegetables.—Asparagus, beans, white beet, cabbage, carrots, cucumbers, leeks, lettuce, onions, parsley, peas, potatoes, radishes, salad of all sorts, spinach, turnips.

Fruit.—Apples, apricots, cherries, currants, gooseberries, melons, pears, strawberries.

July.

Fish.—Cod, *crabs*, flounders, herrings, *lobsters*, *mackerel*, perch, pike, salmon, trout, *blue-fish*, *black-fish*, *bass*, *pickerel*, *cat-fish*, eels, clams, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, *grass-lamb*, mutton, veal, buck-venison.

Poultry and Game.—*Chickens*, ducks, fowls, *green geese*, leverets, pigeons, plovers, rabbits, *wild-pigeons*.

Vegetables.—Artichokes, asparagus, balm, beans, carrots, cauliflowers, celery, cucumbers, herbs of all sorts, lettuce, mint, mushrooms, peas, potatoes, radishes, salads of all sorts, spinach, turnips, tomatoes, Carolina potatoes.

For Drying.—Mushrooms.

For Pickling.—French beans, red cabbage, cauliflowers, garlic, gherkins, onions.

Fruit.—Apples, apricots, cherries, currants, *damsons*, gooseberries, melons, nectarines, peaches, pears, oranges, pine-apples, plums, raspberries, strawberries.

August.

Fish.—Cod, eels, crabs, flounders, herrings, lobsters, *mackerel*, *perch*, *pike*, *salmon*, *blue-fish*, *black-fish*, *weak-fish*, *sheep's head*, *trout*, *porgies*, *clams*.

Meat.—Beef, grass-lamb, mutton, veal, buck-venison.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducks, fowls, *green geese* pigeons, plovers, rabbits, wild ducks, wild pigeons, red-bird, curlew.

Vegetables.—Artichokes, beans, white-beet, carrots, cauliflowers, cucumbers, pot-herbs of all sorts, leeks, lettuce, mushrooms, onions, peas, potatoes, radishes, salad of all sorts, spinach, turnips, tomatoes.

For Drying.—Basil, sage, thyme.

For Pickling.—Red cabbage, tomatoes, walnuts.

Fruit.—Apples (summer pippin), cherries, currants, damsons, gooseberries, grapes, melons, mulberries, nectarines, peaches, pears, plums (greengages), raspberries.

September.

Fish.—Cockles, cod, crabs, eels, flounders, lobsters, *oysters*, *perch pike*, shrimps, porgies, black-fish, weak-fish.

Meat.—Beef, mutton, pork, veal, buck-venison.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducks, fowls, green geese, *partridges*, pigeons, plovers, rabbits, turkeys, *wild ducks*, wild pigeons, wild rabbits, quail.

Vegetables.—Artichokes, beans, cabbages, carrots, cauliflowers, celery, cucumbers, herbs of all sorts, leeks, lettuce, mushrooms, onions, parsnips, peas, potatoes, radishes, salad of all sorts, turnips, tomatoes, Carolina potatoes.

Fruit.—Apples, damsons, grapes, hazel-nuts, medlars, peaches, pears, pine-apples, plums, quinces, strawberries, walnuts.

October.

Fish.—Cockles, cod, crabs, eels, gudgeons, halibut, lobsters, mussels, oysters, perch, *pike*, salmon-trout, shrimps, smelts, porgies.

Meat.—Beef, mutton, pork, veal, doe-venison.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducks, fowls, green geese, larks, partridges, *pheasants*, pigeons, red-bird, black-bird, robins, snipes, turkey, wild ducks, wild pigeons, wild rabbits, woodcock, teal.

Vegetables.—Artichokes, cabbages, cauliflowers, celery, herbs of all sorts, onions, parsnips, peas, potatoes, radishes, salad, spinach (winter), tomatoes, turnips, Carolina potatoes.

Fruit.—Almonds, apples, black and white damsons, hazel-nuts, grapes, peaches, pears, quinces, walnuts.

November.

Fish.—Cockles, cod, crabs, eels, gudgeons, halibut, lobsters, mussels, oysters, perch, *pike*, salmon, shrimps, smelts, porgies, flounders.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal, doe-venison.

Poultry and Game.—Chickens, ducks, fowls, *geese*, larks, partridges, pheasants, pigeons, rabbits, *snipes*, turkey, wild ducks, *woodcock*, robins.

Vegetables.—Beets, cabbages, carrots, celery, herbs of all sorts, lettuce, onions, parsnips, potatoes, salad, spinach, tomatoes, turnips.

Fruit.—Almonds, apples, chestnuts, hazel nuts, grapes, pears.

December.

Fish.—*Cod*, crabs, eels, gudgeons, halibut, lobsters, oysters, perch, pike, salmon, shrimps, smelts, sturgeon.

Meat.—Beef, house-lamb, mutton, pork, veal, doe-venison.

Poultry and Game.—Capons, chickens, ducks, fowls, geese, guinea-fowl, hares, larks, partridges, pea-fowl, pheasants, pigeons, rabbits, snipes, turkey, wild ducks, woodcock.

Vegetables.—Beets, cabbages, carrots, celery, herbs of all sorts, lettuce, onions, parsnips, potatoes, salad, spinach, turnips.

Fruit.—Apples, chestnuts, hazel-nuts.

NAMES AND SITUATIONS OF THE JOINTS.

The method of cutting up the carcases varies. That which we describe below is the most general.

Beef—*Fore Quarter.*—Fore rib (five ribs); middle rib (four ribs); chuck (three ribs). Shoulder piece (top of fore leg); brisket (lower or belly part of the ribs); clod (fore shoulder blade); neck; shin (below the shoulder); cheek.

Hind Quarter.—Sirloin; rump; aitchbone—these are the three divisions of the upper part of the quarter; buttock and mouse-buttock, which divide the thigh; veiny piece, joining buttock; thick flank and thin flank (belly pieces) and leg. The sirloin and rump of both sides form a baron. *Beef is in season all the year; best in the winter.*

Mutton.—Shoulder; breast (the belly); over which are the loin (chump, or tail end). Loin (best end); and neck (best end); neck (scrag end). A chine is two necks; a saddle, two loins; then there are the leg and head. *Mutton is the best in winter, spring, and autumn.*

Lamb is cut into fore quarter and hind quarter; a saddle, or loin; neck, breast, leg, and shoulder. *Grass-lamb is in season from June to August.*

Pork is cut into leg, hand, or shoulder; hind-loin; fore loin; belly part; spare rib (or neck); and head. *Pork is in season nearly all the year.*

Veal is cut into neck (scrag end); neck (best end); loin (best end); loin (chump, or tail end); fillet (upper part of the hind leg); hind knuckle (which joins the fillet knuckle of fore leg; blade (bone of shoulder); breast (best end); breast (brisket end); and hand. *Veal is always in season, but dear in the winter and spring.*

Venison is cut into haunch (or back); neck, shoulder, and breast. *Doe-venison is best in January, October, November, and December, and buck-venison in June, July, August, and September.*

Ox-tail is much esteemed for purposes of soup; so also is the CHEEK. The TONGUE is highly esteemed.

Calves' Heads are very useful for various dishes; so also their KNUCKLES, FEET, HEART, etc.

Cooking.—Ten pounds of beef require from two hours to two hours and a half roasting, eighteen inches from a good fire.

Six pounds require one hour and a quarter to one hour and a half, fourteen inches from a good clear fire.

Three ribs of beef, boned and rolled, tied round with paper, will require two hours and a half, eighteen inches from the fire; baste once only.

The first three ribs of fifteen or twenty pounds, will take three hours or three and a half; the fourth and fifth ribs will take as long, managed in the same way as the sirloin. Paper the fat and the thin part, or it will be done too much, before the thick part is done enough.

When beef is very fat, it does not require basting; if very lean, tie it up in greasy paper, and baste frequently and well.

Common cooks are generally fond of too fierce a fire, and of putting things too near to it.

Slow roasting is as advantageous to the tenderness and flavor of meat as slow boiling.

The warmer the weather, and the staler killed the meat is the less time it will require to roast it.

Meat that is very fat requires more time than other meat.

In the hands of an expert cook, "alimentary substances are made almost entirely to change their nature, their form, consistence, odor, savor, color, chemical composition, etc.; everything is so modified, that it is often impossible for the most exquisite sense of taste to recognize the substance which makes up the basis of certain dishes. The greatest utility of the kitchen consists in making the food agreeable to the senses, and rendering it easy of digestion."

Boiling extracts a portion of the juice of meat, which mixes with the water, and also dissolves some of its solids; the more fusible parts of the fat melt out, combine with the water, and form soup or broth. The meat loses its red color, becomes more savory in taste and smell, and more firm and digestible. If the process is continued *too long*, the meat becomes indigestible, less succulent, and tough.

To boil meat to perfection, it should be done slowly, in plenty of water, replaced by other hot water, as evaporation takes place; for, if boiled too quickly, the outside becomes tough; and not allowing the ready transmission of heat, the inferior remains rare.

The loss by boiling varies from 6¼ to 16 per cent. The average loss on boiling butcher's meat, pork, hams, and bacon, is 12; and on domestic poultry, is 14¾.

The loss per cent. on boiling salt beef is 15; on legs of mutton, 10; hams, 12½; salt pork, 13⅜; knuckles of veal, 8⅓; bacon, 6¼; turkeys, 16; chickens, 13½.

The established rule as regards time, is to allow a quarter of an hour for each pound of meat if the boiling is rapid, and twenty minutes if slow. There are exceptions to this; for instance, ham and pork, which require from twenty to twenty-five minutes per pound, and bacon nearly half an hour. For solid joints allow fifteen minutes for every pound, and from ten to twenty minutes over; though, of course, the length of time will depend much on the strength of the fire, regularity in the boiling and size of the joint. The following table will be useful as an average of the time required to boil the various articles:

	H.	M.
A ham, 20 lbs. weight, requires	6	30
A tongue (if dry), after soaking	4	00
A tongue, out of pickle	2½ to 3	00
A neck of mutton	1	30
A chicken	0	20
A large fowl	0	45
A capon	0	35
A pigeon	0	15

The loss by roasting varies, according to Professor Donovan, from 14 3-5ths to nearly double that rate, per cent. The average loss on roasting butcher's meat is 22 per cent.; and on domestic poultry is 20½.

The loss per cent. on roasting beef, viz., on sirloins and ribs together, is 19 1-6th; on mutton, viz., legs and shoulders together, 24 4-5ths; on fore quarters of lamb, 22⅞; on ducks, 27 1-5th; on turkeys, 20½; on geese, 19⅛; on chickens, 14 3-5ths.

Broiling requires a brisk, rapid heat, which, by producing a greater degree of change in the affinities of the raw meat than roasting, generates a higher flavor, so that broiled meat is more savory than roast. The surface becoming charred, a dark-colored crust is formed, which retards the evaporation of the juices; and therefore, if properly done, broiled may be as tender and juicy as roasted meat.

Baking does not admit of the evaporation of the vapors so rapidly as by the processes of broiling and roasting; the fat is also retained more, and becomes converted by the agency of the heat into an empyreumatic oil, so as to render the meat less fitted for delicate stomachs, and more difficult to digest. The meat is, in fact, partly boiled in its own confined water, and partly roasted by the dry hot air of the oven.

The loss by baking has not been estimated; and, as the time required to cook many articles must vary with their size, nature, etc., we have considered it better to leave that until giving the receipts for them.

Frying is of all methods the most objectionable, from the foods being less digestible when thus prepared, as the fat employed undergoes chemical changes. Olive oil in this respect is preferable to lard or butter.

Roast Beef.—The tender-loin and first and second cuts off the rack are the best roasting pieces—the third and fourth cuts are good. When the meat is put to the fire, a little salt should be sprinkled on it, and the bony side turned toward the fire first. When the bones get well heated through, turn the meat, and keep a brisk fire—baste it frequently while roasting. There should be a little water put into the dripping pan when the meat is put down to roast. If it is a thick piece, allow fifteen minutes to each pound to roast it in—if thin, less time will be required.

Beef Steak.—The tender-loin is the best piece for broiling—a steak from the round or shoulder clod is good and comes cheaper. If the beef is not very tender, it should be laid on a board and pounded, before broiling or frying it. Wash it in cold water, then lay it on a gridiron, place it on a hot bed of coals, and broil it as quick as possible without burning it. If broiled slow, it will not be good. It takes from fifteen to twenty minutes to broil a steak. For seven or eight pounds of beef, cut up about a quarter of a pound of butter. Heat the platter very hot that the steak is to be put on, lay the butter on it, take up the steak, salt and pepper it on both sides. Beef steak to be good, should be eaten as soon as cooked. A few slices of salt pork broiled with the steak makes a rich gravy with a very little butter. There should always be a trough to catch the juices of the meat when broiled. The same pieces that are good broiled are good for frying. Fry a few slices of salt pork brown, then take them up and put in the beef. When brown on both sides, take it up, take the pan off from the fire, to let the fat cool; when cool, turn in half a teacup of water, mix a couple of teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, stir it into the fat, put the pan back on the fire, stir it till it boils up, then turn it over the beef.

Alamode Beef.—The round of beef is the best piece to alamode—the shoulder clod is good, and comes lower; it is also good stewed, without any spices. For five pounds of

beef, soak about a pound of bread in cold water till soft, then drain off the water, mash the bread fine, put in a piece of butter, of the size of a hen's egg, half a teaspoonful of salt, the same quantity of ground cloves, allspice, and pepper, half a nutmeg, a couple of eggs, and a tablespoonful of flour—mix the whole well together; then cut gashes in the beef, and fill them with about half of the dressing, put the meat in a bake-pan, with lukewarm water enough to cover it; set it where it will stew gently for a couple of hours; cover it with a heated bake-pan lid. When it has stewed a couple of hours, turn the reserved dressing on top of the meat, heat the bake-pan lid hot enough to brown the dressing, stew it an hour and a half longer. After the meat is taken up, if the gravy is not thick enough, mix a teaspoonful or two of flour with a little water, and stir it into the gravy; put in a little butter, a wineglass of wine, and turn it over the meat.

Beef Liver.—Liver is very good fried, but the best way to cook it, is to broil it ten minutes with four or five slices of salt pork. Then take it out, cut it into small strips together with the pork, put it in a stew-pan, with a little water, butter and pepper. Stew it four or five minutes.

To Corn Beef.—To every gallon of cold water, put a quart of rock salt, an ounce of saltpetre, quarter of a pound of brown sugar (some people use molasses, but it is not as good); no boiling is necessary. Put the beef in the brine. As long as any salt remains at the bottom of the cask it is strong enough. Whenever any scum rises, the brine should be scalded, skimmed, and more sugar, salt, and saltpetre added. When a piece of beef is put in the brine, rub a little salt over it. If the weather is hot, cut a gash to the bone of the meat, and fill it with salt. Put a heavy weight on the beef in order to keep it under the brine. In very hot weather, it is difficult to corn beef in cold brine before it spoils. On this account it is good to corn it in the pot when boiled. It is done in the following manner: to six or eight pounds of beef, put a teacup of salt; sprinkle flour on the side that is to go up on the table, and put it down in the pot, turn the water into the pot after the beef is put in, boil it a couple of hours, then turn in more cold water, and boil it an hour and a half longer.

Mutton.—The saddle is the best part to roast—the shoulder and leg are good roasted; but the best mode to cook the latter is to boil it with a piece of salt pork. A little rice boiled with it improves the look of it. Mutton for roasting should have a little butter rubbed on it, and a little salt and pepper sprinkled on it—some people like cloves and allspice. Put a small piece of butter in the dripping-pan, and baste it frequently. The bony side should be turned towards the fire first, and roasted. For boiling or roasting mutton, allow a quarter of an hour to each pound of meat. The leg is good cut in gashes, and filled with a dressing, and baked. The dressing is made of soaked bread, a little butter, salt, and pepper, and a couple of eggs. A pint of water with a little butter should be put in the pan. The leg is also good, cut into slices and broiled. It is good corned a few days, and then boiled. The rack is good for broiling—it should be divided, each bone by itself, broiled quick, and buttered, salted and peppered. The breast of mutton is nice baked. The joints of the brisket should be separated, the sharp ends of the ribs sawed off, the outside rubbed over with a little piece of butter—salt it, and put it in a bake-pan, with a pint of water. When done, take it up, and thicken the gravy with a little flour and water, and put in a small piece of butter. A tablespoonful of catsup, cloves and allspice, improve it, but are not essential. The neck of mutton makes a good soup. Parsley or celery-heads are a pretty garnish for mutton.

Veal.—The loin of veal is the best piece for roasting. The breast and rack are good roasted. The breast also is good made into a pot-pie, and the rack cut into small pieces and broiled. The leg is nice for frying, and when several slices have been cut off for cutlets, the remainder is nice boiled with a small piece of salt pork. Veal for roasting should be salted, peppered, and a little butter rubbed on it, and basted frequently. Put a little water in the dripping-pan, and unless the meat is quite fat, a little butter should be put in. The fillet is good baked, the bone should be cut out, and the place filled with a dressing, made of bread soaked soft in cold water, a little salt, pepper, a couple of eggs, and a tablespoonful of melted butter put in—then sew it up, put it in your bake-pan, with about a pint of water, cover the top of the meat with some of the dressing. When baked sufficiently, take it up, thicken the gravy with a little flour and water well mixed, put in a small piece of butter and a little wine and catsup, if you like the gravy rich.

Veal Cutlets.—Fry three or four slices of pork until brown—take them up, then put in slices of veal, about an inch thick, cut from the leg. When brown on both sides, take them up; stir half a pint of water into the gravy, then mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, and stir it in; soak a couple of slices of toasted bread in the gravy, lay them on the bottom of the platter, place the meat and pork over it, then turn on the gravy. A very nice way to cook the cutlets, is to make a batter with half a pint of milk, an egg beaten to a froth, and flour enough to render it thick. When the veal is fried brown, dip it into the batter, then put it back into the fat, and fry it until brown again. If you have any batter left, it is nice dropped by the large spoonful into the fat, and fried till brown, then laid over the veal. Thicken the gravy and turn it over the whole. It takes about an hour to cook this dish. If the meat is tough, it will be better to stew it half an hour before frying it.

Calf's Head.—Boil the head two hours, together with the lights and feet. Put in the liver when it has boiled an hour and twenty minutes. Before the head is done, tie the brains in a bag, and boil them with it; when the brains are done, take them up, season them with salt, pepper, butter, and sweet herbs, or spices if you like—use this as a dressing for the head. Some people prefer part of the liver and feet for dressing; they are prepared like the brains. The liquor that the calf's head is boiled in, makes a good soup, seasoned in a plain way like any other veal soup, or seasoned turtle fashion. The liquor should stand until the next day after the head is boiled, in order to have the fat rise, and skimmed off. If you wish to have your calf's head look brown, take it up when tender, rub a little butter over it, sprinkle on salt, pepper, and allspice—sprinkle flour over it, and put before the fire, with a Dutch oven over it, or in a brick oven where it will brown

quick. Warm up the brains with a little water, butter, salt, and pepper. Add wine and spices if you like. Serve it up as a dressing for the head. Calf's head is also good baked. Halve it, rub butter over it, put it in a pan, with about a quart of water; then cover it with a dressing made of bread soaked soft, a little butter, an egg, and season it with salt, pepper, and powdered mace. Slice up the brains, and lay them in the pan with the head. Bake it in a quick oven, and garnish it with slices of lemon, or force-meat balls.

Force-Meat Balls.—Chop a pound or two of veal fine; mix it with one or two eggs, a little butter, or raw pork chopped fine; season it with salt and pepper, or curry powder. Do it up into balls about the size of half an egg, and fry them brown.

Calf's Feet.—Boil them with the head, until tender, then split and lay them round the head, or dredge them with flour after they have been boiled tender, and fry them brown. If you wish for gravy for them, when you have taken them up, stir a little flour into the fat they were fried in; season it with salt, pepper, and mace. Add a little butter and wine if you like, then turn it over the feet.

Calf's Liver and Heart—Are good broiled or fried. Some people like the liver stuffed and baked.

A Fillet of Veal.—Cut off the shank of a leg of veal, and cut gashes in the remainder. Make a dressing of bread, soaked soft in cold water, and mashed; season it with salt, pepper, and sweet herbs; chop a little raw pork fine, put it in the dressing, and if you have not pork, use a little butter instead. Fill the gashes in the meat with part of the dressing, put it in a bake-pan, with just water enough to cover it; put the remainder of the dressing on top of the meat, and cover it with a heated bake-pan lid. For six pounds of veal, allow two hours steady baking. A leg of veal is nice prepared in this manner, and roasted.

Lamb.—The fore and hind quarters are good roasting pieces. Sprinkle salt and pepper on the lamb, turn the bony side toward the fire first; if not fat, rub a little butter on it, and put a little in the dripping-pan; baste it frequently. These pieces are good stuffed like a fillet of veal, and roasted. The leg is also good, cooked in the same manner; but it is better boiled with a pound of salt pork. Allow fifteen minutes boiling to each pound of meat. The breast of lamb is good roasted, broiled, or corned and boiled; it is also good made into a pot-pie. The fore quarter, with the ribs divided, is good broiled. The bones of this, as well as all kinds of meat, when put down to broil, should first be put toward the fire, and browned before the other side is broiled. A little salt, pepper, and butter, should be put on it when you take it up. Lamb is very apt to spoil in warm weather. If you wish to keep a leg several days, put it in brine. It should not be put with pork, as fresh meat is apt to injure it. Lamb's head, feet, and heart, are good, boiled till tender, then cut off the flesh from the head, cut up the heart, and split the feet in two; put the whole into a pan, with a pint of the liquor they were boiled in, together with a little butter, pepper, salt, and half a teacup of tomato catsup; thicken the gravy with a little flour; stew the whole for a few moments. Pepper-grass or parsley is a pretty garnish for this dish.

Lamb's Fry.—The heart and sweetbread are nice fried plainly, or dipped into a beaten egg and fine bread crumbs. They should be fried in lard.

Turkey.—Take out the inwards, wash both the inside and outside of the turkey. Prepare a dressing made of bread soaked soft in cold water (the water should be drained from the bread, and the bread mashed fine). Melt a small piece of butter, and mix it with the dressing, or else put in salt pork chopped fine; season it with salt and pepper; add sweet herbs if you like. An egg in the dressing makes it cut smoother. Any kind of cooked meat is nice minced fine, and mixed with the dressing. If the inwards are used, they ought to be boiled very tender, as it is very difficult to cook them through while the turkey is roasting. Fill the crop and body of the turkey with the dressing, sew it up, tie up the legs and wings, rub on a little salt and butter. Roast it from two to three hours, according to its size; twenty-five minutes to every pound is a good rule. The turkey should be roasted slowly at first, and basted frequently. A little water should be put into the dripping-pan, when the meat is put down to roast. For a gravy to the turkey, take the liquor that the inwards are boiled in, put into it a little of the turkey drippings, set it where it will boil, thicken it with a little flour and water previously mixed smooth. Season it with salt, pepper, and sweet herbs if you like. Drawn butter is used for boiled turkey. A turkey for boiling should be prepared in the same manner as one for roasting. If you wish to have it look white, tie it up in a cloth, unless you boil rice in the pot. If rice is used, put in two-thirds of a teacup. A pound or two of salt pork, boiled with the turkey, improves it. If you wish to make a soup of the liquor in which the turkey is boiled, let it remain until the next day, then skim off the fat. Heat and season it.

Goose.—If a goose is tender under the wing, and you can break the skin easily by running the head of a pin across the breast, there is no danger of its being tough. A goose should be dressed in the same manner, and roasted the same length of time as a turkey.

Chickens.—Chickens for roasting or boiling should have a dressing prepared like that for turkeys. Half a teacup of rice boiled with the chickens makes them look white. They will be less liable to break if the water is cold when they are put in. A little salt pork boiled with the chickens improves them. If you do not boil pork with them they will need salt. Chickens for broiling should be split, the inwards taken out, and the chicken washed inside and out. Put the bony side down on the gridiron, and broil it very slowly until brown, then turn it, and brown it on the other side. About forty minutes is required to broil a common-sized chicken. For roast chicken, boil the liver and gizzards by themselves, and use the water for gravy to the chickens; cut the inwards in slices, and put them in the gravy.

Fricassee.—The chickens should be jointed, the inwards taken out, and the chickens washed. Put them in a stew-pan with the skin side down; on each layer sprinkle salt and pepper; put in three or four slices of pork, just cover them with water, and let them stew till tender. Then take them up, mix a little flour and water together, and thicken the liquor they

were stewed in, add a piece of butter of the size of a hen's egg, then put the chickens back in the stew-pan, and let them stew four or five minutes longer. When you have taken up the chickens, soak two or three slices of toast in the gravy, then put them in your platter, lay the chickens over the toast, and turn the gravy on them. If you wish to brown the chickens, stew them without the pork till tender, then fry the pork brown, take it up, put in the chickens, and then fry until a light brown.

Pigeons.—Take out the inwards, and stuff the pigeons with a dressing prepared like that for turkeys, lay them in a pot with the breast side down. Turn in more than enough water to cover them. When stewed nearly tender, put in a quarter of a pound of butter to every dozen of pigeons—mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, and stir into the gravy. If you wish to brown them, put on a heated bake-pan lid, an hour before they are done, or else take them up when tender, and fry them in pork fat. They are very good split open and stewed, with a dressing made and warmed up separately with a little of the gravy. Tender pigeons are good stuffed and roasted. It takes about two hours to cook tender pigeons, and three hours tough ones. Roast pigeons should be buttered when put to the fire.

Ducks—Are good stewed like pigeons, or roasted. Two or three onions in the dressing of wild ducks takes out the fishy taste they are apt to have. If ducks or any other fowls are slightly injured by being kept long, dip them in weak saleratus water before cooking them.

Baked or Roast Pig.—A pig for roasting or baking should be small and fat. Take out the inwards, and cut off the first joint of the feet, and boil them till tender, then chop them. Prepare a dressing of bread soaked soft, the water squeezed out and the bread mashed fine; season it with salt, pepper, and sweet herbs, add a little butter, and fill the pig with the dressing. Rub a little butter on the outside of the pig, to prevent its blistering. Bake or roast it from two hours and a half to three hours. The pan that the pig is baked in should have a little water put in it. When cooked, take out a little of the dressing and gravy from the pan, mix it with the chopped inwards and feet, put in a little butter, pepper, and salt, and use this for a sauce to the pig. Expose the pig to the open air two or three minutes before it is put on the table, to make it crispy.

Sweetbread, Liver, and Heart.—A very good way to cook the sweetbread, is to fry three or four slices of pork till brown, then take them up and put in the sweetbread, and fry it over a moderate fire. When you have taken up the sweet bread, mix a couple of teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, and stir it into the fat—let it boil, then turn it over the sweetbread. Another way is to parboil them, and let them get cold, then cut them in pieces about an inch thick, dip them in the yolk of an egg and fine bread crumbs, sprinkle salt, pepper, and sage on them before dipping them in the egg; fry them a light brown. Make a gravy after you have taken them up, by stirring a little flour and water mixed smooth into the fat, and spices and wine if you like. The liver and heart are good cooked in the same manner, or broiled.

Tripe—After being scoured, should be soaked in salt and water seven or eight days, changing the water every other day, then boil it till tender, which will take eight or ten hours. It is then fit for broiling, frying or pickling. It is pickled in the same manner as souse.

Sausages.—Chop fresh pork very fine, the lean and fat together (there should be rather more of the lean than the fat), season it highly with salt, pepper, sage, and other sweet herbs, if you like them—a little saltpetre tends to preserve them. To tell whether they are seasoned enough, do up a little into a cake, and fry it. If not seasoned enough, add more seasoning, and fill your skins, which should be previously cleaned thoroughly. A little flour mixed in with the meat tends to prevent the fat from running out when cooked. Sausage-meat is good done up in small cakes and fried. In summer, when fresh pork cannot be procured, very good sausage-cakes may be made of raw beef, chopped fine with salt pork, and seasoned with pepper and sage. When sausages are fried, they should not be pricked, and they will cook nicer to have a little fat put in the frying-pan with them. They should be cooked slowly. If you do not like them very fat, take them out of the pan when nearly done, and finish cooking them on a gridiron. Bologna sausages are made of equal weight each of ham, veal, and pork, chopped very fine, seasoned high, and boiled in casings till tender, then dried.

Ham.—A ham that weighs ten pounds should be boiled four or five hours; if very salt, the water should be changed. Before it is put on the table, take off the rind. If you wish to ornament it, put whole cloves, or pepper, in the form of diamonds, over it. The Virginia method of curing hams (which is considered very superior), is to dissolve two ounces of saltpetre, two teaspoonfuls of saleratus, in a salt pickle, as strong as possible, for every sixteen pounds of ham. Add molasses in the proportion of a gallon to a hogshead of brine, then put in the hams, and let them remain three or four weeks. Then take them out of the brine, and smoke them with the hocks downward, to preserve the juices. They will smoke tolerably well in the course of a month, but they will be much better to remain in the smoke-house two or three months. Hams cured in this manner are very fine flavored, and will keep good a long time.

Tongues.—Cut off the roots of the tongues; they are not good smoked, but they make nice pies. Take out the pipes and veins, boil them till tender, mince them fine, season the meat with salt, cloves, mace, and cinnamon, put in a little sugar and molasses, moisten the whole with brandy, put it in a cool place, and it will keep good several months in cold weather, and is good to make pies of at any time, with the addition of apples chopped fine, and a little butter melted. For the remainder of the tongues, make a brine in the following manner—to a gallon of cold water put a quart of rock salt, an ounce of saltpetre, quarter of a pound of sugar, and couple of tablespoonfuls of blown salt. Put in the tongues, let them remain in it a week, and then smoke them eight or ten days.

Chicken Pie.—Joint the chickens, which should be young and tender. Boil them in just sufficient water to cover them. When nearly tender take them out of the liquor, and lay them in a deep pudding-dish, lined with pie crust. To each layer

of chicken, put three or four slices of pork, add a little of the liquor in which they were boiled, and a couple of ounces of butter cut into small pieces—sprinkle a little flour over the whole, cover it with nice pie crust, and ornament the top with some of your pastry. Bake it in a quick oven one hour.

Beef and Mutton Pie.—Take tender meat, pound it out thin, and broil it ten minutes—then cut off the bony and gristly parts, season it highly with salt and pepper, butter it, and cut it into small pieces. Line a pudding dish with pastry, put in the meat, and to each layer add a teaspoonful of tomato catsup, together with a tablespoonful of water—sprinkle over flour, and cover it with pie crust, and ornament as you please with pastry. Cold roast or boiled beef and mutton make a good pie, by cutting them into bits, and seasoning them highly with salt and pepper. Put them into a pie dish, turn a little melted butter over them, or gravy, and pour in water till you can just see it at the top.

Chicken and Veal Pot Pie.—If the pie is to be made of chickens, joint them—boil the meat until about half done. Take the meat out of the liquor in which it was boiled, and put it in a pot, with a layer of crust to each layer of meat, having a layer of crust on the top. The meat should be seasoned with salt and pepper—cover the whole with the boiled meat liquor. If you wish to have the crust brown, keep the pot covered with a heated bake pan lid. Keep a tea kettle of boiling water to turn in as the water boils away—cold water makes the crust heavy. The crust for the pie is good like that made for fruit pies, with less shortening, but raised pie crust is generally preferred to any other. It is made in the following manner—mix together three pints of flour, a teacup of melted butter, a teaspoonful of salt, then turn in half a teacup of yeast—add cold water to make it sufficiently stiff to roll out. Set it in a warm place to rise, which will take seven or eight hours, unless brewers' yeast is used. When risen, roll it out and cut it into small cakes. Potato pie crust is very nice. To make it, boil eight or nine small potatoes, peel and mash them fine, mix with them a piece of butter, of the size of a hen's egg, a teaspoonful of salt, a tumbler full of milk, and flour to render it of the right consistency to roll out. When rolled out, cut them into cakes, and put them with the meat. If you happen to have unbaked wheat dough, very good crust may be made of it, by working into it a little lukewarm melted butter. Let it remain, after you have rolled and cut it into cakes, about ten or fifteen minutes, before putting it with the meat.

Warmed-over Meats.—Boiled or roasted veal makes a nice dish, chopped fine, and warmed up, with just sufficient water to moisten it, and a little butter, salt, and pepper added. A little nutmeg and the grated rind of a lemon improve it—none of the white part of the lemon should be used. When well heated through, take it up on a platter, and garnish it with a couple of lemons cut in slices. Fresh or corned beef is good minced fine, with boiled potatoes, and warmed up with salt, pepper, and a little water—add butter, just before you take it up. Some people use the gravy that they have left the day before, for the meat, but it is not as good when warmed over, and there is no need of its being wasted, as it can be clarified, and used for other purposes. Boiled onions, or turnips, are good mixed with mince-meat, instead of potatoes. Veal, lamb, and mutton, are good cut into small strips, and warmed with boiled potatoes cut in slices, pepper, salt, a little water—add butter just before you take it up. Roast beef and mutton, if not previously cooked too much, are nice cut in slices, and just scorched on a gridiron. Meat, when warmed over, should be on the fire just long enough to get well heated through—if on the fire long, most of the juices of the meat will be extracted, and render it very indigestible. Cold fowls are nice jointed, and warmed with a little water, then taken up and fried in butter till brown. A little flour should be sprinkled on them before frying. Thicken the water that the fowls were warmed in—add a little salt, pepper, and butter, and turn it over the fowls.

Drawn Butter.—Mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour with a little cold water—stir it till free from lumps, thin it, and stir it into half a pint of boiling water—let it boil two or three minutes, then cut up about a quarter of a pound of butter into small pieces, and put it with the flour and water—set it where it will melt gradually. If carefully mixed, it will be free from lumps—if not, strain it before it is put on the table. If the butter is to be eaten on fish, cut up several soft boiled eggs into it. A little curry powder sprinkled into it, will convert it into curry sauce.

Burnt Butter.—Put a couple of ounces of butter into a frying pan—set it on the fire—when of a dark brown color, put in half a teacupful of vinegar, a little pepper and salt. This is nice for fish, salad, or eggs.

Roast Meat Gravy.—Meat, when put down to roast, should have about a pint of water in the dripping pan. A little while before the meat is done, stir up the drippings, put it in a skillet, and set it where it will boil. Mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour smoothly with a little water, and stir it in the gravy when it boils. Lamb and veal require a little butter in the gravy. The gravy for pork and geese should have a little of the dressing and sage mixed with it. If you wish to have your gravies look dark, scorch the flour that you thicken them with, which is easily done by putting it in a pan, setting it on a few coals, and stirring it constantly till it is a dark brown color, taking care that it does not burn. Enough can be burnt at once to last a long time.

Sauce for Cold Meat, Fish, or Salad.—Boil a couple of eggs three minutes; then mix it with a mustard-spoonful of made mustard, a little salt, pepper, half a tea-cup of salad oil or melted butter, and half a tea-cup of vinegar. A tablespoonful of catsup improves it.

Wine Sauce for Venison or Mutton.—Warm half a pint of the drippings or liquor the meat was boiled in, mix a couple of teaspoonfuls of scorched flour with a little water, and stir it in when the gravy boils. Season it with salt, pepper, and cloves; stir a tablespoonful of currant jelly in, and, just before you take it from the fire, half a tumbler of wine. Many people prefer melted currant jelly to any other sauce for venison or mutton.

Oyster Sauce.—Take the juice of the oysters, and to a pint put a couple of sticks of mace, a little salt and pepper. Set it on the fire; when it boils, stir in a couple of teaspoonfuls of flour, mixed with milk. When it has boiled several

minutes, stir in half a pint of oysters, a piece of butter of the size of a hen's egg. Let them scald through, then take them up.

White Celery Sauce for Boiled Poultry.—Take five or six heads of celery, cut off the green tops, cut up the remainder into small bits, and boil it tender in half a pint of water; mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour smoothly with a little milk; then add half a teacup more of milk, stir it in, add a small lump of butter and a little salt. When it boils, take it up.

Brown Sauce for Poultry.—Peel two or three onions, cut them in slices, flour and fry them brown in a little butter; then sprinkle in a little flour, pepper, salt, and sage; add half a pint of the liquor the poultry was boiled in, and a tablespoonful of catsup. Let it boil up; then stir in half a wineglass of wine if you like.

Savory Jelly for Cold Meat.—Boil lean beef or veal till tender. If you have any beef or veal bones, crack and boil them with the meat (they should be boiled longer than the meat), together with a little salt pork, sweet herbs, and pepper and salt. When boiled sufficiently, take it off, strain it, and let remain till the next day; then skim off the fat, take up the jelly, and scrape off the dregs that adhere to the bottom of it; put in the whites and shells of several eggs, several blades of mace, a little wine and lemon juice; set it on the fire, stir it well till it boils, then strain it till clear through a jelly bag.

Chicken Salad.—Boil a chicken that weighs not more than a pound and a half. When very tender take it up, cut it in small strips, and make the following sauce, and turn over it: Boil four eggs three minutes; then take them out of the shells, mash and mix them with a couple of tablespoonfuls of olive oil or melted butter, two-thirds of a tumbler of vinegar, a teaspoonful of mixed mustard, a teaspoonful of salt, a little pepper, and essence of celery if you have it—if not, it can be dispensed with.

Apple and Cranberry Sauce.—Pare and quarter the apples—if not tart, stew them in cider—if tart enough, stew them in water. When stewed soft, put in a small piece of butter, and sweeten it to the taste with sugar. Another way, which is very good, is to boil the apples, without paring them, with a few quinces and molasses, in new cider, till reduced to half the quantity. When cool, strain the sauce. This kind of sauce will keep good several months. It makes very good plain pies, with the addition of a little cinnamon or cloves. To make cranberry sauce, nothing more is necessary than to stew the cranberries till soft, then stir in sugar and molasses to sweeten it. Let the sugar scald in it a few minutes. Strain it if you like—it is very good without straining.

Pudding Sauce.—Stir to a cream a teacup of butter, with two of brown sugar, then add a wineglass of wine or cider; flavor it with nutmeg, rose-water, or essence of lemon. If you wish to have it liquid, heat two-thirds of a pint of water boiling hot, mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water and stir it into the boiling water. As soon as it boils up well, stir it into the butter and sugar.

Mushroom Catsup.—Put a layer of fresh mushrooms in a deep dish, sprinkle a little salt over them, then put in another layer of fresh mushrooms and salt, and so on till you get in all the mushrooms. Let them remain several days; then mash them fine, and to each quart put a tablespoonful of vinegar, half a teaspoonful of black pepper, and a quarter of a teaspoonful of cloves; turn it into a stone jar, set the jar in a pot of boiling water and let it boil two hours, then strain it without squeezing the mushrooms. Boil the juice a quarter of an hour, skim it well, let it stand a few hours to settle, then strain it off carefully through a sieve, bottle and cork it tight. Keep it in a cool place.

Walnut Catsup.—Procure the walnuts by the last of June; keep them in salt and water for a week, then bruise them, and turn boiling vinegar on them. Let them remain covered with vinegar for several days, stirring them up each day; then boil them a quarter of an hour with a little more vinegar, strain them through a thick cloth, so that none of the coarse particles of the walnuts will go through; season the vinegar highly with cloves, allspice, pepper and salt. Boil the whole a few minutes, then bottle and cork it tight. Keep it in a cool place.

Plain Veal Soup.—A leg of veal, after enough has been cut off for cutlets, makes a soup nearly as good as calf's head. Boil it with a cup two-thirds full of rice, and a pound and a half of pork; season it with salt, pepper, and sweet herbs, if you like. A little celery boiled in it gives the soup a fine flavor. Some people like onions, carrots, and parsley boiled in it. If you wish for balls in the soup, chop veal and a little raw salt pork fine; mix it with a few bread crumbs and a couple of eggs. Season it with salt and pepper; add a little curry powder if you like—do it up into small balls and boil them in the soup. The veal should be taken up before the soup is seasoned. Just before the soup is taken up, put in a couple of slices of toast, cut into small pieces. If you do not like your soup fat, let the liquor remain till the day after you have boiled the meat, and skim off the fat before heating the liquor. The shoulder of veal makes a good soup.

Mock Turtle, or Calf's Head Soup.—Boil the head until perfectly tender, then take it out, strain the liquor, and set it away until the next day, then skim off the fat, cut up the meat, together with the lights, and put it into the liquor, put it on the fire, and season it with salt, pepper, cloves, and mace, add onions and sweet herbs if you like; stew it gently for half an hour. Just before you take it up, add half a pint of white wine. For the balls, chop lean veal fine, with a little salt pork, add the brains, and season it with salt, pepper, cloves, mace, sweet herbs or curry powder, make it up into balls about the size of half an egg, boil part in the soup, and fry the remainder, and put them in a dish by themselves.

Beef or Black Soup.—The shank of beef is the best part for soup—cold roast beef bones and beef steak make very good soup. Boil the shank four or five hours in water enough to cover it. Half an hour before the soup is put on the table, take up the meat, thicken the soup with scorched flour mixed with cold water, season it with salt, pepper, cloves, mace, a little walnut or tomato catsup improves it, put in sweet herbs or herb spirit if you like. Some cooks boil onions in the soup, but as they are very disagreeable to many persons, it is better to boil and serve them up in a dish by themselves. Make force-meat balls of part of the beef and

pork, season them with mace, cloves, pepper and salt, and boil them in the soup fifteen minutes.

Chicken or Turkey Soup.—The liquor that a turkey or chicken is boiled in makes a good soup. If you do not like your soup fat, let the liquor remain till the day after the poultry has been boiled in it, then skim off the fat, set it where it will boil. If there was not any rice boiled with the meat, put in half a teacupful when the liquor boils, or slice up a few potatoes and put in—season it with salt and pepper, and sweet herbs, a little celery boiled in it improves it. Toast bread or crackers, and put them in the soup when you take it up.

Oyster Soup.—Separate the oysters from the liquor, to each quart of the liquor put a pint of milk or water, set it on the fire with the oysters. Mix a heaping tablespoonful of flour with a little water, and stir it into the liquor as soon as it boils. Season it with salt, pepper, and a litile walnut or butternut vinegar, if you have it, if not, common vinegar may be substituted. Put in a small lump of butter, and turn it as soon as it boils up again on to buttered toast cut into small pieces.

Pea Soup.—If you make your soup of dry peas, soak them over night, in a warm place, using a quart of water to each quart of the peas. Early the next morning boil them an hour. Boil with them a teaspoonful of saleratus eight or ten minutes, then take them out of the water they were soaking in, put them into fresh water, with a pound of salt pork, and boil it till the peas are soft, which will be in the course of three or four hours. Green peas for soup require no soaking, and boiling only long enough to have the pork get thoroughly cooked, which will be in the course of an hour.

Omelet.—Beat the eggs to a froth, and to a dozen of eggs put three ounces of finely minced boiled ham, beef, or veal; if the latter meat is used add a little salt. Melt a quarter of a pound of butter, mix a little of it with the eggs—it should be just lukewarm. Set the remainder of the butter on the fire, in a frying or tin pan, when quite hot, turn in the eggs beaten to a froth, stir them until they begin to set. When brown on the under side, it is sufficiently cooked. The omelet should be cooked on a moderate fire, and in a pan small enough to have the omelet an inch thick. When you take them up, lay a flat dish on them, then turn the pan upside down.

Poached Eggs.—Break the eggs into a pan, beat them to a froth, then put them into a buttered tin pan, set the pan on a few coals, put in a small lump of butter, a little salt, let them cook very slowly, stirring them constantly till they become quite thick, then turn them on to buttered toast.

Broiling, Boiling and Frying Fish.—Fish for boiling or broiling are the best the day after they are caught. They should be cleaned when first caught, washed in cold water, and half a teacup of salt sprinkled on the inside of them. If they are to be broiled, sprinkle pepper on the inside of them—keep them in a cool place. When fish is broiled, the bars of the gridiron should be rubbed over with a little butter, and the inside of the fish put toward the fire, and not turned till the fish is nearly cooked through, then butter the skin side and turn it over; fish should be broiled slowly. When fresh fish is to be boiled, it should either be laid on a fish strainer, or sewed up in a cloth, if not, it is very difficult to take it out of the pot without breaking. Put the fish into cold water with the back bone down. To eight or ten pounds of fish, put half of a small teacup of salt. Boil the fish until you can draw out one of the fins easily—most kinds of fish will boil sufficiently in the course of twenty or thirty minutes; some kinds will boil in less time. Some cooks do not put their fish into water till it boils, but it is not a good plan, as the outside gets cooked too much, and breaks to pieces before the inside is sufficiently done. Fish for frying, after being cleaned and washed, should be put into a cloth to have it absorb the moisture. They should be dried perfectly and a little flour rubbed over them. No salt should be put on them, if you wish to have them brown well. For five or six pounds of fish, fry three or four slices of salt pork; when brown, take them up and if they do not make fat sufficient to fry the fish in, add a little lard. When the fish are fried enough, take them up; for good plain gravy, mix two or three teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, and stir it into the fat the fish was fried in, put in a little butter, pepper, and salt, if you wish to have the gravy rich add spices, catsup, and wine, turn the gravy over the fish. Boiled fish should be served up with drawn butter, or liver sauce. Fish, when put on the platter, should not be laid over each other if it can be avoided, as the steam from the under ones makes those on the top so moist that they will break to pieces when served out.

Great care and punctuality are necessary in cooking fish. If not done sufficiently, or if done too much, they are not good. They should be eaten as soon as cooked. For a garnish to the fish, use parsley, a lemon, or eggs boiled hard, and cut in slices.

Chowder.—Fry three or four slices of pork till brown, cut each of your fish into five or six slices, flour, and put a layer of them into your pork fat, sprinkle on pepper and a little salt—add cloves, mace, and sliced onions if you like—lay on several bits of your fried pork, and crackers previously soaked soft in cold water. This process repeat till you get in all the fish, then turn on water enough to just cover them—put on a heated bake pan lid. When the fish have stewed about twenty minutes, take them up and mix a couple of teaspoonfuls of flour with a little water, and stir it into the gravy, also a little butter and pepper. Half a pint of white wine, spices, and catsup, will improve it. Bass and cod make the best chowder, black fish and clams make tolerably good ones. The hard part of the clams should be cut off and thrown away.

Stuffed and Baked Fish.—Soak bread in cold water til soft, drain off the water, mash the bread fine, mix it with a tablespoonful of melted butter, a little pepper and salt—couple of raw eggs makes the dressing cut smoother—ad spices if you like. Fill the fish with the dressing, sew it up put a teacup of water in your bake pan, and a small piece o butter, lay in the fish, bake it from forty to fifty minutes Fresh cod, bass, and shad, are suitable fish for baking.

Fish Cakes.—Cold boiled fresh fish, or salt codfish, i nice minced fine, with potatoes, moistened with a little water and a little butter put in, done up into cakes the size of com mon biscuit, and fried brown in pork fat or butter.

Fish Force-Meat Balls.—Take a little uncooked fish, chop it fine, together with a little raw salt pork; mix it with one or two raw eggs, a few bread crumbs and season the whole with pepper and spices. Add a little catsup if you like, do them up into small balls, and fry them till brown.

Clams.—Wash and put them in a pot, with just water enough to prevent the shells burning at the bottom of the pot. Heat them till the shells open—take the clams out of them, and warm them with a little of the clam liquor, a little salt, butter, and pepper. Toast a slice or two of bread, soak it in the clam liquor, lay it in a deep dish, and turn the clams on to it. For clam pancakes, mix flour and milk together to form a thick batter—some cooks use the clam liquor, but it does not make the pancakes as light as the milk. To each pint of the milk put a couple of eggs and a few clams—they are good taken out of the shells without stewing, and chopped fine, or stewed, and put into the cakes whole. Very large long clams are good taken out of the shells without stewing, and broiled.

Stewed Oysters.—Strain the oyster liquor, rinse the bits of shells off the oysters, then turn the liquor back on to the oysters, and put them in a stew-pan—set them where they will boil up, then turn them on to buttered toast—salt, pepper, and butter them to your taste. Some cooks add a little walnut catsup, or vinegar. The oysters should not be cooked until just before they are to be eaten.

To Fry Oysters.—Take those that are large, dip them in beaten eggs, and then in flour or fine bread crumbs—fry them in lard, till of a light brown. They are a nice garnish for fish. They will keep good for several months if fried when first caught, salted and peppered, then put into a bottle, and corked tight. Whenever they are to be eaten, warm them in a little water.

Oyster Pancakes.—Mix equal quantities of milk and oyster juice together. To a pint of the liquor when mixed, put a pint of wheat flour, a few oysters, a couple of eggs, and a little salt. Drop by the large spoonful into hot lard.

Oyster Pie.—Line a deep pie-plate with pie crust; fill it with dry pieces of bread, cover it over with puff paste; bake it till a light brown, either in a quick oven or bake pan. Have the oysters just stewed by the time the crust is done; take off the upper crust, remove the pieces of bread, put in the oysters, season them with salt, pepper, and butter. A little walnut catsup improves the pie, but is not essential—cover it with the crust.

Scalloped Oysters.—Pound rusked bread or crackers fine; butter scallop shells or tins, sprinkle on the bread crumbs, then put in a layer of oysters, a small lump of butter, pepper, salt, and a little of the oyster juice; then put on another layer of crumbs and oysters, and so on till the shells are filled, having a layer of crumbs at the top. Bake them till a light brown.

Directions for Pickling.—Vinegar for pickling should be good, but not of the sharpest kind. Brass utensils should be used for pickling. They should be thoroughly cleaned before using, and no vinegar should be allowed to cool in them, as the rust formed by so doing is very poisonous. Boil alum and salt in the vinegar, in the proportion of half a teacup of salt, and a tablespoonful of alum, to three gallons of vinegar. Stone and wooden vessels are the only kind of utensils that are good to keep pickles in. Vessels that have had any grease in will not do for pickles, as no washing will kill the grease that the pot has absorbed. All kinds of pickles should be stirred up occasionally. If there are any soft ones among them, they should be taken out, the vinegar scalded, and turned back while hot—if very weak, throw it away and use fresh vinegar. Whenever any scum rises, the vinegar needs scalding. If you do not wish to have all your pickles spiced, it is a good plan to keep a stone pot of spiced vinegar by itself, and put in a few of your pickles a short time before they are to be eaten.

Wheat Bread.—For six common sized loaves of bread, take three pints of boiling water, and mix it with five or six quarts of flour. When thoroughly mixed, add three pints of cold water. Stir it till the whole of the dough is of the same temperature. When lukewarm, stir in half a pint of family yeast (if brewer's yeast is used, a less quantity will answer), a tablespoonful of salt, knead in flour till stiff enough to mould up, and free from lumps. The more the bread is kneaded, the better it will be. Cover it over with a thick cloth, and if the weather is cold, set it near a fire. To ascertain when it has risen, cut it through the middle with a knife—if full of small holes like a sponge, it is sufficiently light for baking. It should be baked as soon as light. If your bread should get sour before you are ready to bake it, dissolve two or more teaspoonfuls of saleratus (according to the acidity of it) in a teacup of milk or water, strain it on to the dough, work in well—then cut off enough for a loaf of bread, mould it up well, slash it on both sides to prevent its cracking when baked, put it in a buttered tin pan. The bread should stand ten or twelve minutes in the pan before baking it. If you like your bread baked a good deal, let it stand in the oven an hour and a half. When the wheat is grown, it makes better bread to wet the flour entirely with boiling water. It should remain till cool before working in the yeast. Some cooks have an idea that it kills the life of the flour to scald it, but it is a mistaken idea—it is sweeter for it, and will keep good much longer. Bread made in this way is nearly as good as that which is wet with milk. Care must be taken not to put the yeast in when the dough is hot, as it will scald it, and prevent its rising. Most ovens require heating an hour and a half for bread. A brisk fire should be kept up, and the doors of the room should be kept shut if the weather is cold. Pine and ash, mixed together, or birch wood, is the best for heating an oven. To ascertain if your oven is of the right temperature, when cleaned, throw in a little flour; if it browns in the course of a minute, it is sufficiently hot; if it turns black directly, wait several minutes before putting in the things that are to be baked. If the oven does not bake well, set in a furnace of live coals.

Sponge Bread.—For four loaves of bread, take three quarts of wheat flour and the same quantity of boiling water; mix them well together. Let it remain till lukewarm, then add a teacupful of family, or half a teacup of distillery yeast. Set it in a warm place to rise. When light, knead in flour till stiff enough to mould up, then let it stand till risen again, before moulding it up.

Rye Bread.—Wet up rye flour with lukewarm milk (water will do to wet it up with, but it will not make the bread so good). Put in the same proportion of yeast as for wheat bread. For four or five loaves of bread, put in a couple of teaspoonfuls of salt. A couple of tablespoonfuls of melted butter makes the crust more tender. It should not be kneaded as stiff as wheat bread, or it will be hard when baked. When light, take it out into pans without moulding it up; let it remain in them about twenty minutes before baking.

Brown Bread.—Brown bread is made by scalding Indian meal, and stirring into it, when lukewarm, about the same quantity of rye flour as Indian meal; add yeast and salt in the same proportion as for other kinds of bread. Bake it between two and three hours.

Indian Bread.—Mix Indian meal with cold water, stir it into boiling water, let it boil half an hour; stir in a little salt, take it from the fire, let it remain till lukewarm, then stir in yeast and Indian meal to render it of the consistency of unbaked rye dough. When light, take it out into buttered pans, let it remain a few minutes, then bake it two hours and a half.

Potato Bread.—Boil the potatoes very soft, then peel and mash them fine. Put in salt and a very little butter; then rub them with the flour; wet the flour with lukewarm water, then work in the yeast and flour till stiff to mould up. It will rise quicker than common wheat bread, and should be baked as soon as risen, as it turns sour very soon. The potatoes that the bread is made of should be mealy, and mixed with the flour in the proportion of one-third of potatoes to two-thirds of flour.

Rice Bread.—Boil a pint of rice till soft; then mix it with a couple of quarts of rice or wheat flour. When cool, add half a teacup of yeast, a little salt, and milk to render it of the consistency of rye bread. When light, bake it in small buttered pans.

French Rolls.—Turn a quart of lukewarm milk on to a quart of flour. Melt a couple of ounces of butter, and put to the milk and flour, together with a couple of eggs, and a teaspoonful of salt. When cool, stir in half a teacup of yeast, and flour to make it stiff enough to mould up. Put it in a warm place. When light, do it up into small rolls; lay the rolls on flat buttered tins; let them remain twenty minutes before baking.

Butter Biscuit.—Melt a teacup of butter, mix it with two-thirds of a pint of milk (if you have not any milk, water may be substituted, but the biscuit will not be as nice). Put in a teaspoonful of salt, half a teacup of yeast (milk yeast is the best, see directions for making it)—stir in flour till it is stiff enough to mould up. A couple of eggs improve the biscuit, but are not essential. Set the dough in a warm place; when risen, mould the dough with the hand into small cakes, lay them on flat tins that have been buttered. Let them remain half an hour before they are baked.

Buttermilk Biscuit.—Dissolve a couple of teaspoonfuls of saleratus in a teacup of sour milk—mix it with a pint of buttermilk, and a couple of teaspoonfuls of salt. Stir in flour until stiff enough to mould up. Mould it up into small cakes and bake them immediately.

Hard Biscuit.—Weigh out four pounds of flour, and rub three pounds and a half of it with four ounces of butter, four beaten eggs, and a couple of teaspoonfuls of salt. Moisten it with milk, pound it out thin with a rolling-pin, sprinkle a little of the reserved flour over it lightly, roll it up and pound it out again, sprinkle on more of the flour—this operation continue to repeat till you get in all the reserved flour; then roll it out thin, cut it into cakes with a tumbler, lay them on flat buttered tins, cover them with a damp cloth to prevent their drying. Bake them in a quick oven.

Potato Biscuit.—Boil mealy potatoes very soft, peel and mash them. To four good-sized potatoes put a piece of butter of the size of a hen's egg, and a teaspoonful of salt. When the butter has melted, put in half a pint of cold milk. If the milk cools the potatoes, put in a quarter of a pint of yeast, and flour to make them of the right consistency to mould up. Set them in a warm place; when risen, mould them up with the hand—let them remain ten or fifteen minutes before baking them.

Sponge Biscuit.—Stir into a pint of lukewarm milk half a teacup of melted butter, a teaspoonful of salt, half a teacup of family, or a tablespoonful of brewers' yeast (the latter is the best); add flour till it is a very stiff batter. When light, drop this mixture by the large spoonful on to flat buttered tins, several inches apart. Let them remain a few minutes before baking. Bake them in a quick oven till they are a light brown.

Crackers.—Rub six ounces of butter with two pounds of flour—dissolve a couple of teaspoonfuls of saleratus in a wineglass of milk, and strain it on to the flour—add a teaspoonful of salt, and milk enough to enable you to roll it out. Beat it with a rolling-pin for half an hour, pounding it out thin—cut it into cakes with a tumbler—bake them about fifteen minutes, then take them from the oven. When the rest of your things are baked sufficiently, take them out, set in the crackers, and let them remain till baked hard and crispy.

Cream Cakes.—Mix half a pint of thick cream with the same quantity of milk, four eggs, and flour to render them just stiff enough to drop on buttered tins. They should be dropped by the large spoonful several inches apart, and baked in a quick oven.

Crumpets.—Take three teacups of raised dough, and work into it with the hand half a teacup of melted butter, three eggs, and milk to render it a thick batter. Turn it into a buttered bake pan, let it remain fifteen minutes, then put on a bake pan heated so as to scorch flour. It will bake in half an hour.

Rice Cakes.—Mix a pint of rice boiled soft with a pint of milk, a teaspoonful of salt, and three eggs beaten to a froth. Stir in rice or wheat flour till of the right consistency to fry. If you like them baked, add two more eggs, and enough more flour to make them stiff enough to roll out, and cut them into cakes.

Buckwheat Cakes.—Mix a quart of buckwheat flour with a pint of lukewarm milk (water will do, but is not as good), and a teacup of yeast; set it in a warm place to rise. When light (which will be in the course of eight or ten hours if family yeast is used; if brewers' yeast is used they will rise

much quicker), add a teaspoonful of salt—if sour, the same quantity of saleratus, dissolved in a little milk and strained. If they are too thick, thin them with cold milk or water. Fry them in just fat enough to prevent their sticking to the frying pan.

Green-Corn Cake.—Mix a pint of grated green corn with three tablespoonfuls of milk, a teacup of flour, half a teacup of melted butter, one egg, a teaspoonful of salt, and half a teaspoonful of pepper. Drop this mixture into hot butter by the spoonful, let the cakes fry eight or ten minutes. These cakes are nice served up with meat for dinner.

Indian-Corn Cake.—Stir into a quart of sour or buttermilk a couple of teaspoonfuls of saleratus, a little salt, and sifted Indian meal to render it a thick batter—a little cream improves the cake—bake it in deep cake pans about an hour. When sour milk cannot be procured, boil sweet milk, and turn it on to the Indian meal; when cool, put in three beaten eggs to a quart of the meal, add salt to the taste.

Indian Slap Jacks.—Scald a quart of Indian meal, when lukewarm turn, stir in half a pint of flour, half a teacup of yeast, and a little salt. When light, fry them in just fat enough to prevent their sticking to the frying pan. Another method of making them, which is very nice, is to turn boiling milk or water on to the Indian meal, in the proportion of a quart of the former to a pint of the latter, stir in three tablespoonfuls of flour, three eggs well beaten, and a couple of teaspoonfuls of salt.

Johnny Cakes.—Scald a quart of sifted Indian meal with sufficient water to make it a very thick batter; stir in two or three teaspoonfuls of salt, mould it with the hand into small cakes. In order to mould them up it will be necessary to rub a good deal of flour on the hands, to prevent their sticking. Fry them in nearly fat enough to cover them. When brown on the under side they should be turned. It takes about twenty minutes to cook them. When cooked, split and butter them. Another way of making them, which is nice, is to scald the Indian meal, and put in saleratus, dissolved in milk, and salt in the proportion of a teaspoonful of each to a quart of meal. Add two or three tablespoonfuls of wheat flour and drop the batter by the large spoonful into a frying pan. The batter should be of a very thick consistency, and there should be just fat enough in the frying pan to prevent the cakes sticking to it.

Hoe Cakes.—Scald a quart of Indian meal with just water enough to make a thick batter; stir in a couple of teaspoonfuls of salt, and two tablespoonfuls of butter; turn it into a buttered bake pan, and bake it half an hour.

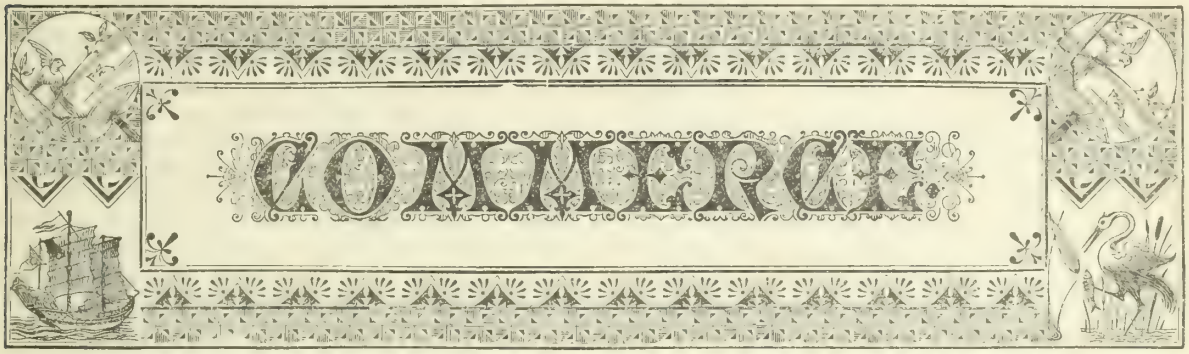
Muffins.—Mix a quart of wheat flour smoothly with a pint and a half of lukewarm milk, half a teacup of yeast, a couple of beaten eggs, a heaping teaspoonful of salt, and a couple of tablespoonfuls of lukewarm melted butter; set the batter in a warm place to rise; when light, butter your muffin cups, turn in the mixture, and bake the muffins till a light brown.

Raised Flour Waffles.—Stir into a quart of flour sufficient lukewarm milk to make a thick batter—the milk should be stirred in gradually, so as to have it free from lumps—put in a tablespoonful of melted butter, a couple of beaten eggs, a teaspoonful of salt, and half a teacup of yeast; when risen, fill your waffle-irons with the batter, bake them on a hot bed of coals. When they have been on the fire between two and three minutes, turn the waffle-irons over; when brown on both sides, they are sufficiently baked. The waffle-irons should be well greased with lard, and very hot, before each one is put in. The waffles should be buttered as soon as cooked. Serve them up with powdered white sugar and cinnamon.

Quick Waffles.—Mix flour and cold milk together, to make a thick batter. To a quart of the flour put six beaten eggs, a tablespoonful of melted butter, and a teaspoonful of salt. Some cooks add a quarter of a pound of sugar, and half a nutmeg. Bake them immediately.

Rice Waffles.—Take a teacup and a half of boiled rice, warm it with a pint of milk, mix it smooth, then take it from the fire, stir in a pint of cold milk and a teaspoonful of salt. Beat four eggs, and stir them in, together with sufficient flour to make a thick batter.

Rice Wafers.—Melt a quarter of a pound of butter, and mix it with a pound of rice flour, a teaspoonful of salt, and a wine glass of wine. Beat four eggs, and stir in, together with just cold milk enough to enable you to roll them out easily. They should be rolled out as thin as possible, cut with a wine glass into cakes, and baked in a moderate oven, on buttered flat tins.



PRINCIPLES OF COMMERCE.

THE practice of commerce is in a great measure dependent on mutual good faith, and the integrity of seller and buyer, and can in no case permanently flourish where these fundamental qualities are wanting. The first or great leading quality, therefore, in the character of a merchant, ought to be scrupulous honesty both in word and deed. The article which he proposes to dispose of must be exactly what he declares it to be, not inferior or in any respect unsound in its nature. If it possess any blemishes, these must be announced to the buyer before the bargain is concluded, and, if necessary, though at a considerable loss, an allowance made for them. The merchant is not less called on to be faithful in the fulfillment of all promises which he may make, whether with respect to goods or their payment; because those to whom the promises have been made may on that account have made similar promises to others, and, therefore, the breaking of a single promise may prove injurious in every link of a whole train of transactions. Perfect honesty or integrity is a fundamental principle of trade; and the next most important are, strict regularity in all proceedings, according to established usage, and also steady perseverance. The merchant must give regular attendance during the hours of business, be regular in executing all orders and answering all letters; regular in the keeping of his books, and in the reckoning of his stock and moneys; in short, he must be methodic and careful in all branches of his concerns, for without this species of attention, the best business is apt to become confused, and to be ultimately ruined. What is true of individuals is true when applied to a whole nation. No people have ever attained opulence and high mercantile consideration, who have not possessed a character for integrity and regularity in all their dealings.

Besides these indispensable qualities in the individual character of a merchant or tradesman, there is required a happy combination of enterprise and prudence with the utmost coolness—enterprise to embrace favorable opportunities of buying and selling, and prudence and coolness to restrain from engaging in over-hazardous and ruinous speculations. In all his transactions, the man of business is understood to proceed upon a cool inflexible principle of doing that which is most advantageous for himself, without fear or favor; because in commerce each party is supposed to be governed by motives of self-interest (always within the rules of honesty and propriety), and is under no obligation to deal from mere personal regard, or any kind of friendly consideration. In commerce there is, strictly speaking, no friendship. If there be friendship among the parties concerned, it is a thing aloof from business transactions—a matter of private arrangement—and is only to be regarded as such. On this account, even among the most intimate friends, there must be an exact mode of dealing, and the most accurate counting and reckoning.

COMMERCIAL TERMS AND TRANSACTIONS.

The following explanations of the principal terms used in commerce, will illustrate the mode of conducting business transactions.

Firm.—Every business, whether private or public, is conducted under a specified designation or title, called the name of the firm. This name may be that of a single individual to whom the business belongs, or of two or more individuals, or any title which it may be found advisable to adopt. Sometimes the name of a firm remains long after all who are indicated by it are dead, in such a case, the business has passed into the hands of new proprietors, who, though legally responsible for its obligations, are not, for some private reason, inclined to change the old and well-known title of their firm. A particular firm or business-concern is sometimes personified in the term *house*—as, Such a house does a great deal of business, etc.

Company.—Two or more individuals engaged in one business constitute a company or copartnery, each individual being called a partner. Companies are of two kinds, private and public. A private company is organized by a private arrangement among the parties, each having certain duties to perform and a certain share in the concern. In companies of the private and common description, no individual can leave the concern at his own pleasure, for by doing so he might seriously injure or embarrass his partners. He can withdraw only after giving a reasonable warning, by which time is allowed to wind up the concern, or place it in a condition to pay him back the capital which he has risked, or the profits which are his due. No partner, however, can transfer his shares to another person, by which a new member would be introduced into the firm without the consent of the partners.

The profits of partnerships are divided according to a

specified agreement or deed of copartnery. Generally, in the case of partnerships of two or three persons, each receives the same share on the occasion of an annual division, but in other cases, a partner may not be entitled to more than a fourth or sixth part of what another receives. The amount of capital which a partner invests in the concern, the service he can be to the business, and other circumstances, regulate the amount of his share. When each of two persons sinks the same capital, but one takes the whole of the trouble, then he on whom the trouble falls, who is called the active partner, is entitled to receive a stated sum in the form of salary over and above his share of profits. Whatever be the share which individual partners have in a concern, the whole are equally liable for the debts incurred by the company, because the public give credit only on the faith that the company generally is responsible. He who draws the smallest fraction of profit, failing the others, may be compelled to pay the whole debts.

Public companies are very different; they consist of a large body of partners, or proprietors of shares, the aggregate amount of which forms a joint stock, and hence such associations are called *joint-stock companies*. They are public, from being constituted of all persons who choose to purchase shares, and these shares or rights of partnership are also publicly salable at any time without the consent of the company. The value of a share in a joint-stock company is always the price it will bring in the market; and this may be either greater or less, in any proportion, than the sum which its owner stands credited for in the stock of the company. Unless specially provided for in the fundamental deed of copartnery, every member of a joint-stock company is liable in his whole personal property or fortune for the debts of the concern.

It is an axiom in commerce, that business is much better conducted by single individuals for their own behoof, than by companies of any kind; as respects joint-stock associations, they are only useful in very great concerns requiring enormous capital, and involving serious risks of loss.

Capital.—The capital of a merchant is strictly the amount of money which he embarks in his trade, or trades upon, that is, employs for buying goods, paying wages of servants, and liquidating all debts when due. When trading within the limits of his capital, business is done upon a secure footing; but if he proceeds beyond these in any material degree, he is said to be *over-trading*, and is exposed to the chance of ruin or very serious embarrassment. Trading beyond the amount of available capital, is, nevertheless, a prevailing error, and causes innumerable bankruptcies. With a comparatively small capital, a tradesman may carry on a large business, by receiving payments shortly after making his outlays. By this means, there is a rapid turning over of money, and small profits upon the various transactions speedily mount up to a large revenue. For example, if a tradesman turn over his capital twelve times in the year, at each time receiving money for what he sells, he can afford to do business on a twelve times less profit than if he could turn over the same capital only once in a year. This leads to a consideration of credit.

Credit.—Credit in business is of the nature of a loan, and is founded on a confidence in the integrity of the person credited, or the borrower. An individual wishes to buy an article from a tradesman, but he has not money to pay for it, and requires to have it on credit, giving either a special or implied promise to pay its value at a future time. This is getting credit; and it is clear that the seller is a lender to the buyer. In all such cases, the seller must be remunerated for making his loan. He cannot afford to sell on credit on the same favorable terms as for ready money; because, if he were to receive the money when he sold the article, he could lay it out to some advantage, or turn it over with other portions of his capital. By taking credit, the buyer deprives the seller of the opportunity of making this profit, and accordingly he must pay a higher price for the article, the price being increased in proportion to the length of credit. It very ordinarily happens that the seller himself has purchased the article on credit; but this only serves to increase its price to the consumer, and does not prevent the last seller from charging for the credit which he gives and the risk of ultimate non-payment which he runs. Credit for a short period is almost essential in all great transactions; but when going beyond fair and reasonable limits, it acts most perniciously on trade, by inducing heedless speculation, and causing an undue increase in the number of dealers with little or no capital. An excessive competition among these penniless adventurers is the consequence; each strives to undersell the other, with the hope of getting money to meet his obligations, and thus vast quantities of goods are sometimes thrown upon the market below the original cost, greatly to the injury of the manufacturer and the regular trader. What are called "gluts in the market" frequently ensue from causes of this nature.

Orders.—An order is a request from one dealer to another to supply certain goods. An order, when in writing, should be plain, explicit, and contain no more words than are necessary to convey the sense in a simple, courteous manner. The same rule applies to all letters of business, which, by the practice of trade, are confined to their legitimate object. A business man's letters should be plain, concise, and to the purpose; no quaint expressions, no book-phrases; and yet they must be full and sufficient to express what he means, so as not to be doubtful, much less unintelligible.

Counting-house—In French *bureau*; in Dutch *kantoor*. The counting-house is the office in which a merchant's literary correspondence, book-keeping, and other business is conducted. The counting-house should be a model of neatness and regularity. Its furniture consists chiefly of desks for the clerks and the books of the establishment, which are secured at night in an iron or fire-proof safe. Almost every different business requires a different set of books, but the mode of keeping them is generally the same. The usual set of books comprises a day-book, in which sales or purchases on credit are individually entered as they occur; a ledger, into which all these entries are engrossed in separate accounts; a journal or note book, for entering miscellaneous transactions; a cash-book, in which every payment or receipt of money is regularly entered; a letter-book, into which the letters are copied before they are sent off; and a bill-book, for the entering of bills payable and receivable. In large concerns there are various

other books, as foreign ledger, town ledger, country ledger, etc. The strictest care and accuracy are desirable. It is an understood rule that no book should show a blot or erasure; a leaf, also, should never on any account be torn out, whatever blotch or error it contains. The reason for this scrupulous care is, that a merchant's books should be a clear and faithful mirror of his transactions, and an evidence of his integrity. In the case of misfortune in trade, or other circumstance, the books may be subjected to a rigid judicial examination, and the appearance of an erasure or torn-out leaf may lead to conjectures of an unpleasant nature and consequences. When an important error occurs in book-keeping, it is better to let it remain and write *error* below it, than to make a large erasure or to cut out the leaf.

From the books kept by a merchant, a condensed view of his affairs ought to be annually made up. This document contains an *inventory* or list of goods, money, debts owing to the merchant, or other available property, also a contra list of all debts and other obligations due by the merchant. Both being balanced, the residue, whether for or against the merchant, is at once observable. Every man in trade, for at least his own satisfaction and government, should make up a *balance-sheet* of this nature annually.

Bill of Parcels.—An account or list of items of goods, with the price of each, given to their purchaser by the seller, or delivered along with the goods at the purchaser's house. Should a purchaser dispute the delivery of the goods, it is necessary to produce proof of the fact; when delivered to carriers, a receipt is usually given by subscribing a parcel book.

Invoice.—A bill or account of goods, which is forwarded separately, announcing the date of their dispatch and the particular conveyance by which they are sent. If the seller fail to forward an invoice by mail, and the goods be lost at sea while on their way, the purchaser is not answerable, for he is not supposed to know how or when the goods were sent, and therefore could not insure against their loss. The careful sending of invoices forms an important duty of a merchant's clerk.

Invoices of merchandise imported into the United States, are required by law to be made out in the weights, measures, and the currency of the country or place from which the importation is made, and to be verified before a consul or commercial agent of the United States, if there be such officer at the place, if not then before any public officer authorized to administer oaths.

Bill of Lading.—A formal acknowledgment or receipt given by sailing masters for goods put on board their vessels, including a promise to deliver them safely as marked and addressed to their designed destination, always, however, excepting loss or injury by the act of God, the nation's enemies, fire, or the dangers or accidents of the sea. The certificates generally in use in the United States except only the dangers of the sea, and are made out in triplicate; the master retains one bill, the shipper one, and the third is forwarded to the consignee. The receipt of a railroad freight agent, or captain of a canal or steamboat, is equivalent to a bill of lading as between the original parties, but in the hands of an assignee there is a distinction. The bill of lading is assignable, and the assignee is entitled to the goods, subject however to the shipper's right.

Lloyd's.—Lloyd is not the designation of any individual or of any company: it is a name used in reference to a set of subscription rooms or coffee-house, in London. Formerly the place of resort was in the Royal Exchange, but since the destruction of that building by fire, the place of meeting is in the neighborhood of that locality. One of the rooms at Lloyd's is devoted to subscribers who follow the profession of marine insurers, technically called *underwriters*, from their writing under, or subscribing to, certain obligations in deeds presented for their acceptance. When a person wishes to insure a ship, or goods in a ship, against damage or loss at sea, he offers the risk to these underwriters, and they are at liberty to accept it for a specified premium. The policy or deed expressive of the insurance is usually signed by more than one underwriter, so as to divide the risk. Lloyd's is not only a center point in the metropolis for all sea insurance business, but is the place to which every species of intelligence respecting shipping is forwarded from all parts of the world; and this information is exhibited publicly in one of the rooms, for the inspection of all. The intelligence is for the most part sent by appointed agents, one part of whose duty consists in investigating the cause of damage to vessels, and taking charge of wrecked property for behoof of the underwriters, whoever they may be. The lists made up and exhibited at Lloyd's furnish authentic information for the use of merchants and shippers of goods all over the united kingdom,

Dutch Auction.—In common auction, the highest bidder by competition is the purchaser: but according to the process of sale called Dutch auction, there is different mode of determining the successful bidder. According to this plan, the article is put up at a certain nominal price, which is gradually lowered, and the first who speaks and offers the sum mentioned by the auctioneer is at once knocked down as the purchaser. This is the fairest mode of auctioneering; it prevents competition, and the article brings its exact value—that which it is worth in the estimation of those present.

Insolvency, Bankruptcy.—When a person is not in circumstances to pay his debts in full, he is *insolvent*, which is nearly equivalent to being bankrupt; the term bankrupt, however, is more commonly applied to one who is legally announced as being insolvent. The term bankrupt is derived from *bancus* a bench, and *ruptus* broken, in allusion to the benches formerly used by the money-dealers in Italy, which were broken in case of their failure to pay their debts. The law prescribes a certain form of procedure in the case of commercial insolvency, which has the effect of deliberately investigating the cause of the misfortune, and relieving the bankrupt from all obligations, on yielding up his entire property. A bankrupt in the United States who has received a discharge or certificate from a competent authority, being released from all pecuniary claims, may again enter business for his own behoof without any fear of molestation; but a debtor who has merely taken the benefit of the Insolvent Act in England, or process of *cessio bonorum* in Scotland, though immediately relieved from prison and left at liberty to pursue any line of

industry, the property he may accumulate is at all times liable to seizure by his former creditors.

A commission of bankruptcy in Scotland is entitled a *sequestration*, meaning that the property of the bankrupt is officially sequestrated, or taken possession of, for behoof of creditors.

Customs.—The revenue duties levied on imported goods, usually called customs duties. The place appointed by the government at ports of entry where vessels and merchandise are entered and duties upon imported goods are collected, and where vessels obtain their clearance and other papers, is called a *custom-house;* the collectors, appraisers, surveyors, naval officers and their deputies, examiners, clerks at the head of divisions, inspectors, gaugers and weighers, but not subordinate clerks, are called *custom-house officers*, and are sworn to faithful service; the persons who act for merchants in the business of entering and clearing goods and vessels, and in the transactions of general business, are known officially as *custom-house brokers*. A *custom-house entry* is a statement made in writing to the collector of the district, by the owners or consignees of the merchandise on board any ship or vessel, which they desire to land. While the taxes or duties laid on articles produced and consumed at home, are generally qualified by the adjective "excise," and are best known in the United States as "internal revenue" taxes—the tax imposed upon retailers of liquors, wines, and beer, in the form of a license to conduct such business, emanates in many of the large cities from an appointive body known as a *Board of Excise*—*duties* is the official name in the United States for the taxes levied or imposed by the government on foreign goods imported into the country; also money paid to the government on exporting goods. The former is called *import duty*, the latter *export duty*. Foreign goods are said to be *bonded*, when the payment of the duties is secured by a bond, or when warehoused in a government store, and under the control of the collector of the port until entered for consumption and the duties are paid. *Bonded warehouses* are buildings in which imported merchandise is stored until the importer makes entry for withdrawal for consumption and pays the duties, or until he withdraws the merchandise for re-exportation to a foreign country without paying the duties. These stores are owned and conducted by private individuals, and their occupation is termed "the storage business." Such stores are required to be first-class fire-proof buildings, and to used for no other business, and they must be approved by the Secretary of the Treasury before receiving any merchandise. A government officer is placed in charge of every store, at the expense of the owner, and the business is conducted under voluminous provisions and requirements established by the government. The officer of the customs detailed to take charge of a bonded warehouse, and under whose supervision bonded goods are received and delivered from the store, is called a *bonded store-keeper*. Goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, subject to the payment of ad valorem duties, are required by law to be appraised at their "actual market value," at the time and place of export. As it is frequently very difficult to establish an actual market value in a foreign port, many goods being made only and expressly for foreign markets, and not sold nor offered for sale at the place of their manufacture or shipment, serious litigations often arise between the merchant and the government. This difficulty has led to the recognition by the commercial world of the distinctions, cash value, market value, and intrinsic value, although the laws name but one—the "actual market value."

Tonnage Duty is a duty imposed for the purpose of revenue, and is levied upon all vessels engaged in foreign commerce, and also, except in certain cases specially exempted by law, on all vessels engaged in domestic trade. These duties are required to be paid by vessels before clearance papers will be granted, or on their arrival before permits will be given to discharge their cargoes. *Tonnage* is the gauge of a ship's dimensions, nominally understood to be the number of tons burden that a ship will carry. The rates of duty fixed by law on each article of merchandise imported from foreign countries, form the *tariff*, the details of which differ with every country.

Debenture.—This is a formal certificate given by the collector of a port of entry to an importer, for drawback of duties on imported merchandise, the duties on which, when the merchandise is exported, are to be refunded. *Debentured goods*, are merchandise upon which the drawback has been paid.

Bill of Health.—In order to prevent a spread of contagious diseases, stringent laws are enforced throughout the United States, through the medium of a National Board of Health and State and City Boards. A bill of health is a certificate from the mayor of a city, a board of health, consul, collector of the port, or other authority constituted for the purpose, as to contagious diseases in the port of departure, and to the state of health of a ship's crew and passengers at the time of her leaving. A strict quarantine is established in the lower bay of New York, at which all in-coming vessels are compelled to report. If any contagious disease prevails, the vessel is detained and fumigated until all danger is past.

Bill of Entry, a written account or inventory of goods entered at the custom house, whether imported or intended for exportation.

Bill of Sale, a writing given by the seller of goods or merchandise to the purchaser, by which the seller conveys away the right and interest he has in the goods therein named. In the United States it may be given without a seal, but the laws of Great Britain require it to be under seal.

Bill of Sight, in England, an order obtained by the consignee of goods, of the quantity and quality of which he is ignorant, to enter them by bill of sight.

Trade and Commerce.—These words are nearly synonymous, but in their use thus connected the word "trade" conveys the idea of home or domestic traffic, and the word "commerce" the idea of more extensive traffic, foreign, varied, and wholesale.

Bill of Exchange.—The common bill of exchange is an order drawn on a person or banking-house, requesting him or it to pay money to some person, or to the order of a person named therein. The person who draws the bill or draft is called the *drawer;* the one on whom the demand is made is called the *drawee;* and the person to whom the money is directed to be paid is called the *payee*. The *indorser* writes his name on the

back of the bill; he to whom the bill is transferred by such indorsement is the *indorsee;* and whoever is entitled to receive the payment is the *holder.*

(Vide Forms of Commercial Papers.)

Promissory Note.—This is a promise or engagement in writing to pay a specified sum at a time therein limited, or on demand, or at sight, to a person therein named, or his order or assigns, or to the bearer. If the note is given with a specified rate of interest, it is a negotiable note, and may be bought and sold without difficulty.

A NEGOTIABLE NOTE.

$500. NEW YORK, N. Y., *Dec.* 1, 1882.

Three months after date, for value received, I promise to pay John Smith, or order, Five Hundred Dollars, with interest.

JOHN BROWN.

NOTE NOT NEGOTIABLE.

$1,000. CHICAGO, ILL., *Nov.* 30, 1882.

Nine months after date, for value received, I promise to pay John Brown, One Thousand Dollars.

JOHN SMITH.

A MARRIED WOMAN'S NOTE (NEW YORK STATE).

$350. BROOKLYN, N. Y., *Dec.* 15, 1882.

For value received, I promise to pay James G. Sanderson, or order, Three Hundred and Fifty Dollars, one year from date, with interest. And I hereby charge my individual property and estate with the payment of this note.

LOUISE R. CHANDLER.

NEGOTIABLE NOTE IN MISSOURI.

$100. ST. LOUIS, MO., *Oct.* 30, 1882.

Three months after date, I promise to pay to H. B. Brown, One Hundred Dollars, for value received; negotiable and payable without defalcation or discount.

GEORGE WILSON, JR.

A CASH DUE-BILL.

$50. BOSTON, MASS., *Nov.* 16, 1882.

Due Ralph S. Johnson, or order, on demand, Fifty Dollars, value received.

CHAS. I. JACOBS.

A MERCHANDISE DUE-BILL.

$75. SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., *Sept.* 29, 1882.

Due John F. Morton, Seventy-five Dollars, in merchandise from our store.

SMITH & TOWNLEY.

A SIGHT DRAFT.

$700. NEW ORLEANS, LA., *July* 4, 1882.

At sight, pay to the order of Mrs. Jane Wilson, Seven Hundred Dollars, value received, and charge the same to my account.

F. G. ALBERSON.

To FIRST NATIONAL BANK,
Rome, N. Y.

A TIME DRAFT.

$25. SYRACUSE, N. Y., *Oct.* 1, 1882.

Thirty days after date, pay to the order of S. E. Buck, Twenty-five Dollars, value received, and charge to our account.

MOORE & RICHARDS.

To H. V. ROSE,
Washington, D. C.

A BILL OF EXCHANGE.

1.

Exchange for
£500. NEW YORK, N. Y., *Dec.* 10, 1882.

Sixty days after sight of this *First* of Exchange (second and third unpaid), pay to the order of..... Stephen G. Reynolds ..... Five Hundred Pounds Sterling..... Value received, and charge the same to account..... JOHN Y. STANTON.

To BARING BROS.,
London, Eng.

No. 172.

2.

Exchange for
£500. NEW YORK, N. Y., *Dec.* 10, 1882

Sixty days after sight of this *Second* of Exchange (first and third unpaid), pay to the order of..... Stephen G. Reynolds ..... Five Hundred Pounds Sterling..... Value received, and charge the same to account..... JOHN Y. STANTON.

To BARING BROS.,
London, Eng.

No. 172.

3.

Exchange for
£500. NEW YORK, N. Y., *Dec.* 10, 1882.

Sixty days after sight of this *Third* of exchange (first and second unpaid), pay to the order of..... Stephen G. Reynolds ..... Five Hundred Pounds Sterling..... Value received, and charge the same to account..... JOHN Y. STANTON.

To BARING BROS.,
London, Eng

No. 172.

MONEY.

EARLY INSTRUMENTS OF EXCHANGE AND BARTER.

SKINS of wild animals cured constitute one of the earliest forms of currency known, and while employed in the most ancient times, are not yet disused in some portions of the world. Such a medium seems appropriate among those who subsist by the chase, as all primeval peoples must in some degree, and it is not, therefore, surprising to find that in the transactions of the Hudson Bay Fur Company with the Indians the unit of value by which the price of other articles was reckoned was the beaver skin.

Pastoral people employ similarly the skins of tame animals, originally delivering the entire skin, a cumbrous process deficient in convenience and economy, but finally employing a small disk cut from the leather as a representative of its value. Live stock is also widely employed, as it has been from the days of Abraham, and though a rude, it is still a substantially uniform, denominator of value. The Greeks stamped the image of an ox on a piece of leather, and the image had thence the current value of the animal represented. In the East, the camel, the ass and the sheep have been, ever since they were subdued to the uses of mankind, employed to reckon possessions or determine the amount of tribute or marriage portions. In Lapland and some portions of Sweden and Norway the amount of wealth possessed by a person is denominated in reindeer. Among the Tartars the number of mares similarly determines the opulence of their possessors. Among the Esquimaux it is customary to speak of one another as worth so many dogs.

Slaves have been employed to determine ratios of value since the state of bondage was first established among men. In New Guinea the slave is still the unit by which the value of other possessions is recorded, as he used to be among the Portuguese traders of the Gold Coast. The Portuguese also found small mats called libongoes, valued at about 1½ pence each, employed as currency on the African coast, and bunches of red feathers serve by their comparative stability to mark the fluctuations of yams and breech-clouts in some of the tropical islands of the Pacific. Some tribes of North American Indians found wampum as useful in their rather limited mercantile transactions as the merchant of South street or Burling slip finds greenbacks or bills of exchange.

Cowry shells are still extensively used in East India, Siam, and among some of the islands of the Indian Archipelago. Among the Fijians whales' teeth pass readily from hand to hand, effecting all necessary interchanges, the red teeth being taken at about twenty times the value of the white ones.

Ornaments of all kinds have in all times constituted measures of value. In Egypt, Phœnicia, Etruria, and many other ancient countries, as well as in Ireland and Northumbria, rings have been found which were designed to serve the double purpose of ornament and currency, and the same dual function may be ascribed to the anklets, armlets, and ear-rings which are worn throughout British India, Persia, Egypt, and Abyssinia. The Goths and Celts fashioned their rings of thick golden wire wound in spirals, from which various lengths could be broken to accommodate the varying needs of traffic. Gold chains have been similarly employed. In many countries golden beads are yet hoarded, worn, and circulated, fulfilling thus the triple functions of money, inasmuch as they constitute at once a store of value, a standard of value, and an instrument of exchange. Amber was used as currency by the savage races of the Baltic in the period of the Roman dominion, as it still is in some of the regions of the East. The Egyptian scarabee carved on sard or nephrite or other precious stones, circulated freely throughout the Mediterranean coasts and islands probably before the first Phœnician coin was impressed; and engraved gems and precious stones were employed to transfer wealth as well from one country to another as from hand to hand until a comparatively recent period. In Africa ivory tusks pass to and fro in the processes of trade, rudely defining the ratio of value of other articles. Among the Tartars, bricks of tea, or cubes of that herb pressed into a solid form, pass from hand to hand as freely as beaver skins do at the trading posts of Hudson Bay or the Saskatchewan. Among the Malayans the only currency entirely equal to the requirements of trade consists of rough hardware, such as hoes, shovels, and the like. Pieces of cotton cloth of a fixed length, called Guinea cloth, for a long period constituted the unit of value in Senegal, Abyssinia, Mexico, Peru, Siberia,

and some of the islands of the Pacific Ocean. In Sumatra, cubes of bees-wax of a fixed weight; in Scotland, hand-made nails; in Switzerland, eggs; in Newfoundland, dried cod-fish; in Virginia, tobacco; in Yucatan, cacao nuts; in the Greek Islands and the Levant, olive-oil; in the regions of the Upper Nile, salt, have all, at one time or another, served the purposes of commercial interchange. In agricultural countries it is not strange that corn should have early been adopted as a measure of value. The leases of the great school foundations of Britain, Cambridge, Oxford, and Eaton, with probably many others, were "corn leases," that is, specifying that the rental should consist of so many quarters of corn. In Norway, corn is deposited in banks and lent and borrowed on time or call loans, as money is with us. In Central America and Mexico, maize was long employed to serve the uses of currency.

In New England, in the early colonial days, leaden bullets were employed to indicate value, and that metal is still coined and circulated in Burmah. Pewter has often been coined, and in many countries, though not to the same extent as tin. In fact tin coins are not only of immense antiquity, but their impress has been sanctioned by government authority down to a recent period. The Phœnician mariners freighted their galleys with the tin of Britain before Carthage was founded, and coins of the same oiled the wheels of commerce in the marts of Tyre and Sidon before Solomon built the temple at Jerusalem. In England, as late as the period of William and Mary, tin half-pence and farthings were struck, though they failed to become a permanent part of the circulation. In numismatical collections, series of tin coins stamped with the effigy and legend of several of the Roman emperors, are abundant. In Java as well as Mexico, tin coins were once current, and the metal, measured by weight, is still a sort of legal tender in the Straits of Malacca.

METALLIC MONEY.

In all civilized countries, gold, silver, and copper have always constituted the main elements of coinage and the most familiar forms of currency. The ratio of value between the first two has probably varied less during the last 2,500 years than that between any other known substances. Copper has fluctuated more, but its function has always been subsidiary and limited to small transactions. In the hierarchy of the metals used as coins, gold may represent the king, silver the lord, and copper the slave. The latter is now practically emancipated, bronze and nickel taking its place. Indium, osmium, and palladium have been proposed as substitutes for gold, and aluminum and manganese for silver, but without any practical result thus far. Platinum, which is mainly found in the Ural Mountains, has been coined to some extent by the Russian Government; but, although a beautiful and valuable metal, possessing many of the qualities to render it acceptable as coin, its employment as money has been found to be impracticable.

Great numbers of alloys have been employed in coinage, and indeed it may be said that almost the entire system of metallic currency throughout the world is composed of alloys. The Tuscan sequin, the purest coin known in history, contained 999 parts of gold in 1,000. The six-ducat piece of Naples was next in purity, having only an alloy of 4, while old Byzantine coins called bezants contained an alloy of 14 parts in 1,000. Pure gold and silver, however, are soft metals, and untempered by others are subject to serious loss by abrasion. They are, therefore, rendered more useful by the admixture of a small portion of copper, which, in the English system, in the case of gold, may be expressed decimally by 916.66, and of silver 925 parts in 1,000. Nickel is usually alloyed with three parts of copper, and it is noteworthy that its adoption as a subsidiary coinage in Germany, coincident with the demonetization of silver, caused it to advance rapidly in price, while the latter was as rapidly declining. The old Roman *as* was made of the mixed metal called *æs*, a compound of copper and tin, and in quality and value not unlike bronze. Brass was also extensively used from the time of Hiram of Tyre to that of the Emperor Otho. The old Kings of Northumbria coined a small money called stycas out of a natural alloy, composed of copper, zinc, gold, silver, lead, and tin, which the metallurgists of that rude northern coast had not enough chemical skill to separate.

Lycurgus established an iron coinage for Lacedæmon, not only making the coins of such weight and bulk as to forbid their export, but depriving them of their metallic value by causing them while heated to be plunged into vinegar, thereby destroying their malleability.

While these coins were the largest of which historic mention is made, the Portuguese rei, too small to be actually coined, is doubtless the smallest unit of value in the money systems of the world. It is only about the nineteenth part of an English penny, and is considerably smaller than the Chinese cash, which, of actual coins, is perhaps of the lowest value known. In Sweden, during the last century, huge squares of copper weighing between three and four pounds, with a stamp in each corner and one in the center, were issued as coin, and curious specimens of them may still be seen in numismatical collections. These, with the Maundy money, a small portion of which is still annually struck at the British Mint and distributed by her Majesty in alms, probably represent the extremest variation of dimensions known among modern systems of coinage, the smallest piece of the Maundy money being a silver penny.

The Chinese probably illustrate in the most extreme manner the length to which loose views concerning currency can be carried. The history of their currency presents that mingling of the grotesque with the tragic which most of their actions have when viewed through Western eyes. Coined money was known among them as early as the eleventh century before Christ, but their inability to comprehend the principles upon which a currency should be based has led them into all sorts of extravagances, which have been attended by disorder, famine, and bloodshed. Coins came at last to be made so thin that one thousand of them piled together were only three inches high; then gold and silver were abandoned; and copper, tin, shells, skins, stones, and paper were given a fixed value and used until, by abuse, all the advantages to be derived from the use of money were lost, and there was nothing left for the people to do but to go back to barter, and this they did

more than once. They cannot be said now to have a coinage; 2,900 years ago they made round coins with a square hole in the middle, and they have made no advance beyond that since. The well-known *cash* is a cast-brass coin of that description, and although it is valued at about one mill and a half of United States money, and has to be strung in lots of one thousand to be computed with any ease, it is the sole measure of value and legal tender of the country. Spanish, Mexican, and the new trade dollars of the United States are employed in China; they pass because they are necessary for larger operations, and because faith in their standard value has become established; but they are current simply as stamped ingots, with their weight and fineness indicated.

The coined money of Great Britain is the most elegantly executed, and among the purest in the world. The greater part of the continental coinage is poorly executed and basely alloyed. In Holland, and most of the German States, the coins legally current as silver money are apparently one-third brass, and resemble the counterfeit shillings and sixpences of a former period in England. In France and Belgium, the new gold and silver coins are handsome, and so likewise are the large gold and silver pieces of Prussia. The coins and medals executed by direction of Napoleon in France are in a high style of art.

The Latin Monetary Union was established in December, 1865, for the purpose of maintaining the double standard of metallic currency, or keeping silver at a constant ratio with gold. The combination was formed by a union of France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland.

The possible depreciation of silver was foreseen, and some of its fluctuations had been experienced, but it was thought that, by a close union of silver-using powers rating silver at a common value, its price could be made permanent. At first the combination proceeded boldly. It threw open the mints of the Union to bullion owners, declaring that it would coin silver at the ratio to gold that it had established of fifteen and one-half to one, and proclaimed that the coins thus issued should have in the markets both a legal tender efficiency and an intrinsic efficiency in exchange exactly represented by that proportion.

The plan worked well until the year 1873, when Germany demonetized silver. But in the mean time it was sought to give the double standard a broader foundation by bringing other nations into the combination. For this purpose, at the invitation of the French government, forty-five representatives of twenty-three countries met at Paris in 1867. The proposed double standard was examined and discussed from every point of view by men skilled in financial science, and was at last rejected by a vote of forty-three to two. In 1870 there was a second gathering of the same kind, which, by a smaller majority, arrived at the same conclusion. Meantime silver had begun to accumulate, and depreciation to foreshadow itself more clearly. The demonetization of the metal by Germany gave the first sharp alarm. The Union was immediately forced to limit the coinage for 1874 to $24,000,000. This was increased to $30,000,000 in 1875, but again reduced in 1876 to $24,000,000, and in 1877 to $11,600,000. In the mean time, also, France, Belgium, and Switzerland stopped the coinage of five-franc pieces, thus reducing what silver they had to a large subsidiary currency. Later signs of the dissolution of the Union with the defeat of its objects were supplied by the failure of the monetary conference at Paris, and by the withdrawal of Switzerland from the Union.

GREAT BRITAIN, COINED MONEY OF.

In Great Britain money of the current and standard coinage is frequently signified by the term *sterling*, as "one pound sterling" etc. With respect to the origin of the word sterling there are three opinions. The first is that it is derived from Sterling Castle, and that Edward I., having penetrated so far into Scotland, caused a coin to be struck there, which he called Sterling. The second opinion derives it from the figure of a bird called starling, which appears about the cross in the ancient arms of England. The third most probably assigns its true origin, by deducing it from Esterling; for in the time of Henry III. it is called *Moneta Esterlingorum*, the money of the Esterlings or people of the East, who came hither to refine the silver of which it was made, and hence it was valued more than any other coin, on account of the purity of its substance. The denomination of the weights and their parts is of the Saxon or Esterling tongue, as pound, shilling, penny, and farthing, which are so called in their language to the present day. The term sterling is now disused in England in all ordinary transactions, but is still used in Scotland to distinguish sums from the ancient money of the country, as referred to in old deeds and notices of pecuniary transactions. The old Scots' money, previous to the Union of 1707, was in pounds, shillings, and pence, but these were only a twelfth of the value of sterling money of the same denomination; thus a pound Scots was only twenty pence sterling. The word sterling is also in use in the colonies, to distinguish the legal standard of Great Britain from the currency money in these places.

It is customary to estimate the purity of gold by an imaginary standard of 24 carats. If in a piece of gold weighing 24 carats there be 1-24th of alloy, then the piece is one below the standard. What is called jewelers' gold is seldom purer than 20 fine to 4 of alloy—the alloy being usually silver, but sometimes copper, which gives a deeper red tinge to the metal. Perfectly pure gold is never seen either in trinkets or coins, for it is too ductile, and for that and other reasons requires a certain quantity of alloy. Sovereigns, and other modern English gold coins, contain one-twelfth of alloy, but this twelfth is not reckoned as gold in point of value. At present the gold coin of Great Britain is issued at very nearly its precise market value as bullion. A pound weight of gold of 22 carats fineness produces coins to the amount of £46 14s. 6d., which is about the price at which bullion sells for in the market. Thus the gold of that country is coined free of expense. In coining silver, the government is allowed, by the Act of 56 Geo. III., a profit or seigniorage of about six per cent.; the pound weight of silver, which should produce 62 shillings, being coined into 66 shillings. The silver coins being therefore of a little less real value than the sums they represent, they are not liable to be melted down by silversmiths for the manufacture of articles in their trade.

The word *money* is from the Temple of Juno *Moneta*, in which money was first coined by the ancients. *Pecuniary* is from *pecus*, a flock—flocks and herds of animals being originally equivalent to money, or things constituting wealth. *Cash*, in commerce, signifies ready money, or actual coin paid on the instant, and is from the French word *caisse*, a coffer or chest in which money is kept. *Pound* never was a coin ; the term was originally employed to signify a pound weight of silver, but afterwards it was employed to mean twenty shillings in tale, or by counting. *Guinea* took its name from the coast of Guinea in Africa, whence the gold for it was originally brought; at first, the piece was current at twenty shillings, afterwards it was equal to 21s. 6d., and finally settled at 21s. In the present day the guinea is not coined, and the term only remains to indicate 21s. Honorary fees and gifts are still usually reckoned in guineas, though paid in other money. *Shilling* and *penny* are both from Saxon words ; the penny was first coined in silver. *Groat* was a name given to silver pieces equal to four pennies in value, coined by Edward III. ; the word groat is a corruption of *grosses* or great pieces, and was given to distinguish this larger coinage from pennies or small coins. *Farthing* is a corruption of *fourthing*, or the fourth part of a penny.

UNITED STATES, COINED MONEY OF THE.

What is termed money in the United States now consists of gold, silver, nickel and composition coins, and the paper currency, or bills, issued by the banks under a national banking law.

In compliance with the first section of the Act of March 3, 1873, the director of the mint made the subjoined estimate of the value in United States money of the standard coins of foreign countries, and by order of the Secretary of the Treasury, January 1, 1880, these rates were to be taken in estimating the values of all foreign merchandise made out in any of said currencies, imported on and after that date.

COUNTRY.	MONETARY UNIT.	STANDARD.	VAL. IN U. S. MONEY.	STANDARD COIN.
Austria	Florin	Silver	.41,3	
Belgium	Franc	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Bolivia	Boliviano	Silver	.83,6	Boliviano.
Brazil	Milreis, 1,000 reis	Gold	.54,5	
British Pos. in N. A.	Dollar	Gold	$1.00	
Central America	Peso	Silver	.83,6	Peso.
Chili	Peso	Gold	.91,2	Condor, doubloon, and escudo.
Denmark	Crown	Gold	.26,8	10 and 20 crowns.
Ecuador	Peso	Silver	.83,6	Peso.
Egypt	Pound, 100 Piasters	Gold	4.97.4	5, 10, 25, and 50 piasters.
France	Franc	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Great Britain	Pound Sterling	Gold	4.86,6½	½ sovereign and sovereign.
Greece	Drachma	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 drachmas.
German Empire	Mark	Gold	.23,8	5, 10, and 20 marks.
India	Rupee, 16 annas	Silver	.39,7	
Italy	Lira	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 lire.
Japan	Yen (gold)	Gold and Silver	.99,7	1, 2, 5, 10, and 20 yen.
Liberia	Dollar	Gold	1.00	
Mexico	Dollar	Silver	.90,9	Peso or dollar, 5, 10, 25 and 50 centavos
Netherlands	Florin	Gold and Silver	.40,2	
Norway	Crown	Gold	.26,8	10 and 20 crowns.
Peru	Sol	Silver	.83,6	Sol.
Portugal	Milreis, 1,000 reis	Gold	1.08	2, 5, and 10 milreis.
Russia	Rouble, 100 copecks	Silver	.66,9	¼, ½, and 1 rouble.
Sandwich Islands	Dollar	Gold	1.00	
Spain	Peseta, 100 centimes	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 pesetas.
Sweden	Crown	Gold	.26,8	10 and 20 crowns.
Switzerland	Franc	Gold and Silver	.19,3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Tripoli	Mahbub, 20 piasters	Silver	.74,8	
Turkey	Piaster	Gold	.04.4	25, 50, 100, 250, and 500 piasters.
U. S. of Colombia	Peso	Silver	.83,6	Peso.

The gold pieces are:

1. The double eagle, or $20 piece. Coinage of the double eagle was authorized by the Act of March 3, 1849. Its weight is 516 grains. Its fineness is 900. (This technical form of expression means that 900 parts in 1,000 are pure metal, the other 100 parts are alloy.) The amount of coinage of the double eagle is far greater than that of all the other gold pieces of the country.

2. The eagle, or $10 piece. Its coinage was authorized by the Act of April 2, 1792. The weight was first established by law at 270 grains, but was changed forty-two years afterward, by the Act of June 28, 1834, to 258 grains, where it has remained ever since. Its fineness was in the beginning made 916⅔, but was changed by the Act of June 28, 1834, the same Act that lowered its weight, to 899.225. Two years and a half subsequently its fineness was increased—less than one part in a thousand—to 900. Its weight and fineness have remained thus fixed to the present day.

3. The half eagle, or $5 piece. This elegant coin has undergone the same vicissitudes as the eagle. Its coinage was authorized by the same Act of April 2, 1792. Its weight was 135 grains and its fineness 916½. By the Act of June 28, 1834, its weight was reduced to 129 grains and its fineness to 899.225. By the act of January 16, 1857, its fineness was slightly raised to the uniform standard of 900. Its weight and fineness have thus remained to our time.

4. The quarter eagle, or $2.50 piece. This fine coin belongs to the same family with the eagle and half eagle. Its coinage was authorized, its weight and fineness correspondingly altered by the same Acts. The statute of 1792 made its weight 67.5 grains and its fineness 916½. Its weight was reduced to 64.5 grains and its fineness to 800.225 by the Act of 1834. The Act of 1837 raised its fineness to 900.

5. The dollar. This pretty little gold piece was created by the Act of March 3, 1849, the same Act that authorized the coinage of the double eagle. It has remained unchanged. Its weight is 25.8 grains and its fineness 900.

6. Three-dollar piece. An act of February 21, 1853, established this irregular coin. Its weight, 77.4 grains, and its fineness, 900, are of the normal standard, and have not been changed by subsequent Acts

In gold coin the alloy was at first a compound of silver and copper. It was forbidden by statute that the alloy should be more than half silver. It is now nearly all copper, owing to advances in the art of assaying and improved methods in coinage.

There are four coining mints, located at Philadelphia, Pa.; San Francisco, Cal.; Carson City, Nev.; and New Orleans, La., the last one being put in operation on January 20, 1879. The largest proportion of assaying and refining is done at New York City; Helena, Montana; Boise City, Idaho; and Denver, Colorado.

The Philadelphia Mint is capable of turning out about $1,500,000 in coined money a month; the San Francisco Mint $1,000,000, the Carson City Mint $500,000, and the New Orleans Mint about 500,000 pieces of various denominations. Under the law of February 28, 1878, which required that between 2,000,000 and 4,000,000 of the new ("Bland") dollars should be turned out by the mints every month, the coining facilities of the government were severely tested to produce this particular silver coin, and maintain the usual supply of gold and subsidiary coins. Silver is sent from the assay offices to the mints pure, or 999 fine, which is about as pure as silver can be. It is sent in large bars, and, when received at the mint, is melted and alloyed with copper. Coin silver is 900 fine.

The first silver coins were struck in 1794 (authorized in 1792), at the Philadelphia Mint, and consisted of 1,758 dollars and 10,600 half dollars, and a few half dimes (5 cents), more for curiosities than use. In the succeeding year the issue was 203,033 dollars, 323,038 half dollars, no quarters, no dimes, and 86,416 half dimes. In 1796 the mint coined only 72,920 dollars and 3,918 half dollars, with 2,948 quarters. In 1797 the number of dollars issued was 2,776, and the mint records state that there were no half dollars and only 252 quarters. Dollars only were coined in 1798. In 1796 the head of Liberty was changed, and a new head, inferior in point of comeliness, substituted. This also had flowing locks, but these were bound by a broad fillet, and hence the name "fillet dollars." In 1798 there were no halves nor quarters, and there were none in 1799, nor again in 1800. But in the following year the half dollars were commenced again, being of the fillet series, with the heraldic eagle on the reverse.

1804 is the annus mirabilis of the American silver coins. According to the records, 19,570 dollars were issued, 156,514 halves, and 6,738 quarters. There are but two dollars of 1804 known to exist, and these are said to have been struck surreptitiously from the original die at the Philadelphia mint in 1827. The value of these two to numismaticians is enormous; as high as $1,000 has been refused for one of them.

The first dollar pieces (1792) contained 416 grains of silver of 892.7 fineness, and this proportion was maintained until 1873, when the quantity of silver was reduced to 412.5 grains, and the fineness increased to 900. The fifty-cent pieces, from 1792 to 1837, contained 208 grains, 892.7 fineness, and the twenty-five cent pieces a proportionate amount; and both were subjected to a reduction in number of grains and increase in fineness in 1873. The ten-cent pieces contained 41.6 grains, of standard fineness, and now bear 38.58 grains under the new standard of fineness. From 1851 to 1853, the five-cent pieces were composed of 12.375 grains, 750 fine, and from 1853 to 1873, when their coinage was abolished, 11.52 grains, 900 fine. The old copper cents, authorized in 1792, contained 264 grains; the next year the amount was reduced to 208, and three years later to 168. As a purely copper token this coin was abolished shortly after the last reduction in the number of grains. The two-cent piece of April, 1864, contained 96 grains of copper, zinc, and tin, and was discontinued in 1873. The half-cent pieces were established in 1792, containing 132 grains; this amount was reduced in 1793 to 104, and in 1796 to 84. None are coined now. An Act of March, 1875, authorized the coinage of a silver twenty-cent piece, containing 77.16 grains, 900 fine. This coin being but a trifle smaller than the twenty-five cent piece, led to such a general confusion of the two, that in 1878 its coinage was stopped. But few are now found in circulation. The one-cent piece of present use was authorized in 1857, and consisted of 72 grains of copper and nickel, and in 1864 this composition was changed to 48 grains of copper, zinc, and tin. Finally, the five and three cent nickel pieces were authorized in 1866 and 1865 respectively; the latter has a comparatively small circulation.

The amount of standard silver dollars coined from February 28, 1878, to October 31, 1882, was $128,329 880, of which $93,006,382 remained in the Treasury, and $35,323,498 was placed in circulation. Of the $30,007,175 coined in the thirteen months preceding October 31, 1882, $2,950,072 went into circulation, and $27,057,103 remained in the Treasury.

The total value of the minor coin in the Treasury on September 1, 1882, was $504,515.29. The supply of five-cent nickel coins in the Treasury, which three years previous reached the sum of $1,184,252.95, had been exhausted, and their coinage was resumed by the mint. None of these coins are supplied by the Treasury, but the one-cent and five-cent

pieces are furnished in multiples of $20 by the Mint, which bears the expense of their transportation.

Savings Banks.—These are banks for receiving and taking charge of small sums, the savings of industry, and were instituted for the benefit of workmen and others, who were able to spare a little from their earnings. It is believed that Quaker thrift in Philadelphia, Pa., led to the inception of the idea, and that the first savings bank in the world was founded in that city in 1816. As the scheme grew in popularity throughout the United States, guardians of minor children, administrators of estates of deceased persons, and other holders of trust funds, found the savings banks very serviceable as places of deposit for money that had to be laid away for a specified period of time. Hence, the exigencies of business transactions forced an innovation upon the original plan. In the United States this use of savings banks is still maintained; but during the past fifteen years Safe Deposit and Trust Companies have been numerously established for the special purpose of holding funds, both in trust and in legal dispute, besides securities of all kinds, jewelry, diamonds, and articles of like value. Thus a guardian, an administrator, or a society will invest money in Government, State, or City bonds, or, if permitted by the terms of trust, in real estate or stock of various corporations, and place the bond, certificate of stock, or other acknowledgment of the indebtedness, with a Safe Deposit or Trust Company, for safe-keeping. The savings banks are allowed by law to invest their money in first-class securities only, so as to prevent their officers from using the fund in the irregular pursuit of "wild cat" speculations.

The average rate of interest allowed by savings banks in the United States on deposits is four per cent.; it is frequently below that rate. Some of the larger banks will not permit individual deposits beyond a special amount at one time, while others decrease the rate of interest as the amount of deposits increases, claiming that their vast aggregates of deposits cannot be invested, under the law, in a manner that will warrant the maximum rate of interest after paying current expenses.

From Philadelphia the original conception or plan of the savings bank extended all over the United States, throughout the United Kingdom, France, and other countries. Several Acts of Parliament were successively passed between 1817 and 1828 for the regulation of savings banks in England; and in the year last mentioned the whole of these were consolidated in one statute (9 Geo. IV., chap. 92). This Act, together with another passed in 1833, conferring additional and important privileges on savings banks (3 Will. IV., chap. 14), constitutes the existing law relative to these establishments. In 1835 the Act was extended to Scotland.

Savings banks established according to the provisions of these acts are entitled National Security Savings Banks, because the money deposited in them is paid into the Bank of England on account of government, whereby the nation becomes security for the amount of deposits—a security reckoned the best of all that could be given to the depositors. The interest given by government on the sums so deposited is £3 16s. 0½d. per cent. per annum, whatever may be the fluctuations in the value of the public funds during the term of investment. This rate of interest being higher than what government could otherwise borrow money for, it happens that the public are really losing money annually by their generosity. The rate of interest payable to the depositors is £3 8s. 5¼d. per cent. per annum.

Deposits of from *one shilling* to *thirty pounds* may be received by these banks; but no individual depositor is allowed to lodge more than thirty pounds in one year, or than £150 in whole. Charitable and provident institutions may lodge funds to the amount of £100 in a single year, or £300 in all; and friendly societies are permitted to deposit the whole of their funds, whatever may be their amount. Compound interest is given on the sums lodged, the interest being added to the principal at the end of each year in some banks, and at the end of each half-year in others, and interest afterwards allowed on the whole. Any depositor may receive, on demand, the money lodged by him, if it do not amount to a considerable sum; and even in that case it will be returned on a few days', or at most two or three weeks' notice. Practically, payment is always made on demand.

Several new features of taking care of small savings have been instituted that deserve mention in this connection. Let us glance first at the operations of the so-called creditors' loan societies of Germany, founded by Schulze-Delitzsch, and which practically discharge the function of banks for workingmen. In 1878 these numbered upwards of 1,800, and the balances reported by 929 show aggregate advances for the year amounting to $375,000,000—a sum which, distributed among the laboring population, should have afforded material relief in a time of financial stringency. The 929 reporting societies contain nearly half a million members, and the funds deposited in the year ending January 1, 1878, amounted to nearly $90,000,000. It appears that the total transactions for that twelvemonth exceeded those of 1876 by over $6,000,000, and the proportion of capital to deposits was about two per cent. better than in the year before. The aggregate capital of all the co-operative societies organized by Schulze-Delitzsch, and reporting to the central office (including those intended for production and consumption as well as credit) is $40,000,000.

Impressive testimony to the stability and usefulness of these workmen's banks is the success with which they have withstood the recent prostration of industry and commerce in the German Empire. Indeed, the system is so well accredited by experience that it has been introduced in other parts of Europe, and especially in Italy and Belgium, where co-operative credit banks have become numerous enough to form unions, and hold congresses.

The second of these novel schemes is the system of Penny Banks, introduced into England in 1857, the first being opened at Greenock, where five thousand depositors availed themselves of its advantages in the first year. From year to year penny banks have been on the increase, and from recent statistics it has been shown that at the present time progress is in every way satisfactory.

Rapid as has been the progress of the penny-bank movement in England, it is far behind France and Belgium. In both those countries, school banks have been instituted with much greater success than has hitherto crowned the attempt made in England, and it is to the development of these

school-banks that the marvelous increase in the total amount deposited in savings banks generally is to be attributed. In France, the movement is of very recent origin; nevertheless, up to December, 1866, penny banks had been introduced into fifty-three out of eighty-two departments, 3,200 school banks were established, and no fewer than 230 000 scholars had deposited in excess of the total limit, and had transferred their accounts to ordinary savings banks.

In Belgium an admirable plan is adopted. Prizes are given by the government to elementary scholars for general proficiency, in the shape of a deposit book, with a small sum entered therein to the credit of the recipient. In this way good conduct is rewarded, and in addition a practical lesson in thrift is imparted. In the years 1873–5, 1,051 deposit books were distributed in this way.

Mr. Oulton, the chairman of the School Management Committee of the Liverpool School Board, advocates that a savings bank should be established in every school in the kingdom; not merely that the school building should be used for the purpose, as it very properly is already in many neighborhoods, but that the penny bank should be "an element in the school routine, the text-book of thrift, the visible illustration in the object lesson of economy. . . . . Penny banks should be to the lesson on thrift what pen, ink and paper are to the lesson on writing—the necessary concomitant." He pointed, as an evidence of the utility of these banks, to the Liverpool Penny Savings Bank Association, formed to sustain and extend the system of penny banks in and around Liverpool, and to promote their efficiency and good management. In the report for the year ending November 20th, 1877, it was shown that in seventy-four banks organized by this association, there had been 295,800 transactions during the year, £14,931 11s. 10d. had been deposited, £9,401 12s. 5d. withdrawn, and £4,063 13s. transferred to the Liverpool Savings Bank in the depositors' own names. There was at the end of the year an aggregate balance of £4,844 9s. 1d. due to 22,749 depositors.

One of the most pleasing features in connection with the movement is that so many of these banks avail themselves of the advantages offered by the Post Office Savings Bank as regards the gratuitous supply of books and information, and the investment of their funds with the government, thus obtaining a guaranty for their absolute security. This leads to a consideration of a third scheme. The report of the Postmaster General published in July, 1877, gives the following particulars. During 1876, authority was given for one hundred and seventy-two penny banks in various parts of the United Kingdom to invest their funds in the Post Office Savings Bank, and since that time the progress has been even more remarkable, one hundred and seventeen penny banks having been authorized during the quarter ending March 31st, 1877, exceeding by forty-one the number during the corresponding quarter in 1876. Of these two hundred and eighty-nine penny banks, eighteen were in board schools, twenty in Sunday schools, and thirty in other schools, one being in a Poor-law Union-school, under the management of the master and chaplain of the workhouse. Farthing deposits are received from these pauper children, and as much as £4 18s. was invested on behalf of the penny bank between April and December, 1876.

In England, at the close of the year 1876, after sixteen years' operation, the Postal Savings Bank had realized a net profit of over $5,500,000.

Shortly after the confederation of the provinces of the Dominion, the Post Office Act of 1867 was adopted by Parliament, and the formation of the Post Office Savings Bank was provided for. On the following 1st of April, the system went into operation, and at the end of the first quarter eighty-one offices had been established throughout the Dominion. On June 30th, 1869, two hundred and thirteen offices had been opened, and that number has been increased gradually until on June 30th, 1877, there were two hundred and eighty-seven branches in existence.

At the close of the fiscal year 1877, there had been 324,662 deposits made, and they amounted in all to $16,504,252. Of that amount $1,725,300 had been invested in Dominion five per cent. stock; $12,998,334 had been withdrawn, and the balance, standing to the credit of open accounts, and drawing interest, was $2,639,937. During the nine years and three months in which the bank had been doing business 90,416 accounts had been opened, 66,342 closed, and on June 30, 1877, 24,074 were open. The average amount of each account open was $109.60. Interest to the amount of $859.319 had been allowed depositors. Each deposit averaged about $50, and the withdrawals $75. The average cost of each transaction—viz. of each deposit or withdrawal—was less than twenty-three cents, and the total expense of management, including salaries, compensation to Postmasters, inspection, printing, stationery, and other items, was $117,563.78, or an average of about $11,000 per annum.

Every post office, being a money-order office, is open for the purpose of the savings bank, during the money-order office hours. Deposits may be made in amounts of $1 or any number of dollars (cents not being received), provided the deposits made in any one year ending June 30 do not exceed $300, and provided the total amount standing in such depositor's name on the books of the Postmaster General does not exceed $1,000 exclusive of interest. This provision is made to prevent the system from clashing with the general banking business of the country. The privilege of purchasing Dominion five per cent. stock is allowed the depositor, so that if he desires to still use the Post Office Savings Bank after he has accumulated $1,000, he can have that amount, or any portion of it not less than $100, transferred to Dominion stock, redeemable on three months' notice, at the office of the Receiver General at Ottawa, or at those of his deputies at Halifax, St. John, Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg or Victoria. Such stock is not transferable, and no one depositor is allowed to be the holder of more than $1,000 worth. It will thus be seen that the savings banks cannot be used for more than $2,000 by any one person.

Every individual on making a first deposit is required to give his name, occupation, and residence, and to sign a declaration that he is not directly or indirectly entitled to any sum or sums standing in his own name, or in that of any other person on the books of the Post Office Savings Bank, and consenting to his deposits being governed by the regulations of the bank. A provision of the declaration is that if

any portion of it is not true, the depositor shall forfeit all the right and title to his deposit. Interest calculated yearly at the rate of four per cent. per annum is allowed on deposits, and is computed from the first of the calendar month next following the deposit up to the first of the month in which moneys are withdrawn. On the 30th of June, every year, interest is calculated on the amount to the depositors' credit, and is added to and becomes part of the principal money.

Postmasters of savings-bank offices add the deposits made with them daily to their money-order funds, and likewise pay savings-bank checks issued on their offices out of money-order funds, and embody in their accounts to the money-order branch a recapitulation of their savings-bank transactions, enclosing as vouchers for payments on savings bank account the checks paid during the period to which the account relates. The balance of the business is adjusted between the money-order and the savings-bank branches, the excess of deposits over withdrawals being paid over by the money-order branch to the Receiver General, on account of the Post Office Savings Bank.

How to Make Up for Amateur Theatricals

With the professional actor a knowledge of the art of making up is absolutely indispensable. Although it is only one of the mechanical effects connected with his role it is an important one. Most persons who go in for amateur theatricals are unable to get themselves up for their parts as well as they would wish to. To them a few hints, stolen from professional sources, will be, doubtless, welcome. The requisite supplies can be obtained from any theatrical costumer, when not obtainable at the druggist's, or elsewhere.

Paint, powder, glue, and hair are the principal articles necessary for the various purposes. A hare's-foot, camel's-hair brush, some alcohol, vaseline and cold cream are other essential items. A box of grease paints will be found the most useful and easy for general purposes. They can be purchased for a small sum, and free from poisonous ingredients.

A woman of middle age who desires to take the part of a young girl can very easily overcome the encroachments of time by manipulation. First a foundation color of pale pink must be rubbed in carefully all over the face. With a deeper shade of pink color the sockets of the eyes, cheek-bones, and the depressions between ears and eyes must then be finished, care being taken to merge the colors gradually together where they meet.

In order to bring out the eyes more effectively a fine line of paint must be drawn along the lower lid, of the same color as the eyes themselves, a broader line being added to the upper lid. With puff or brush the powder should next be applied, in order to deaden the shine of the paint and lend a youthful bloom to the complexion. The color of eyebrows and lashes may be deepened and a touch of rouge given to the lips to complete the make-up.

When it is necessary for a young person to take an old character a reverse policy in the way of color is followed. The foundation color must be very pale and inclined to sallowness. Brown gray or deep red paint should be used to form shadows round the eyes. These may also be made across the temples, from the bridge of the nose to the chin, in the cavities of the neck, and in front of the ears. Any sunken part of the face can be darkened with good effect, or the places where the depressions would occur later in life may be colored. By this means the lines will have a perfectly natural appearance.

Wrinkles are another great stock-in-trade of the make-up business. To produce the proper article the face must be drawn into wrinkles first and their lines followed with paint of a dark hue, the corresponding ridge being imitated by lines of a brighter shade. Other shadow lines can be brought out more distinctly by contrasting lines of light paint. When the two shades have been laid on, the finger should be drawn along the ridge between the two to soften the distinction, and powder put over all to deaden any effect of ghastliness or exaggeration.

There are a number of tricks resorted to in order to change the appearance of the face. In some of these operations putty comes in very usefully. Stage putty is a little more sticky than the ordinary article, and with its aid the nose can be made any shape, the chin altered, and the cheek-bones either flattened out or sharpened. The putty must be put on before the grease paint is used, so that it will look like the other portions of the face when finished.

The lips are a very important feature, and caricatured Irishmen, Dutchmen, Jews or Ethiopians can be often produced by a characteristic dash of the paint-brush. By painting the upper lip white clear down to the mouth this feature can be greatly exaggerated. For a protruding lower lip, *à la* negro, the lower lip must be painted bright red and the top one left untouched. Grotesque mouths can be made of either saturnine or comical tendency by a red streak either upward or downward, extending from either end of the mouth on to the cheeks. Red lines under the lower lashes of the eyes will give a look of dissipation, and dark red along the upper lids will give a heavy, stupid effect. Shoemaker's wax stuck in front of the teeth will present the appearance of missing members.

We now come to the use of hair for stage effects. The ready-made wig is almost an essential, but beards can be made of crape hair and gauze, the latter serving as foundation for the hair. Beards can be held by a band of elastic passed over the top of the head behind the ears and hidden by the wig or natural hair. Spirit glue is used to fasten down the parts around the mouth and fix the beard in position. The mustache, made of the same material, is fastened on with spirit glue, and can be either attached to the beard or used separately. For the most natural results crape hair attached directly to the face is much the best, but where rapid changes must be made it is not serviceable. The hair is sold by the yard, and can be bought in all shades. The manipulation of it is not difficult. The hair can be cut in lengths desired and straightened out on a comb by wetting it if it is curly or crimpy and such be not desired. It should be arranged in tufts and attached to the skin with spirit glue. Any kind and color of hirsute adornment can be provided in this way. After the hair is well fixed on the face it should be trimmed with scrissors to the desired style. By this means either a

full beard, Vandyke, goatee, or mutton-chop effect can easily be produced. Bald, gray, and Romeo wigs are purchasable at reasonable prices, or can be made by deft hands from the camel's hair, a foundation of gauze, silk or cloth, cut to the required shape, being used. Where a bald effect is required the space can be occupied by a piece of flesh-colored satin or even parchment in an extremity. An old bonnet or hat-frame can be used under the gauze, so that the wig will rest securely upon the head when completed, or a coil of wire to pass around the ears may be substituted.

No trouble will be experienced in getting the hair and paint off the face if proper materials are used. One of the most important things is to have the spirit glue properly constituted. The proper ingredients for making it are white shellac, gum mastic, and ether. When a beard has been built on to the face a good deal of the hair can be pulled out to start with, and some alcohol and a rag will remove the remainder. The paint, powder, and putty can be eased off by rubbing the face thoroughly with vaseline or cocoa butter, and afterward wiping with a linen cloth. Castile soap and water will effectually clear off anything else that remains, and a little cold cream will comfort the skin if it is apt to chap or feel sore.

MISCELLANEOUS

LEGAL HOLIDAYS IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE nation has no legal holidays, although by statute it recognizes some State holidays to the extent of allowing national banks, the post-offices and the nation's employees in general to conform to local custom. There are no legal holidays in Arkansas, Kansas and Mississippi, although work is suspended by common consent in Kansas on the holidays most generally celebrated in other States; Arkansas and Mississippi "keep" Christmas and the Fourth of July, without legal enactment. Holidays provided by State laws are as follows:

JAN. 1.—New Year's Day: in all States but Arkansas, Kansas, Mississippi, Massachusettts, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire.

JAN. 8.—Anniversary of Battle of New Orleans: Louisiana.

JAN. 19.—General Lee's Birthday: Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, and Virginia.

FEB. 12.—Lincoln's Birthday: Illinois, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, and Washington.

FEB. 22.—Washington's Birthday: all States but Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, and Mississippi.

MARCH 2.—Anniversary of Texan Independence: Texas.

MARCH 4.—Fireman's Anniversary in New Orleans, La.

APRIL 19.—Patriots' Day: Massachusetts.

APRIL 21.—Anniversary of Battle of San Jacinto: Texas.

APRIL 26.—Memorial Day: Alabama, Florida, and Georgia.

MAY 10.—Memorial Day: North Carolina.

MAY 20.—Anniversary of Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence: North Carolina.

MAY 30.—Decoration Day: in Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Wisconsin, Washington, and Wyoming.

JUNE 3.—Jefferson Davis's Birthday: Alabama and Florida.

JULY 4.—Independence Day: in all States but Arkansas, Mississippi, and Kansas.

JULY 24.—Pioneers' Day: Utah.

AUG. 16.—Bennington Battle-day: Vermont.

SEPT. (first Saturday of).—Labor Day: Pennsylvania.

SEPT. (first Monday of).—Labor Day: Alabama, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming.

SEPT. 9.—Admission Day: California.

SEPT. (second Saturday of).—Labor Day: Florida.

OCT. (first Monday of).—Labor Day: California.

OCT. 15.—Lincoln Day: Connecticut.

OCT. 31.—Admission Day: Nevada.

NOV. 1.—All Saints' Day: Louisiana.

NOV. (first Tuesday after first Monday of).—General Election Day: Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Caro-

lina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, West Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

Nov. (last Wednesday of).—Labor Day: Louisiana.

Nov. (last Thursday of).—Thanksgiving Day: observed in all States in compliance with Governors' proclamations.

Dec. 25.—Christmas: all States but Arkansas, Kansas, and Mississippi.

Arbor Day (celebrated on different dates, according to proclamation or statute): in Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Wisconsin, Wyoming, Rhode Island, Texas, and Utah.

Saturday afternoons are legal holidays in Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and the cities of New Orleans, Wilmington (Del.), as well as in Newcastle County, Del., and Denver, Col., from June 1 to September 30.

Of holidays on varying dates are Good Friday, in Alabama, Louisiana, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee; Mardi Gras, in Alabama and the Parish of Orleans, La.; State Election Day, in Rhode Island in early April.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT OF TWENTY COUNTRIES.

(Named in the Order of their Value.)

United States.—Sugar; coffee and tea; hides, skins and furs; woolen goods; chemicals; manufactures of silk, linen, and cotton; manufactures of iron and steel; lumber, wood, and products of; fruit and nuts; tobacco and cigars; india rubber; earthenware; glassware. Total value, in 1896, $780,000,000.

Canada.—Manufactures of steel and iron; coal and coke; manufactures of wool; sugar; coffee and tea; cotton; silk and its products; hides, leaf tobacco. Total, in 1895, $111,000,000.

United Kingdom (the British Isles).—Grain and flour; raw cotton; wool; meats; lumber and wood; sugar; butter; silk, and products thereof; tea; live animals (principally for food); copper, iron and tin; flax, hemp and jute; woolen goods. Total, in 1896, about $2,200,000,000.

France.—Raw wool; raw silk; wine; coffee; coal and coke; raw cotton; grain and flour; oil seeds (principally linseed); hides and furs; lumber and wood; live cattle. Total, for 1896, about $720,000,000.

Germany.—Food materials; cotton; metals, and products thereof; fats and oils; chemicals; woodenware; animal products; leather; fuel; machinery. Total, in 1895, about $850,000,000.

Austria-Hungary.—Cotton and cotton yarns; wool and woolen yarns; coffee: coal and fuel; machinery; silk; tobacco; hides and skins; leather; grain. Total, in 1895, about $355,000,000.

Russia.—Raw cotton, cotton yarn, etc.; metals; wool and woolen yarns; machinery; other manufactures of metal; tea; coloring materials and chemicals; silk; coal and coke; leather; fish; wines and spirits. Total, in 1895, about $280,000,000.

Holland.—Grain and flour; chemicals and drugs; copper; coal; sugar; rice; wood; hides and skins; oils, fats, etc.; saltpeter. Total, in 1895, about $580,000,000.

Spain.—Grain and other food material, except meat; cotton and its products; animals and meat; drugs and chemicals; timber, lumber, etc.; machinery; metals; silks; manufactures of metal. Total, in 1895, about $138,000,000.

Italy.—Raw cotton, cotton yarn, etc.; wheat; coal; silk (principally raw); hides; machinery; timber and lumber; wool; dried fish; coffee; tobacco; horses; sugar. Total, in 1895, about $220,000,000.

Belgium.—Grain and flour; wool and cotton; drugs and chemicals; timber and lumber; hides; resins, gums, etc.; metals; meat and food animals; coffee; wines; coal and coke. Total, in 1895, about $320,000,000.

Brazil.—Cotton goods; woolen goods; machinery; coal; flour; rice; dried fish; pork, beef cattle, dried and salted beef; petroleum and its products. Total, in 1895, $145,000,000.

Argentine Republic.—Linen, cotton, and woolen goods; manufactures of iron; manufactures of wood; coal and coke; liquors; chemicals; paper of various kinds; pottery and glass; railway material. Total, in 1895, about $85,000,000.

Chili.—Clothing and material therefor; articles of food; machinery; household utensils; railway material; tools; drugs and medicines; wines and liquors. Total, in 1894, about $49,000,000.

China.—Cotton goods; opium; metals; petroleum oils; fish and other sea-food; woolen goods; coal; raw cotton. Total, in 1895, about $137,000,000.

Japan.—Raw cotton and cotton yarns; sugar; steamships; blankets; petroleum oils; iron and ironware; rice; cotton cloth; woolen cloth; machinery, for mills of many kinds; grain. Total, in 1895, about $137,000,000.

India.—Cotton goods; manufactures of metal; machinery; oils; sugar; silk; clothing; liquors; railway materials; coal. Total, in 1896, about $180,000,000.

Mexico.—Cotton goods; machinery; tools; woolen goods; agricultural implements; boots and shoes: food materials. Total, in 1896, about $40,000,000 (gold).

New South Wales.—Cotton goods; agricultural implements; tools; woolen goods; clothing; tea; wines and liquors. Total, in 1895, about $75,000,000.

Cape Colony.—Clothing (woolen); cotton goods; machinery; tools; leather, and products of; oils; liquors; tea. Total, in 1895, about $64,000,000.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT OF TWENTY COUNTRIES.

(Named in the Order of their Value.)

United States.—Raw cotton and cotton goods; grain and products thereof; meat and dairy products; manufactures of iron, steel, and wood; petroleum and its products; live animals; tobacco (in leaf and manufactured); copper (ore, metal, and manufactures thereof); leather and leather goods; machinery, and naval stores —rosin, tar, turpentine, etc. Total, in 1896, $863,000,000.

Canada.—Wood and manufactures of; cheese; grain

and its products; live animals, animal products; fish; lumber; minerals, and coal. Total, in 1895, $114,000,000.

UNITED KINGDOM.—(The British Isles.)—Fabrics of wool, cotton, and silk; manufactures of metal; machinery; articles of apparel: articles of food and drink, and chemicals. Total, in 1896, about $1,400,000,000.

FRANCE.—Manufactures, respectively, of wool and silk; wines; leather and leather goods; raw wool and yarn; raw silk and yarn; manufactures of cotton; linen and linen goods; skins and furs; chemicals; sugar; cheese and butter. Total, in 1896, about $630,000,000.

GERMANY.—Manufactures of wool, cotton, linen, and silk; metals and metal goods; chemicals, drugs, etc.; leather and leather goods; machinery; glassware and pottery; coal; woodenware, hardware, and beet sugar. Total, in 1895, about $700,000,000.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.—Timber and lumber; beet sugar; eggs; cattle; coal and other fuel; grain; hardware and glassware; horses and mules; gloves. Total, in 1895, about $370,000,000.

RUSSIA.—Grain and its food products; flax; timber; oil-grains (principally linseed); petroleum and its products; butter and eggs; hemp, and beet sugar. Total, in 1895, about $350,000,000.

HOLLAND.—Grain and its food products; drugs and chemicals; manufactures of iron and steel; manufactures of wool, cotton, linen, and silk; copper, sugar, coffee (the last three articles being largely from the nation's Asiatic colonies); paper; oleomargarine; vegetables, and flax. Total, in 1895, $471,000,000.

SPAIN.—Metals and minerals—quicksilver, copper, iron, zinc, and lead; wine; sugar (from Cuba and other colonial possessions); glassware; pottery; grain; live animals, and fruit. Total, in 1895, about $132,000,000.

ITALY.—Silk (principally raw); fresh fruits; olive oil; wines; hemp and flax; eggs; coral; (manufactures of); skins; domestic animals (live), and sulphur. Total, in 1895, about $202,000,000.

BELGIUM.—Iron and steel and their products; yarns of linen and wool; coal and coke; woven goods; hides and leather; chemicals; machinery; meats; glass, and sugar. Total, in 1895, about $270,000,000.

BRAZIL.—Raw cotton; raw sugar; coffee; india-rubber; hides; tallow, and cacao. Total, in 1895, about $145,000,000.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.—Wool; sheepskins; wheat; corn; meats; hides, and tallow. Total, in 1895, about $105,000,000.

CHILI.—Nitrate of soda and other minerals (crude) constitute more than three-fourths of Chili's exports. Total, in 1894, about $54,000,000.

CHINA.—Silk (raw and manufactured), and tea are the only articles of large export; straw braid, clothing, sugar, and pottery are exported to a limited extent. Total, for 1895, about $115,000,000.

JAPAN.—Raw silk and silk goods; tea; rice; coal; matches; copper and manufactures therof; matting; porcelain, and camphor. Total, for 1895, about $136,000,000.

INDIA.—Raw cotton and cotton goods; rice; jute, and products thereof; oil-giving seeds; opium; hides and skins; tea; indigo; lac (gum), and coffee. Total, in 1896, about $260,000,000.

MEXICO.—Silver, in ores, bars and coin, constitutes, in value, more than half of Mexico's exports; of merchandise exported the principal articles are coffee, sisal, hemp, wool, living animals, hides, gum, tobacco, and vanilla. Total, in 1896, $105,000,000 (silver).

NEW SOUTH WALES (the leading Australian colony).—Wool; tallow; fresh and preserved meats; hides and skins; leather; butter; copper and copper ore; lead and lead ore, and tin. Total, in 1895, about $100,000,000.

CAPE COLONY (British South Africa).—Gold bullion and ores; diamonds; goats' hair; hides and skins; ostrich feathers, and copper. Total, in 1895, about $80,000,000.

THE NAVIES OF TWENTY NATIONS IN 1896.

A comparative exhibit of the strength of the navies of the world could be given only by classifying all the vessels of each and every navy according to their tonnage displacement, age, number and caliber of guns of main batteries, etc.; it would be necessary also to give the speed of each vessel under steam; very few of those indicated below depend upon sail-power. At the present time a nation's fighting capacity on the ocean is estimated by the number and size of her battleships, to which cruisers bear about the relation that cavalry bears to the infantry and artillery of an army, although large armored cruisers, like the "New York" and "Brooklyn" of the United States Navy, would be used as and with battleships. Under the head of "Coast Defense" are enumerated battleships of a type too old and slow to be maneuvered against modern craft, yet which have powerful batteries; also most of our own "monitors" of various sizes. Under "Cruisers" are enumerated armed vessels of all classes; those of the weaker nations are small and would not be used at all in war with a strong power. A large portion of the Russian Navy is confined by treaty to the Black Sea, where it can be used only against Turkey. All the stronger nations are adding rapidly to the number of their battleships and armored cruisers.

	Battleships.	Coast Defense.	Cruisers.	Torpedo Boats.
Great Britain,	42	23	273	149
France,	44	14	149	211
Germany,	14	20	35	105
Russia,	16	16	74	177
Italy,	8	2	49	145
United States,	6	19	48	6
Spain,	1	1	113	38
Netherlands,	—	28	79	37
Austria,	8	8	28	56
Sweden,	—	17	14	16
Norway,	—	4	17	18
Denmark,	1	3	20	12
Portugal,	—	—	33	21
Turkey,	2	7	59	37
Greece,	—	3	23	17
Brazil,	1	7	14	14
Argentina,	—	2	19	14
Chili,	1	1	17	13
China,	—	—	11	34
Japan,	3	—	17	38

THE ARMIES (PEACE FOOTING) OF TWENTY NATIONS IN 1896.

Most nations other than the United States that are named below have large military reserves, under various names, composed of men who have already done sufficient duty in the ranks to be of immediate service in time of war. The figures given below are official in most cases, although how many men are really with the colors in Russia, Turkey and China will never be known definitely outside of those countries. Spain's army has been enormously increased, temporarily, by volunteers for special service in Cuba. Armies besides those named in our list are those of Afghanistan, about 20,000 men, naturally good soldiers and well armed; Mexico, 38,000 men, whose duty is principally to maintain order in the republic, and Persia, 53,000, although these are not believed competent to meet the troops of any European or Asiatic power that may have designs upon Persian territory. The army of Afghanistan, small though it is numerically, is a source of much uneasiness to Russia and England, both of which have courted the friendship of the Ameer, through whose country are the only practicable military passes between India and Central Asia. All the forces named below, except that of China, are well drilled and have modern weapons.

Great Britain,	222,000	Belgium,	52,000
France,	560,000	Denmark,	11,000
Germany,	585,000	Portugal,	35,000
Russia,	835,000	Turkey,	700,000
Italy,	235,000	Greece,	25,000
United States,	25,000	Brazil,	28,000
Spain,	80,000	Argentina,	11,000
Netherlands,	38,000	Chili,	9,000
Austria-Hungary,	360,000	China,	320,000
Sweden & Norway,	56,000	Japan,	99,000

DEBTS OF TWENTY PROMINENT COUNTRIES.

The following figures are from the last United States census report (1890), since which time there have been no great reductions, nor any great increase, except in the debt of Spain. The heaviest debt in proportion to population are in the British colonies in Australia and vicinity, the amount per capita ranging from $147.56 in Tasmania to $333.46 in Queensland.

Argentine Republic,	$ 284,867,069	Per capita,	$70.40
Austria-Hungary,	2,866,339,539	"	70.84
Brazil,	585,345,927	"	41.80
Canada,	237,533,212	"	47.51
Chili,	85,192,339	"	31.96
Egypt,	517,278,200	"	75.88
France,	4,446,793,398	"	116.35
German Empire,	77,577,719	"	1.57
Gt. Britain & Ireland,	3,350,719,563	"	87.79
Greece,	107,306,518	"	49.06
India,	881,003,592	"	3.27
Italy,	2,324,826,329	"	76.06
Japan,	305,727,816	"	7.83
Mexico (Silver),	113,606,675	"	9.98
Netherlands,	430,589,858	"	95.56
Peru (Silver),	382,175,655	"	145.77
Russia,	3,491,018,074	"	30.79
Spain,	1,251,453,696	"	73.85
Turkey,	821,000,000	"	37.20
United States,	915,962,112	"	14.63

DISTANCES IN MILES FROM NEW YORK TO ONE HUNDRED PROMINENT CITIES.

The cities named in this list are national or State capitals, principal seaports or commercial centers. The distances are not given geographically, but according to the routes most generally followed.

Adelaide, Australia,	12,845	Indianapolis, Ind.,	808
Albany, N. Y.,	142	Jacksonville, Fla.,	1,077
Alexandria, Egypt,	6 150	Kansas City, Mo.,	1,302
Amsterdam, Holland,	3,985	Liverpool, England,	3,540
Antwerp, Holland,	4,000	London, England,	3,740
Athens, Greece,	5,655	Louisville, Ky.,	854
Atlanta, Ga.,	882	Madrid, Spain,	4,925
Bahia, Brazil,	5,870	Melbourne, Aus'lia,	12,265
Baltimore, Md.,	188	Memphis, Tenn.,	1,163
Bangkok, Siam,	12,990	Mexico, Mex.,	3,750
Batavia, Java,	12,800	Milwaukee, Wis.,	985
Berlin, Germany,	4,385	Montgomery, Ala.,	1,057
Boise City, Idaho,	2,736	Montreal, Canada,	384
Bombay, India,	9,765	New Orleans, La.,	1,344
Boston, Mass.,	217	Omaha, Neb.,	1,383
Bremen, Germany,	4,235	Panama, Colombia,	2,355
Buenos Ayres, Arg.,	8,045	Paris, France,	4,020
Buffalo, N. Y.,	410	Philadelphia, Pa.,	90
Calcutta, India,	11,120	Pittsburg, Pa.,	431
Cap May, N. J.,	172	Portland, Me.,	325
Cape Town, S. Africa,	11,245	Portland, Ore.,	3,181
Carson City, Nev.,	3,036	Prescott, Ariz.,	2,724
Charleston, S. C.,	804	Providence, R. I.,	189
Chattanooga, Tenn.,	853	Quebec, Canada,	558
Cheyenne, Wyo.,	1,899	Richmond, Va.,	344
Chicago, Ill.,	900	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil,	6,204
Cincinnati, O.,	744	Rome, Italy,	5,030
Cleveland, O.,	568	Rotterdam, Holland,	3,935
Columbus, O.,	624	St. Louis, Mo.,	1,048
Concord, N. H.,	292	St. Paul, Minn.,	1,300
Constantinople, T'key,	5,810	St. Petersburg, Rus.,	5,370
Deadwood, S. D.,	1,957	Salt Lake City, Utah,	2,452
Denver, Col.,	1,930	San Francisco, Cal.,	3,250
Des Moines, Ia.,	1,257	Savannah, Ga.,	905
Detroit, Mich.,	743	Shanghai, China,	9,920
Dublin, Ireland,	3,420	Stockholm, Sweden,	4,975
Edinburgh, Scotland,	3,870	Sydney, Australia,	11,570
Florence, Italy,	4,800	Tacoma, Wash.,	3,209
Galveston, Tex.,	1,789	Topeka, Kan.,	1,370
Glasgow, Scotland,	3,375	Toronto, Canada,	473
Greytown, Cent. Am.,	2,810	Trenton, N. J.,	57
Halifax, N. S.,	645	Valparaiso, Chili,	5,910
Hamburg, Germany,	4,340	Vicksburg, Miss.,	1,288
Harrisburg, Pa.,	182	Vienna, Austria,	4,740
Hartford, Conn.,	112	Vinita, Indian Ter.,	1,412
Havana, Cuba,	1,413	Washington, D. C.,	228
Helena, Mont.,	2,423	Wheeling, W. Va.,	496
Hong Kong, China,	10,590	Wilmington, Del.,	117
Honolulu, Hawaii,	5,645	Wilmington, N. C.,	593
Hot Springs, Ark.,	1,367	Yokohama, Japan,	7,348

LENGTH AND COST OF AMERICAN CANALS.

	Miles.	Dollars.
Erie,	381	52,540,800
Ohio,	317	4,695,204
Miami and Erie,	274	8,062,680
Pennsylvania,	193	7,731,750
Chesapeake and Ohio,	184	11,290,327
Delaware and Hudson,	111	6,339,210
Schuylkill Navigation Co.,	108	12,461,600
Morris,	103	6,000,000
Illinois and Michigan,	102	7,357,787
Champlain,	81	4,044,000
Delaware and Raritan,	66	4,888,749
Delaware Division,	60	2,433,350

	Miles.	Dollars.
Lehigh Coal and Navigation Co.,	48	4,455,000
Susquehanna and Tidewater,	45	4,931,345
Albemarle and Chesapeake,	44	1,641,363
Hocking,	42	975,481
Oswego,	38	5,239,526
Galveston and Brazos,	38	340,000
Black River,	35	3,581,954
Dismal Swamp,	29	1,151,000
Cayuga and Seneca,	25	2,232,632
Walhouding,	25	607,269
Company's (Private)	22	90,000
Ogeechee,	16	407,818
Mussel Shoals,	16	3,156,919
Chesapeake and Delaware,	14	3,730,230
Santa Fe,	10	70,000
Augusta,	9	1,500,000
Sault Ste. Marie,	3	4,000,000

EXEMPT FROM FORCED SALES IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

	Personal property, value.	Acres of land.	Homestead, value.
Alabama,	$1000	160	$2000
Arkansas,	500	160	2500
California,	900	—	5000
Colorado,	1000	—	2000
Connecticut,	500	—	—
Delaware,	200	—	—
Florida,	1000	160	—
Georgia,	300	50	1600
Idaho,	300	—	5000
Illinois,	300	—	1000
Indiana,	600	—	—
Iowa,	200	40	—
Kansas,	800	160	—
Kentucky,	200	—	1000
Louisiana	2000 to cover value of all exemptions.		
Maine,	300	—	500
Maryland,	100	—	—
Massachusetts,	450	—	800
Michigan,	400	40	1500
Minnesota,	800	80	—
Mississippi,	550	80	2000
Missouri,	300	160	1500
Montana,	900	—	5000
Nebraska,	—	160	2000
Nevada,	900	—	5000
New Hampshire,	450	—	500
New Jersey,	200	—	1000
New York,	250	—	1000
North Carolina,	500	—	1000
North Dakota,	1500	160	—
Ohio,	100	—	1000
Oregon,	175	—	—
Pennsylvania,	300	—	—
Rhode Island,	500	—	—
South Carolina,	500	—	1000
South Dakota,	1500	160	—
Tennessee,	1200	—	1000
Texas,	—	200	5000
Utah,	—	—	1000
Vermont,	200	—	500
Virginia,	200	—	1000
Washington,	900	—	5000
West Virginia,	200	—	1000
Wisconsin,	450	40	—
Wyoming,	900	—	5000

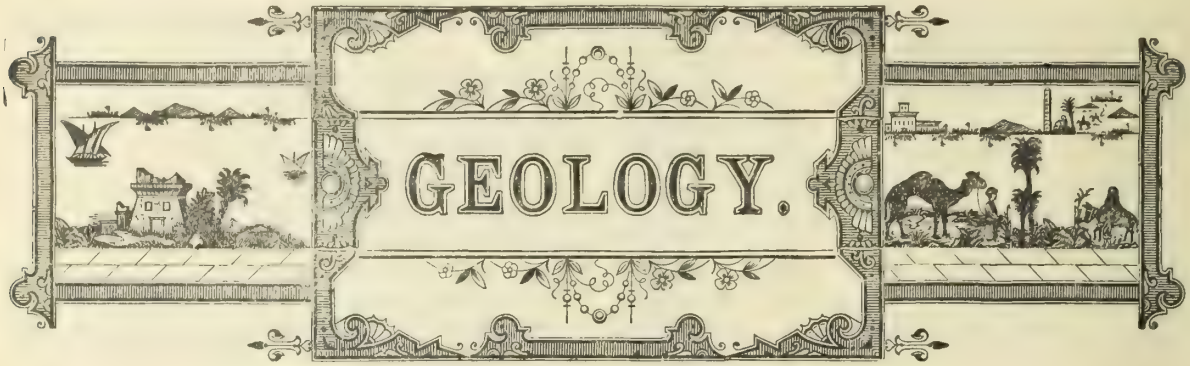
NOTED EVENTS IN THE WORLD'S HISTORY.

B.C.

3317. The Noachian Deluge.
1652. The Exodus from Egypt.
1184 (about). Destruction of Troy.
753. Rome founded.
721. End of Kingdom of Israel.
536. Restoration of the Jews to Jerusalem.
264. Rome became ruler of all Italy.
55. Julius Cæsar invaded Britain.
4. Birth of Jesus.

A.D.

30. The Crucifixion.
70. Destruction of Jerusalem.
395. Roman Empire divided into Eastern and Western Empires.
449. The Saxons invaded Britain.
476. End of the Western (Roman) Empire—Italy became a Kingdom.
887. Western Empire finally divided.
912. The Normans settled in France.
1066. William the Norman conquered England.
1076. Jerusalem taken by the Turks.
1099. Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders.
1215. Magna Charta signed by King John.
1291. The Holy Land retaken by the Turks.
1429–31. Joan of Arc's rise and death.
1442. Invention (in Europe) of Printing.
1453. Constantinople taken by the Turks.
1492. Columbus discovered the Western World.
1509–56. The Rise of Protestantism.
1534. Separation of England from the Roman Church.
1579. Drake circumnavigated the world.
1588. Spanish Armada destroyed.
1618. The "Thirty Years' War" (in Europe) began.
1620. "Pilgrim Fathers" landed at Plymouth.
1648. The "Peace of Westphalia."
1649. Charles I. beheaded—The English Commonwealth declared.
1682. Russia's rise under Peter the Great began.
1687. Newton announced the principle of Gravitation.
1763. Steam-engine invented.
1770. The Boston Massacre.
1776. Declaration of Independence signed.
1783. Peace declared between America and Great Britain.
1789. French Revolution began.
1789. U. S. Constitution adopted—Washington inaugurated.
1793. Reign of Terror in France.
1804. Napoleon proclaimed Emperor of France, May 18.
1807. Fulton's first steamboat sailed.
1815. Battle of Waterloo—Fall of Napoleon, June 18.
1822. Greek Independence proclaimed.
1832. Second French Revolution.
1836. First telegraph message sent.
1854. Crimean War began.
1861. Civil War in the U. S. began.
1862. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation, Sept. 22.
1865. Surrender of General Lee's army, April 9.
1866. First successful Atlantic Cable laid.
1869. Suez Canal completed.
1870. Franco-Prussian War declared, July 19.
1870. Rome became capital of United Italy.
1871. Germany united under William of Prussia.
1877. Russo-Turkish War began.
1881. President Garfield assassinated.
1894. War declared between Japan and China.
1895. Cuban Rebellion against Spain became general.



ORDER OF ROCKS.

GEOLOGY (from the Greek, *ge*, the earth, and *logos*, discourse) may be defined as the science which describes the solid materials of the earth, the order in which they are arranged, the causes which have effected that arrangement, and the organic remains which are found in them.

The solid parts of the external crust consist of a variety of substances, to which, whether they be hard or soft, the term *rock* is applied. Rocks are distinguished both by peculiarities in their constitution, and peculiarities in their form and arrangement.

At some places the surface of the earth is found to consist of a hard rock of crystalline or glassy texture, generally called granite, though subject to a considerable number of varieties. Granite is never, except in peculiar circumstances, found in the form of a layer, whether thick or thin, but generally in large, irregular-shaped masses; and no other kind of rock, except in equally rare and peculiar circumstances, is ever found beneath it.

At other places the earth's immediate surface is found composed of some one of certain kinds of rock not less hard in texture than granite, and also of a crystalline consistence, but always found *in layers or beds*, generally of great thickness.

At other places we find, near the surface of the earth, rocks of a comparatively soft, and not of a crystalline consistence, forming also layers or beds, of greater or less thickness.

In some places, rock of a very hard kind is found, not exactly like any of the above, deposited in irregular forms, and often with the appearance of having penetrated through gaps forcibly made in other rocks.

Finally, throughout the first three classes of rocks, but particularly the first two, there are thin *veins* of diverse substances, including minerals.

Rocks of the first class are denominated PLUTONIC (from Pluto, the god of the infernal regions amongst the ancients), as supposed to have been formed at great depths in the earth, the matter having been originally in a hot and soft state, and afterwards cooled and crystallized slowly, under such enormous pressure as prevented the contained gases from expanding. The term *unstratified* is also applied to this class of rocks.

Rocks of the second and third classes are called AQUEOUS, as composed of matter deposited by water. Those of the second class are more specially named *Metamorphoric* (from the Greek, *metamorphosis*, a transformation), as supposed to have undergone a remarkable change in the course of their formation. It is supposed that the matter of these rocks, derived from rocks of the granitic kind, and suspended in vast oceans, was, when deposited, subjected to a great heat from below, which gave it, in its reconsolidation much of that crystalline texture which it had in its plutonic form.

Rocks of the fourth class are denominated VOLCANIC, as being evidently composed of lavas, or masses of fire-melted rocky matter, which have been sent upwards by volcanoes.

Rocks of the second and third classes are likewise called *Stratified Rocks*, as being invariably found in strata or layers. Rocks of the first and fourth classes, as wanting this peculiarity, are distinguished as *Unstratified Rocks*.

The plutonic, and some of the lower metamorphoric rocks, have been also called *Primary*, or *Primitive Rocks*, as either the first formed of all, or formed very early. The upper metamorphoric rocks have in like manner been called the *Transition Series*, as forming a kind of link between the primary and those which follow, and partaking the characters of both. Of the remainder of the aqueous rocks, a considerable number, being the lower portion, are sometimes called the *Secondary Rocks*, while the upper are named *Tertiary*. *Igneous Rock* is also a various name for the volcanic kind.

When rocks of various classes are seen at or near the same place, it is found that those of the second (except in the extraordinary circumstances alluded to), lie above those of the first; and those of the third above those of the second and first classes. Special kinds of aqueous rock are also found in a certain order above one another—much in the same way as if we were to place a book of many volumes on its side, having previously arranged the volumes according to their numbers, in which case the second would be above the first, the third above the second, and so on. Rocks are thus said to observe an *order of supraposition*—the volcanic kind alone observing no order.

In some of the upper metamorphoric rocks, and in all those of the secondary and tertiary series, remains of plants and animals are found, showing that when these rocks were formed, the earth had become a scene of vegetable and animal life. The rocks containing these *organic remains* or *fossils*

are called FOSSILIFEROUS; and the remaining rocks, from their containing no such relics, are called NON-FOSSILIFEROUS.

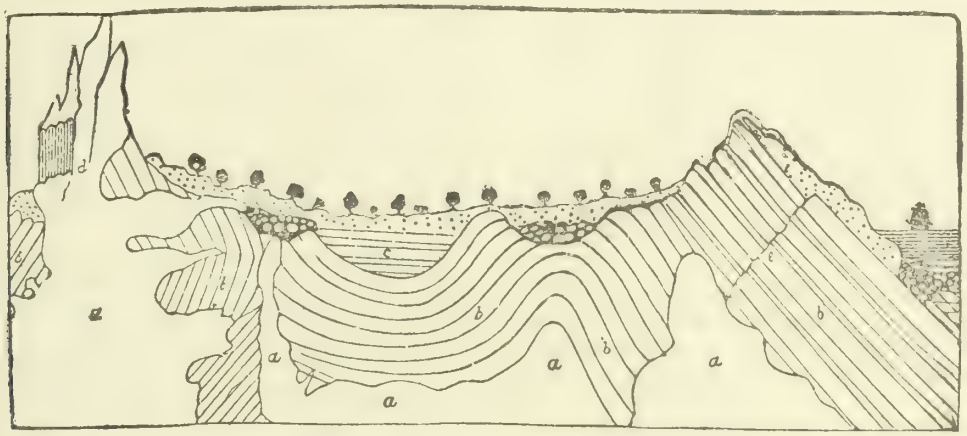
The changes produced by he united operations of aqueous and igneous agency are in part represented in the subjoined engraving of a supposed section of part of the earth's crust.

Now to begin our lesson!

Here are three pieces of stone:—

1. A piece of Sandstone.
2. A piece of Granite.
3. A piece of Chalk.

You are quite familiar with each of these kinds of stone. Sandstone s a common material for walls, lintels, hearths, and flagstones. Granite may now be frequently seen in polished columns and slabs in public buildings, shops, and in tombstones; and the streets in many of our large cities and towns are now paved with it. Common white chalk is well known to everybody.



a Primary Rock, which has been thrown up, so as to disturb and mix itself with the Secondary Rocks.
b Secondary Rock, thrown into inclinations and curves by the rising of the Primary Rock.
c Tertiary Formation, deposited in a hollow formed by the disturbance of the Secondary Rocks.
d Basaltic Columns. *e* A fault or hitch in the strata.
The Circles are boulders or detached stones rounded by traveling in water, and deposited in hollows formed by water.
The dots indicate beds of gravel, immediately beneath the soil.

Take the piece of sandstone in your hands and examine it carefully, using even a magnifying glass if the grains are minute. Then write down each of the characters you observe one after another. You will of course pay little heed to the color, for sandstones, like books, may be red or white, green or yellow, or indeed of almost any color. Nor will you give much weight to the hardness or softness as an essential character, for you may find even in a small piece of the stone that one part is quite hard while a neighboring place is soft and crumbling.

If your piece of sandstone has been well chosen for you, you will be able to write down the following characters:—

1. The stone is made up of small grains.

2. The grains are all more or less rounded or worn.

3. By scraping the surface of the stone these rounded grains can be separated from the stone, and when they lie in this loose state they are seen to be mere grains of sand.

4. More careful examination of the stone shows that the grains tend to lie in lines, and that these lines run in a general way parallel with each other.

5. The grains differ from each other in size and in the material of which they are made. Most of them consist of a very hard white or colorless substance like glass, some are perhaps small spangles of a material which glistens like silver, others are softer and of various colors. They lie touching each other in some sandstones; in others they are separated by a hard kind of cement which binds them all into a solid stone. It is this cement which usually colors the sandstone, since it is often red or yellow, and sometimes green, brown, purple, and even black.

Summing up these characters in a short definition, you might describe your sandstone as **a stone composed of worn, rounded grains of various other stones arranged in layers.**

Proceed now in the same way with the piece of granite. You find at once a very different set of appearances, but after a little time you will be able to make out and to write down the following:—

The stone contains no rounded grains.

It is composed of three different substances, each of which has a peculiar crystalline form. Thus, one of these, called feldspar, lies in long smooth-faced, sharply defined crystals of a pale flesh color, or dull white, which you can with some difficulty scratch with the point of a knife. Another, termed mica, lies in bright glistening plates, which you can easily scratch and split up into thin transparent leaves. If you compare these shining plates with the little silvery spangles in the sandstone, you will see that they are the same material. The third, named quartz, is a very hard, clear, glassy substance on which your knife makes no impression, but which you may recognize as the same material out of which most of the grains of the sandstone are made.

The crystals in granite do not occur in any definite order, but are scattered at random through the whole of the stone.

Here are characters strikingly different from those of the sandstone. You might make out of them such a short definition as this—Granite is a **stone composed of distinct crystals, not laid down in layers, but irregularly interlaced with each other.**

Lastly go through the same process of examination with your piece of chalk. At first sight this stone seems to have no distinct characters at all. It is a soft, white, crumbling substance, soils your fingers when you touch it, and seems neither to have grains like the sandstone nor crystals like the granite. You will need to use a magnifying glass, or even perhaps a microscope, to see what the real nature of chalk is. Take a fine brush and rub off a little chalk into a glass of clear water; then shake the water gently and let it stand for a while until you see a layer of sediment on the bottom. Pour off the water and place a little of this sediment upon a piece of glass, and look at it under the microscope or magnifying-glass. You will find it to have strongly marked characters, which might be set down thus :—

The stone, though it seems to the eye much more uniform in its texture than either sandstone or granite, is made up of particles resembling each other in color and composition, but presenting a variety of forms.

It consists of minute shells, pieces of coral, fragments of sponges, and white particles, which are evidently the broken-down remains of shells.

As a brief description of chalk you might say that it is a **stone formed out of the remains of once living animals.**

You should repeat this kind of examination again and again until you get quite familiar with the characters which have been written down here. And you will see why it is important for you to do so when you come afterwards to find out that these three stones are examples of three great groups into which most of the rocks of the world may be arranged. So that when you master the composition of a piece of sandstone, or chalk, or granite, and learn how each stone was formed, you not only do that, but lay a foundation of knowledge which will enable you to understand how by far the greater part of the stones of our mountains, valleys, and seashores came into existence.

In spite then of the apparently infinite diversity of the stones of which the globe is built up, you see that by a little study they may be grouped into very few classes. You have to follow a simple principle of classification, and each stone you may meet with falls naturally into its own proper group. You do not concern yourselves much with mere outer shape and hue, but try to find out what the stone is made of, and ask whether it should be placed in the Sandstone group, or in the Granite group, or in the Chalk group.

WHAT STONES HAVE TO TELL US.

We take again our three pieces of stone—sandstone, chalk, and granite—and compare other stones with them. We get out of town to the nearest pit or quarry or ravine, to any opening in fact, either natural or artificial, which will enable us to see down beneath the grass and the soil of the surface. In one place we may find a clay-pit, in another a sandstone quarry, in another a railway cutting through chalk or limestone, in another a deep ravine in hard rocks with a stream flowing at its bottom. It does not matter for our present purpose what the nature of the opening be, provided it shows us what lies beneath the soil. In all such places we meet with stone of some kind, or of many different kinds. By a little practice we learn that these various sorts of stones may be usually arranged under one or other of the three divisions. For example, a large number of stones will be found answering to the general description which you found to be true of sandstone. These will of course be placed together with our piece of sandstone. Another considerable quantity of stones will be met with made up wholly or almost wholly of the remains of plants or of animals. These we arrange in the same division with our piece of chalk. Lastly, a good many stones may be met with built up of crystals of different kinds, and these, for the present we class together with our piece of granite.

In this way you would advance from the mere pieces of stone which you can hold in your hand, up to the masses of stone lying under a whole parish or a county or even the entire kingdom.

You would begin to perceive that the different kinds of stone are not scattered at random over the country, but have each their own places, with their own kinds of hills or valleys.

The solid earth under your feet has a history as well as the people who have lived on its surface. Take Great Britain for example. You will learn that once a great part of this country as well as of Europe and North America was buried under ice like Greenland. Earlier still it had jungles of palms and other tropical plants; yet further back it lay beneath a wide deep ocean; and beyond that time can be traced many still more remote periods, when it was forest-covered land or wide marshy plains, or again buried under the great sea. Step by step you may follow this strange history backwards, and with as much certainty as you trace the doings of Julius Cæsar, or William the Conqueror.

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS.

I. What Sediment Is.

To each of these groups names must be given. We might call them the Sandstone group, the Chalk group, and the Granite group. But it happens that other names have been already in use, which will be more convenient. Accordingly we shall refer all stones having characters like those of sandstone to the **Sedimentary Rocks**; those formed of the remains of plants or animals, as chalk is, to the **Organic Rocks**; and those having a crystalline character, like our granite group, to the **Igneous Rocks.** The meaning of these names will be seen as we proceed.

The word "**rock**" is applied to any kind of natural stone, whatever may be its hardness or softness. In this sense, sand, mud, clay, peat, and coal are rocks, as much as sandstone, limestone, or granite.

Sediment is something which, after having been suspended

in or moved along by water, has settled down upon the bottom.

The term Sedimentary Rocks is a very expressive one, for it includes stones formed of all kinds of sediment, whether coarse or fine.

II. How Gravel, Sand, and Mud are Made.

You have taken the first step in the study of the Sedimentary Rocks—you now know that they are made of sediment, such as gravel, sand, and mud. How then are gravel, sand, and mud made at the present day?

If you were to search on the shore of the sea, or on the banks of a river, you could, without much difficulty, prove in another way that sand and gravel only differ from each other in the size of their grains.

Let us get away up among the hills, and watch what goes on where the brooks first begin to flow. Where the rocks are hard and tough, they rise out of the hill-sides, at prominent crags and cliffs, down which the little streamlets dance from ledge to ledge before they unite into larger streams in the bottom of the valleys. Now let us descend the brook and look at its channel carefully as we go. The red fragments from that crag will be easily distinguishable from the other dull gray stones, which have been detached from the rest of the crags on either side. If you look narrowly at the bits of stone which are strewed about upon the slope you will notice that they are all more or less angular in shape, that is to say, they have sharp edges. But those in the brook are not quite so rough nor so sharp-edged as those on the bare hill-side above. Follow the brook down the valley for some way and then take another look at the stones in the bed of the stream. You do not now find so many big blocks of the red stone, and those you do meet with are more rounded and worn than they were near the crag. They have grown smooth and polished, their edges have been worn off, and many of them are well rounded. Once more you make a further examination still lower down the valley, and here and there where the stream has thrown up a bank of gravel, you find that the pieces of our red crag have been so well ground away that they now form part of an ordinary water-worn gravel.

III.—How Gravel, Sand, and Mud Become Sedimentary Rocks.

So long as a current of water is moving swiftly it keeps the gravel, sand, and mud from settling down on the bottom. A rapid current will hurry along, not only mud and sand, but even gravel. As its rapidity flags, first the gravel will sink to the bottom as a sediment, the sand will sink more slowly and be carried farther, while the mud will hang in the water for a long time, travel a much greater distance, and only fall with extreme slowness to the bottom.

You can examine the bottom of a dried up pool and see exactly what took place when the muddy water filled it. Here at the upper end is the tongue of sand pushed out from the shore by the streamlet. You recognize it as a true delta. The bottom of the rest of the pool is covered with fine muddy silt or sand spread out over all the space on which the water lay.

With a knife we carefully cut a hole or trench through these deposits on the floor so as to learn what they consist of from top to bottom. A cutting of this kind is called a **Section**, and may be of any size. The steep side of a brook, the wall of a ravine, the side of a quarry or railway-cutting, a line of cliff, are all sections of the rocks. Let us see what our section has to tell.

In the center of the little basin the sediment brought in by the rain has accumulated to a depth, let us say, of an inch, below which lies the ordinary surface of the roadway. Now what feature strikes you first about this deposit of sediment when you come to look at the section which we have cut through it? Are the materials arranged without any order? By no means. The materials have been deposited in layers which have been laid down flat one above another. Some of these layers are finer, others coarser than the rest. But whether coarse or fine they all show the same general arrangement in level lines.

In this way you gradually would come to be convinced that one grand leading feature of the sedimentary deposits laid down under water is that they are not mere random heaps of rubbish, but that they are assorted and spread over each other in regular layers. This kind of arrangement is called **Stratification**, and the sediments so arranged are said to be **stratified**. So characteristic is this mode of arrangement among the sedimentary rocks that they are often called also the **Stratified Rocks.**

The sheets of sand, gravel, or mud which can be seen on the sea-shore, or at any lake or pool on land, are **soft** or **loose** materials. Sandstone, conglomerate, shale, or any other sedimentary rock, is usually more or less **hard** or **compact.**

A sedimentary rock then is one formed from sediment which was derived from the waste of older rocks, and deposited in water. It usually shows the stratified arrangement characteristic of water-formed deposits. Since its original formation it has usually been hardened into stone by pressure or infiltration.

IV. How the Remains of Plants and Animals come to be Found in Sedimentary Rocks.

What is this black object lying on the upper surface of that stone? You see at once that it has the form of a plant and resembles some of the fern tribe. Examine it more closely, and tracing the delicate veining of the fronds, you cannot doubt that, although no longer soft and green, it was once a living fern. It has been changed into a black substance which, when you look carefully at it, proves to be a kind of coal. Little fragments and layers of the same black coaly substance may occur throughout the piece of shale. If you scrape a little off and put it upon the point of a knife, you find that you can burn away the black material while the grains of sand or clay remain behind. These fragments and layers are evidently only leaves and bits of different plants imbedded at the same time as the larger and better preserved

fern. Now how did plants find their way into the heart of a piece of stone?

Rain can wash away leaves and other pieces of plants, and allow them to drop in a pool, where they become interstratified with the silt, that is, are deposited between its layers and covered over by it.

You can now see therefore how it is that pieces of ferns or any other kind of land plants should be found in the heart of such a solid stone as our bit of shale. The stone was once merely so much sediment laid down below water, and the fragmentary plants were drifted away from the place where they grew until at last they were buried among that sediment.

It is not only plants, however, which occur imbedded in sedimentary rocks. You will notice a number of shells and other animal remains, chiefly *trilobites*, that is, little sea-creatures belonging to the same great tribe with our common crab and lobster. You do not need now to be told how they came there. You have learnt that anything lying at the bottom of the sea or of a lake will be buried in sediment.

Any relic of a plant or animal imbedded in rock is called a **Fossil.**

V. A Quarry and its Lessons.

Let us suppose ourselves to be in a quarry.

In the first place what feature about the quarry strikes you most forcibly when you enter? You answer readily, the **Stratification** of the rocks. They are arranged in layers or beds, one above another, in that stratified arrangement which you have found to be so characteristic of rocks laid down as sediment under water.

In the second place, you observe that they do not all consist of the same materials. Some are of fine conglomerate, others of various kinds of sandstone, and some of different sorts of shales or clays. These **beds or strata** as they are called, alternate irregularly with each other, just as gravel, sand, and mud might be found alternating in the delta of a river or under the sea.

In the third place, let us ask you to point out which are the oldest of the beds. You answer without hesitation that those at the bottom of the quarry must be the oldest, because they certainly were deposited before those lying above them. In all such cases the beds at the bottom are the oldest, and those at the top the newest. This arrangement of one bed or stratum above another is called the **Order of Superposition.**

We split open some of the lower beds of sandstone and find their surfaces often covered with markings. If you have ever walked along a flat sandy beach you must have noticed the ripple-marks which the shallow rippling water leaves on the soft sand. They are precisely like those on the sandstone. You may see them too along the shelving margin of a lake, indeed whatever water has been thrown by the wind into little wavelets over a sandy bottom. They betoken shallow water. Hence we have learnt one important fact from our quarry, as to the origin of these rocks: viz., that they were not deposited in a deep sea, but in shallow water.

We look still further among these strata, and notice at last that some of them are curiously covered with little round pits, about the size of peas or less. How did these markings come there? You know that when drops of rain fall upon a smooth surface of moist sand, such as that of the beach, they each make a little dent on it.

Here then is another fact which throws still more light on the history of these rocks. The ripple-marks show that the water must have been shallow; the rain prints prove that it must have risen along a beach liable, now and then, to be laid dry to the air and rain. Now can we tell whether the water was salt or fresh? in other words, was this beach the shore of a lake, or of the sea?

Again we turn to the rocks themselves, and from some of the layers of shale we pick out a number of **fossils,** which enable us to answer the question.

ORGANIC ROCKS, OR ROCKS FORMED OF THE REMAINS OF PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

I. Rocks Formed of the Remains of Plants.

Since the leaves, branches, and stems of plants, and the shells or other remains of animals, are sometimes scattered so abundantly through ordinary sedimentary rocks, it is easy to see that sometimes they may occur in such quantity as to form great deposits of themselves. You could hardly call such deposits sedimentary, in the same sense in which common shale and sandstone are so named. We may term them **Organic Rocks,** or, **Organically derived Rocks,** because they owe their origin to the accumulation of what are called **organic remains,** or fossils, that is, the remains of plants or animals. A plant or animal lives, moves, and grows by means of what are called **organs.** For instance, we walk by using our legs, which are our *organs of locomotion;* we speak with our mouth, which contains our *organs of speech;* we see by means of eyes, which are our *organs of sight;* and so on. Every object, therefore, which possesses organs is said to be organized or to be an **organism.** So that when you see this word organism you will remember that it means either a plant or an animal, for it is only plants and animals which are really organized.

We begin with those rocks which have been formed out of the remains of plants. As an illustration let us ask you to examine carefully a **piece of coal.** If you master all that it has to tell you, you will not have much difficulty in tracing out the history of other rocks belonging to this series.

Now look at one end of a lump of coal, where the edges of the layers are exposed. You cannot follow them with the same ease as in the case of a piece of shale, for they seem to blend into one another. But you may notice that among the layers of hard, bright, glossy substance, there occur others of a soft material like charcoal. A mere general look at such a piece of coal would show you that it is stratified.

You know that coal can be burnt away so as to leave only ashes behind, and that in this respect it resembles wood and peat. Chemists have analyzed coal and found that it consists of the same materials as wood or peat, and that in reality it is only so much vegetation which has been pressed together, and gradually changed into the black substance now used as fuel.

Let us suppose ourselves at a coal mine. Now, first of all, you see that the coal occurs as a bed, having a thickness of a

few feet. This bedded character agrees with what you have already noticed as to the internal layers in the stone, and confirms you in believing that coal is a stratified rock. Next observe that the pavement on which the coal rests, and the roof which covers it, are both made of very different materials from the coal itself. Were you to cut a trench or section through pavement, coal, and roof, you would prove beyond any doubt that the bed of coal lies among beds of common sedimentary rocks.

You are driven to conclude that in truth **the under-clay is an old soil, and the bed of coal represents the vegetation which grew upon it.**

II. Rocks Formed out of the Remains of Animals.

It is on the floor of the great sea that the most wonderful examples occur of the way in which rocks are gradually built up from the remains of animals to a depth of many hundreds or thousands of feet, and over distances of many hundreds of miles.

To the west of Britain the Atlantic soon and suddenly deepens. Its floor then stretches away to Newfoundland as a vast plain, the lowest part of which is about 14,000 feet below the waves. It was over this wide submarine plain that the telegraph cables had to be laid, and hence numerous soundings were made all the way across from Ireland to the American coast. While in the shallower parts of the sea the bottom was found to be covered with sand, gravel, or mud, from the deeper parts there came up with the sounding-lead a peculiar gray sticky substance known as **ooze,** which must stretch over that wide deep-sea basin for many thousands of square miles. This ooze when dried looks like a dirty kind of chalk. After the lapse of centuries, if the deposit were to remain undisturbed, and if we could set a watch to measure its growth, we should find it to have risen upward and to have inclosed the remains of any star-fishes or other sea-creatures which chanced to die and leave their remains upon the bottom. Hundreds of feet of such slow-formed deposit have no doubt already been laid down over the bottom of the ocean between Ireland and Newfoundland. Here then is a second and notable example of how a deep and far-spread mass of rock may be formed out of the remains of animals.

IGNEOUS ROCKS.

I. What Igneous Rocks Are.

This word igneous means literally fiery. It does not very accurately describe the rocks to which it is applied, but it has long been in use to include all rocks which have been actually melted within the earth, or which have been thrown out at the surface by the action of volcanoes. So that the Igneous Rocks owe their origin to some of the effects of the internal heat of the earth.

You will find that the solid materials cast up by volcanoes are of two kinds—1st, streams of molten rock called **Lava,** poured down the sides of a volcanic mountain during an eruption: and 2d, immense quantities of **dust, sand,** and **stones,** cast up into the air from the mouth of the volcano, and falling down upon the mountain, sometimes even all over the surrounding country for a distance of many miles.

Here then are two very dissimilar kinds of rock-material discharged from the interior of the globe. The lava cools and hardens into a solid rock. The loose ashes and stones, likewise, are in time pressed and hardened into more or less firm beds of stone. So that two totally distinct kinds of rock are laid down upon the surface of the earth by the volcano. In the case of the lava, the rock, if you look at it with a magnifying glass, is seen to be made up of distinct **crystals** all matted together. The beds of ashes, on the other hand, no matter how compact they may have become, are found to be made up of irregular **fragments** of various kinds of stone, and of all sizes, from the finest dust up to big blocks. By attending to this very simple and intelligible difference you could arrange igneous rocks into two great groups—1st, the **Crystalline,** that is, those which are made up of crystals, and which have once been in a melted state; and 2d, the **Fragmental,** that is, those which consist of the loose materials thrown out during volcanic explosions.

Crystalline Igneous Rocks.—When the rock was still melted it was full of imprisoned steam and gas which were constantly striving to escape to the surface. It was this steam which collected into little bubbles and formed the curious set of holes in the mass of the still molten rock. In the same way the holes which you often see in the heart of a loaf of bread were formed by the struggles of the steam to escape from the dough as it was heated in the oven.

There are Fragmental Igneous Rocks.—Now this is the kind of material under which the old Roman city of Pompeii was buried. It fell upon the streets and houses and gradually covered them up as the eruption of the neighboring volcano continued. And at this day the workmen find the streets and chambers all choked up with layers of coarser and finer volcanic ash and dust.

These masses of consolidated volcanic dust and stones are known by the name of **Tuff.**

II. Where Igneous Rocks Come From.

If we ask you from what source the Igneous Rocks have been derived, you will reply that they have come up from the intensely hot regions within the earth.

Deep Borings and Mines.—If you were taken down to the bottom of a deep mine in the United States, you would find the temperature much warmer there than near the surface, and a similar increase of heat would meet you in the deep mines of every country in the world. You would soon discover, too, that on the whole the deeper the mine the greater the warmth would be. In the same way were you to bore a deep narrow hole into the earth for several hundreds of feet and let a thermometer down to the bottom, you would find that the mercury would rise in the tube.

Experiments of this kind have been made all over the globe, with the result of showing that after we get down for a short and variable distance below the surface, we reach a temperature which remains the same all the year, and that underneath that limit the temperature rises about 1° Fahrenheit for every fifty or sixty feet of descent. If this rate of increase continues, we should get uncomfortably hot before having descended very far. For instance, at a depth of about two miles water would

be at its boiling-point, and at depths of twenty-five or thirty miles, the metals would have the same temperatures as those at which they respectively melt on the surface of the earth. It is clear from this kind of evidence that the inside of our planet must be in an intensely heated condition.

In many parts of the world **Hot Springs** occur. To keep up such hot springs in every quarter of the globe there must assuredly be great stores of heat within the earth.

Neither the heat of deep mines nor of hot springs affords such an impressive lesson as to the earth's internal high temperature as is furnished by **Volcanoes.** The hot vapors and steam which rise from the craters of volcanoes, the torrents of hot water which sometimes issue from their sides, the streams of molten lava which break out and roll far down the slopes of a volcanic mountain, burning up and burying trees, fields, gardens, and villages—are all tokens of the intense heat of the inside of the earth from which they come.

At the present time there are, it is said, about 270 volcanoes either constantly or at intervals throwing out steam, hot ashes, and lava, in different parts of the globe. Even among the perpetual snows of the South Polar regions they have been met with, and also far within the Arctic Circle at the Island of Jan Mayen.

But besides these volcanoes which are still active, many others occur from which no eruptions have ever been seen to take take place, and which are therefore called **dormant** or **extinct.**

But in igneous rocks you do not see the only evidence of how the internal heat affects the surface of the earth. There can be little doubt that **Earthquakes** must be mainly due to commotions which take their origin from the effects of this heat.

Perhaps you will ask, why, since the inside of the planet is so hot, does it not melt the outside, or at least why is the outside not warmer? There can be no doubt that at one time, many millions of years ago, the globe was immensely hotter than it is now. In fact it then resembled our burning sun, of which it once probably formed a part, and from which it and the other planets were one by one detached. During the vast interval which has passed away since then it has been gradually cooling, and thus the heat in the inside is only the remains of that fierce heat which once marked the whole planet. The outer parts have cooled and become solid, but they are bad conductors of heat, and allow the heat from the inside to pass away into space only with extreme slowness. Hence, in spite of the high temperature of the interior, we are not sensible that it warms the outer surface of the earth.

You are already familiar with the fact that bodies expand when they are heated, and contract as they cool. When the earth was vastly hotter than now it must also have filled more space. While cooling it has been contracting. As it is still cooling it must be still contracting, but so slowly that on the whole we are not sensible of the process. But some of the effects are visible enough among the rocks.

THE CRUST OF THE EARTH.

I. Proofs that Parts of the Crust have been Pushed Up.

This solid rocky outer part of the earth on which we live, into which men sink mines and out of which springs arise, is called **the Earth's Crust.**

The rocks of which this crust consists belong mostly to the Sedimentary series, a large number to the Organic series, and a smaller, but still considerable proportion, to the Igneous series.

II. Proofs that Parts of the Crust have Sunk Down.

Submerged Forests, are to be regarded as evidence of subsidence of the earth's surface, just as the raised beaches are taken as proofs of upheaval.

The beds of coal, for example, which once flourished as green forests at the surface, are now found buried deep within the earth.

Two facts are now very clear to you about the crust of the earth—1st, it has often been pushed outward, so as to rise above the level of the sea; and 2d, it has also often sunk inward so as to carry parts of the land deep beneath the sea-level. But it could not undergo these movements without suffering other changes.

III. Proofs that the Rocks of the Earth's Crust have been Tilted, Crumpled, and Broken.

The crust of the earth, instead of being made of regular layers one above another, like the coats of an onion, has been so squeezed and fractured, that in many cases the bottom or oldest rocks have been pushed up far above the newest.

Wherever, therefore, strata are pushed up or let down more at one place than at another, without being actually broken across, they must be thrown into an inclined position. Now this unequal and irregular kind of movement has taken place many times in every quarter of the globe. If you look at the stratified rocks, in most parts of this and other countries, you will seldom find them quite flat—usually they are inclined, sometimes gently, sometimes steeply, so that they have not only been upheaved out of the sea, but have been moved irregularly and unequally.

IV. The Origin of Mountains.

First of all, then, when any chain of mountains is examined it is found to be made of rocks belonging to one or more of the three great classes with which you are already acquainted. In particular, the great mass of most mountain chains consists of various kinds of stratified rocks—such as sandstones, conglomerates, limestones, and others. Now you have found that these rocks have been laid down under water, most of them under the sea. They often contain the remains of shells, corals, sea-urchins, or other marine creatures, and these remains may be taken out of the rocks even at the summits of the mountains. No clearer proof than this could be required to show that mountains are not so old as "the beginning of things," for these fossils prove that where the mountains now stand wide seas once rolled.

Again, mountains which consist of rocks formed originally under the sea must owe their existence to some force which could raise up the bed of the sea into high land. As a consequence of the slow cooling of our planet, its outer crust, under the enormous strain of contraction, has been forced up into

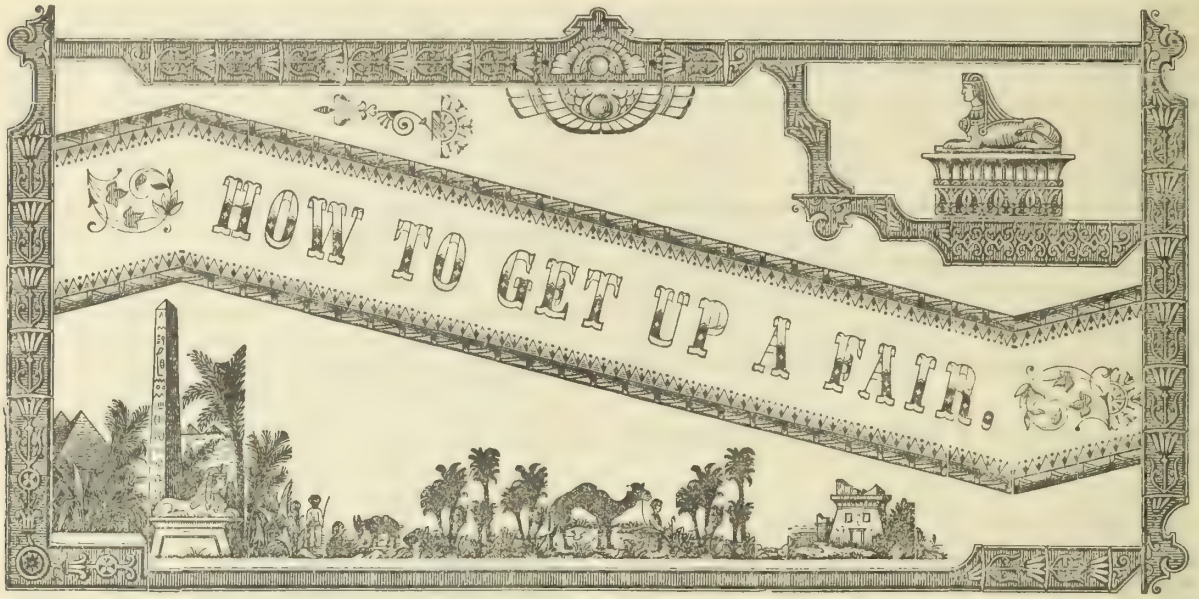
ridges in different places, with wide sunken spaces between. The ridges form mountain chains, while the sunken spaces are filled with the waters of the ocean. If you look at a map of the world you may trace out the principal **lines of elevation,** as they are called, over the globe.

The same forces which have carved out valleys and left mountain ridges standing out between them are still busy at their work. Every year adds to the waste. And thus, although when we gaze at a mountain-chain we know that first of all it was heaved up by movements from below, we nevertheless learn to recognize that all the familiar forms which it now assumes have since that early time of upheaval been carved upon it by the very same forces—rains, frosts, springs, glaciers, and the rest—which are busy sculpturing its surface still.

V. How the Rocks of the Crust Tell the History of the Earth.

What papers and inscriptions, coins and books are to the historian, the rocks of the earth's crust are to the geologist. They contain all the real evidence at his disposal. What he can gather from them at one place must be compared with what he collects from them at another. He must journey far and wide in search of facts which are not to be found at his own door. Gaps will certainly occur, which even the skill and industry of many years may never completely bridge over; for the rocks, as we have already seen, are subject to revolutions quite as destructive in their way as those which have swept away the archives of cities and nations. The geologist, therefore, can only at the best produce an imperfect chronicle. But it is one which has a profound interest for all of us, for it is the story of our own globe—of its continents and oceans, its mountains and valleys, its rivers and lakes, of the tribes of plants and animals which people its surface, and of the advent and progress of man himself.

Geological history brings before us, in this way, many facts well calculated to impress our minds with the great antiquity of our planet, and with the marvelous chain of changes by which the present order of things has been brought about. We learn from it that mountains and valleys have not come suddenly into existence, such as we now see them, but have been formed gradually, by a long series of processes similar to those which are even now slowly doing the same work. We discover that every part of the land under our feet can yield us up its story, if we only know how to question it. And, strangest of all, we find that the races of plants and animals which now tenant land and sea, are not the first or original races, but that they were preceded by others, these again by others still more remote. We see that there has been upon the earth a history of living things, as well as of dead matter. At the beginning of that wonderful history we detect traces merely of lowly forms, like the foraminifera of the Atlantic ooze. At the end we are brought face to face with man—thinking, working, restless man, battling steadily with the powers of nature, and overcoming them one by one, by learning how to obey the laws which direct them.



How to arrange a Fancy Fair—Amusements—Refreshment Stall—Flower Stall—Live Stock Stall—Poor People's Stall.

THE IDEA OF ORGANIZING A FANCY FAIR, on the occasion of subscribing to any charitable institution has become a great feature of the present age. It affords opportunities to many idle people of pleasantly exerting themselves, discovers and brings forward obscure talents, promotes intercourse and amusement, and frequently insures most advantageous returns.

How to Get up a Fair.—The purpose for which the funds realized are intended should be clearly stated and circulated among all who are wanted to take part in conducting the bazaar, and every means should be employed to secure profitable assistance in the enterprise. A committee of ladies should be formed, and their decisions, when duly weighed and approved, carefully carried out. To them belongs the onus of providing the field of operations and appointing the workers therein.

The two most popular stalls are always the refreshment-stall and the flower-stall. The holders of these must be chosen with much care, or but indifferent results will ensue. The latter require special talent for artistic decoration and arrangement, the former for quickness, skill, and neatness. The other stalls are apportioned to such ladies as are willing to undertake them.

A suitable room must now be hired. One long, large room, with smaller ones opening into it, is the best. These latter are used for exhibitions, conjuring rooms, cloak-rooms, etc. School-rooms are just the kind of room required, and are frequently lent for this purpose.

How to Arrange a Fair.—The room must be made to look as artistic and inviting as possible. If evergreens can be easily and inexpensively procured to festoon the walls and wreathe pillars, they look very handsome. The effect can be enhanced by the introduction of natural or artificial flowers.

Sometimes flags and banners are arranged singly or in groups on the walls. They look very well. Appropriate mottoes worked on perforated cardboard with shaded wools, or of grouped autumn leaves, or of wadding frosted with glass-powder, add much to the appearance.

The center of the room may be arranged to form a rockery, through which, if practicable, a waterpipe may be conducted, having a jet fixed to the upper end. This serves to keep the plants from withering, and is very cool and refreshing to the assembly. Ferns, geraniums, mosses, and almost any flowers save those with a very powerful odor, may be employed for

this purpose; and when the pots are concealed by means of virgin cork a very pretty effect can be produced.

A very easily-made ornament consists of an ordinary wooden bucket covered with fir-cones, nutshells, short bits of wood, etc. When these have been firmly glued on, varnish the whole with mahogany varnish, or gild it with gold paint. A row of cones placed round the top stands up as an edge. Now get some of the large hedge-ferns and place them in the bucket, concealing the earth by means of moss. If a hole has been made in the bottom of the bucket, the ferns will take no harm. A few such buckets, placed in nooks and corners where they will not inconvenience any one, will look very well. The ferns and buckets can be offered for sale also, to be taken away at the close of the bazaar.

All the windows in the room should be hung with curtains either of lace or muslin, held back by bows of ribbon. They serve to temper the light and give a cooler look to the room.

A platform, if the room has not one already, must be put up, with a piano, harp, etc., placed thereon for the amusement of the company. Programmes should be drawn up, and sold to add to the funds. An agreeable little entertainment can be provided, consisting of recitations, vocal and instrumental music; or a music-stall may be provided, at which a competent pianist shall preside, to play over new music. This will be found amusing to all present, and the music will sell readily. The piano provided must be a good one, but not too loud in tone, so that it may not interfere with what is passing in other parts of the room.

It is a fallacy to suppose that people do not require further amusement than what appertains to the fair proper. When a visitor has made the tour of the room once or twice, examined the articles, and purchased such as please her, she naturally wishes for something more to do. Raffles, etc., are very amusing, it is true, but then all cannot join in every raffle, and somehow things lose their interest when one is not part of it oneself, so to speak. It is very usual to have what is known as a "Fine Art Exhibition."

When skillfully and originally managed this is very amusing. Most people will know what this is, but for the benefit of those who have not seen one, the following explanation may be useful:—If a small room can be spared for the purpose, so much the better, but if not, a screen placed in one corner will answer the purpose quite as well. Near this stands the keeper with a number of catalogues, which she sells to the passers-by. She should occasionally call out some of the most attractive features of the exhibition. Behind the screen shelves must be fixed, on which the articles are placed in the order in which they are mentioned in the catalogue. The ingenuity of the keeper of the exhibition must be exercised to provide new ideas, as many of them are now well known, and unless originality is shown the interest will flag. Such articles as a ball of different shades of wool, designated in the catalogue as "A Fancy Ball," "Ruins in China" (a broken plate), "A Peer of Great Britain" (a photograph of Brighton Pier), "The Belle of the Village" (a large dinner-bell), and so on, are all somewhat hackneyed now, but they give some idea of the plan to be followed.

Another amusement, especially for children, is a show called "The Zoological Gardens," or a menagerie. Another screen or room is devoted to this purpose. In the show are several clock-work toys representing various animals. These, when wound up, walk after one another along a shelf or table prepared for them. Sometimes the show is called "Noah's Ark," in which case an ark is provided, into which the animals retire after promenading round the table. This is a source of great amusement to children, and shrieks of delight are frequently heard as each little animal steadily proceeds on its way. The toys can be offered for sale when the bazaar is closing, or be packed away to do duty at some future period.

Frequently one of the side rooms is set apart as a Hall of Magic, in which a conjurer with mysterious feats and witty words charms both old and young.

Of course all these amusements add greatly to the funds, and no pains should be spared to augment them. A good band is always an attraction to any assembly, and if the bazaar be held in the open air it is especially desirable.

The Refreshment-Stall may be said to be the busiest and most prominent stall in the room, and it usually proves very remunerative; the corner in which it is placed is rarely deserted. Everything should be made to look as dainty and tempting as possible. Several assistants are absolutely necessary, each presiding over a different department. One should take the urns, another the sweetmeats, a third the more substantial fare, and a fourth should be appointed exclusively to take the money and keep the accounts. This last is a most important *rôle*, and should not be allotted to any but the most conscientiously careful.

This stall can be rendered especially attractive by *bonbonnières*, which can be made in any shape, either as books or

little cases, and should be filled with sweetmeats or preserved fruit. Many useful and pretty articles may be attached to boxes of sweets, and thus sold. For boys, boxes of sweets, etc., have an especial attraction; and as there is not much for a boy in a bazaar, this feature of the refreshment-stall should not be excluded, if only for their sakes.

The Flower-Stall.—This stall is always, and deservedly, the most attractive. It looks charming indeed if only a little taste and skill be brought to bear upon it. In any large city or town, flowers form one of the most profitable features of the Fair.

The stall may be of a variety of forms. We have seen one in the shape of a huge basket with wreaths and festoons of ivy round the edge, the center being composed of bouquets of growing plants. In another instance it was a ship freighted with flowers. The prettiest style is a kind of grotto, formed of light woodwork entirely hidden by bark and cork. In all the nooks and crevices of the framework pots of ferns must be placed, to appear as though growing there. The flowers rise above this in the form of a tower. Baskets and ornamental flowerpots should be hung from the roof, and filled with ferns, flowers, moss, etc. Another way which has an exceedingly good effect is to have the stall arranged as a bank on which the flowers appear growing, interspersed with ferns, small shrubs, etc. Button-holes, however, find the most ready sale. Almost any gentleman will at least buy a button-hole, though he may be one of those who are perfectly dismayed at the idea of buying anything else.

It will be as well to have a zinc tray to hold the flowers, that they may be kept fresh after having been made up into tiny bouquets.

The stall-keeper, too, must be very careful to notice when any flowers begin to droop and wither. These should at once be removed and replaced by fresh ones if possible; but in any case they must not be allowed to remain, or the whole stall will look shabby.

Live-Stock Stall.—This is rather a novelty, and generally a success. The stall should be rather apart from the others, and not so much decorated, or it will prove inconvenient. A long table, on which to place the various cages and hampers, is essential. Puppies, squirrels, guinea-pigs, kittens, canaries and other birds, white mice, and a parrot previously educated in a manner appropriate to the occasion. These, and many more that will doubtless suggest themselves, will be found to sell easily. They must be carefully tended during the time they are offered for sale. Food and water must be given when required, and no one should be allowed to tease them.

Poor People's Stall.—This stall, as its name implies, should be devoted to those articles which are intended to be sold for giving away to the poor. Many ladies living in both town and country have not time for making garments for the poor, but are pleased to buy them when ready-made. Every kind of garment for children—nightdresses, chemises, pinafores, socks, dresses, capes, hoods, babies' caps, comforters, knitted gloves and mittens, aprons, besides garments for adults—will be readily sold. This stall cannot, of course, present the attractive appearance common to the others, but the usefulness of the articles displayed will prevent the returns being insignificant.

HOW TO PREPARE ARTICLES.

Soliciting Contributions from Friends—How to Sell—Marking Prices.

What can I make for the Fair? is a question that is asked by hundreds of persons every year: a question that is rarely found easy to answer. To combine salable qualities with ornamental—both being necessary in this case—is not always a simple matter. For those who have a table of their own, the difficulty is, of course, increased. They may ask their friends to contribute, but the chief onus falls on the possessor of the stall, and unless abundance of money helps them to a fair haven, there will be many contrary winds to blow them from port.

Soliciting Contributions from Friends.—As in planning a picnic one promises to provide wine, another fruit, a third sweetmeats and so on, so, in making collections for bazaars, the same system should be established; otherwise the unfortunate collector finds her stall covered with crewel-work, crochet, etc., as the case may be, while it is destitute of any other attraction. This would be very disheartening, for how is it possible to make the stall attractive with but one feature? The fair canvasser, therefore, must be very careful to obtain the greatest possible variety of contributions in order to insure a ready sale. One friend, perhaps, is gifted with a talent for etching. She should be asked to supply d'oyleys, comb-bags, brush-bags, &c. Another is a good designer. Let her trace designs on velvet, canvas, etc., for mantel-boards, sofa cushions, footstools, etc., etc. These designs may be worked by some other friend or offered for sale as they are, and will prove very acceptable to many people who wish to work their own cushions, etc., but who cannot design their patterns.

Another friend, who has a talent for flower-painting, could doubtless be induced to provide handscreens, mats, lamp-shades, etc., with groups of flowers painted thereon, either in silk, satin, velvet, muslin, or cardboard. Another could supply crewel-work, another lace, and so on.

Many clever-fingered girls are unable to aid in a charitable purpose

not from disinclination but because they cannot afford to buy the requisite materials. A good plan, therefore, by means of which their help may be utilized would be to ascertain what they would like to make, and then either give them the materials yourself, or let some opulent but otherwise useless individual do so. Much may be procured in this manner, and great pleasure will be experienced by these willing helpers, who would otherwise be debarred from such enjoyment.

School-girls are often powerful allies in this work, as they canvass among their numerous friends, often obtaining thus a fair number of salable little articles. It is wonderful how many tasteful and useful additions can be made by means of a little ingenuity, a skillful hand, and a willing heart.

It is a very great mistake to pile up a stall with a heterogeneous mass of little elegant nothings, which are ornamental doubtless, but certainly not useful ; equally absurd, too, is it to exclude them. The great object is to combine utility and elegance ; when that is arrived at the stall-holder may congratulate herself upon her success. Let it be well remembered, the most practical articles always sell the best.

How to Sell.—There are always several assistants to every stall. These assistants are of great use in selling articles, as they are not obliged to remain at the stall, but can go freely about the room, carrying articles for sale to every part. They should endeavor to sell as much as possible without annoying people. To be teased and worried to buy irritates most people, and does much harm to the cause. The medium between persecution and diffidence must be aimed at, and when attained great results may be expected.

Marking Prices.—This very important matter is often mismanaged, and has caused the failure of more than one venture. The tendency to over-price the articles is great, and too frequently yielded to. It is absurd to suppose that people will give extravagant prices for things whose value is not more than half the money asked, just because the object is a charitable one. They do not object to give the full value, but more than that is felt to be an imposition, and the consequence is that the loose purse-strings are tightly drawn, and no persuasion avails to slacken them.

Let the prices, therefore, be reasonable ; look over all that are sent ready-priced by friends, altering such as are exorbitant. The results of the sale will be greater, and the number of articles left on hand at the close of the bazaar much diminished.

With the articles remaining after the close of the bazaar it is usual to have a sale by auction, thus disposing of many more. The mode of conducting an auction needs no description. The auctioneer chosen must be one who possesses plenty of humor and a good voice, or his efforts will not be successful. The surplus of the refreshment-stall may also be got rid of by the same means.

HOW TO ARRANGE AND PLAN A STALL.

Drapery—Color—Open-air Stalls—Fitting up.

The first consideration is the arrangement and decoration of the stall. A long table is the only thing supplied, as a rule, upon which one may exercise one's ingenuity and taste. The ordinary plan is to have poles fastened by carpenters—four of medium height to the four corners of the table, and four higher ones at the back and front. Over these the drapery is arranged ; and it must be confessed that as regards this part of the affair a considerable want of variety and originality may be noticed. White muslin over glazed pink calico carries all before it as a general rule. It looks very pretty, fresh, and clean, no doubt ; but after a long course of bazaars, all white muslin and pink calico, the eye longs for variety.

But we must first describe the mode of arranging the drapery. In the first place, pink glazed calico is rolled tightly round all the poles, and these may be covered again with sprigged muslin, if desired. Pink calico is then nailed all along the table ; then white lace curtains are hung over the poles, hanging down at either end of the stall, giving a light and graceful look to the whole. This is a much better plan than making a roof to the stall of pink calico, which adds greatly to the heat and very little to the appearance. A valance of pink calico is then nailed along the edges of the table, and covered with white lace like the curtains, slightly fulled in. The stall is then ready for arrangement.

In some cases the poles are arranged in such a manner that the stall looks like a gabled cottage, or resembles (as in one instance we have observed) a Noah's Ark with the front out.

A variety is sometimes made by substituting calico of a pale green shade for the pink. The effect is much cooler, but the green will never be very popular, as it proves so very unbecoming to the owners of the stalls, casting pale yellow *reflets* which would prove trying to the most perfect complexion. The pink calico is, on the contrary, becoming, subdued as it is by the white lace, leno, or muslin over it.

Another way of arranging a stall is to have a pair of curtains fastened over a pole fixed to the wall and looped back slightly by ribbon, so as to display the wares effectively. There should be a handsome valance of lace at the top of the curtains, which last being transparent it is necessary to line with calico or some such material. We have seen stalls so arranged, the lining in each case being of a different color—blue, pink, mauve, green, crimson, etc. The effect was very striking. The front of the stall may be trimmed with ribbon bows to match the lining, or what is still prettier, with bunches of flowers or dried grasses.

When the stalls are placed in a row a very pleasing effect is produced when ivy is so arranged as to bear twining up the sides and over the front of the stall. This is doubtless a troublesome undertaking, but it well repays the labor expended, and its charming effect is well worth some pains. The introduction of a few berries and tinted autumm leaves is an artistic addition. When the bazaar is held in the open air the stalls look very pretty if arranged in the Eastern fashion, having only the roof and the back covered with Indian matting, either entirely white or with colored borders. This, of course, is practicable only in very fine settled weather.

A variety in arranging the position of the stalls will be welcome. We have seen them placed in the form of a crescent or horseshoe ; this looks better than the hollow square or straight row usually seen.

An important point in the fitting-up of a stall is the provision of some nook to which the stall-holder may retire to partake of refreshment or to enjoy a few moments' rest from the heat, noise, and bustle that pervade the room. This can easily be done by having only half of the stall exposed. A second pair of curtains should be fixed to the center pole,

and slightly looped in the middle. In front of these curtains the buying and selling takes place, while behind them is the cool and shady nook so much desired.

Arrangement of the Stalls.—Good taste and ingenuity are essential to success in this matter. Every article must be so placed that its best effect is at once perceived. The danger of hiding anything by crowding together must be avoided. Much depends on the grouping of the objects. The effect of many pretty things is often lowered and altogether destroyed by careless or inartistic arrangement. Indiscriminate heaping together of bright greens, flaming reds, and crude blues, frightens away the intending purchaser, who sees at a glance all the worst points instead of the best. Bright-hued Oriental silks and broches, Japanese fans, parasols, etc., add a very elegant appearance to the stall, and the various articles can be arranged with them as a background. The silks take no harm from the exposure, and do not require cutting. Those who are fortunate enough to possess any old-fashioned brocades, etc., can thus add much to the artistic appearance of their stalls.

ARTICLES SUITABLE FOR A BAZAAR.

Doyleys—Baskets—Tennis-Aprons—Caps—Pictures—Cosies.

First and foremost, there is the still fashionable crewel embroidery ; and so various are the articles for which it can be used that this book could be filled with descriptions of them alone. Perhaps, for certain things, outline stitch is rather superseding the regular embroidery, and very pretty and inexpensive are the chair-covers made of oatmeal cloth or coarse holland, embroidered at one end with little figures, in the style of Kate Greenaway's drawings. Most of these outline sketches are executed all in one color ; but the work is, as may be imagined, chiefly suitable for figures or geometric designs : flowers do not look at all well so worked. Dessert doyleys are very pretty embroidered in this stitch and fringed at the edges, while the same designs look well carried out in etching with marking-ink. Some of these doyleys are etched on pale blue or pink jean, and edged with a frill of white Valenciennes lace, put on just full enough to enable it to sit flat. Tennis aprons are well adapted to ornamentation with this stitch, suitable designs being embroidered on the bottom of the skirt, bib, and pocket. The great advantage of the stitch for fair purposes is that it is so very quickly done, a few hours being quite sufficient to complete a chair-cover at least. Of more elaborate embroidery there are some beautiful designs to be had ; but how poor and miserable do they look unless well carried out ! One of the prettiest we have seen lately was, perhaps, hackneyed as far as the pattern went, but was lovely as to work—a group of scarlet poppies, corncockles, ears of corn, and ox-eye daisies. Another piece of work, intended for a mantel valance, was a flowing trail of white arums and leaves, very handsome indeed for a large room. A group of water-lilies, for a screen, was also handsome.

Baskets innumerable, of all shapes and sizes, are fashionable and always salable. Trimmed up in all sorts of different ways, they are used for any imaginable purpose. Waste-paper baskets are no longer the typical lattice-work baskets seen in pictures of a few years ago ; they are ornamented with scallops of different-colored cloth, finished with a tassel at each point, or between each point. Some of them are covered with rows of ball-fringe or colored braid, interlaced in a pattern amongst the wicker-work. The flat baskets with two handles, so useful for shopping purposes, may now be bought for a few cents ; and when embroidered at the side with a bunch of flowers worked with coarse wool and a large needle, and nicely finished off with bows of ribbon to match the lining, are easily sold for as many quarters as they were purchased for cents originally. One of the most effective ways of ornamenting these baskets is to cut out of dark green cloth some leaves, the veins being outlined with silk and the edges button-holed over if the cloth seems likely to ravel ; fix them to the basket either by stitching or gumming, and work the stalks in chain-stitch ; then make, in the same way as the soft balls for children are made, little red cherries (it will look better to have some of the fruit paler in color than the rest, and some small ones quite green), and fasten them to the basket by a soft hanging stalk.

Lawn-tennis aprons of all sorts and sizes are always in request, and very various are the materials of which they may be made and the different modes of ornamenting them—outline stitch, embroidery, appliqué, and lace ; last, but certainly not least, must be mentioned those made of pocket-handkerchiefs.

Caps, lace ties, and jabots, smart muslin pinafores for babies, and such little daintinesses, are sure to find favor at a bazaar. Caps may be made of almost any material at a minimum expenditure of time and money. The simplest are those made from embroidered handkerchiefs. The first thing to be done is to make a shape of crinoline or other stiff muslin, and run ribbon wire inside to make it keep in form and fit well to the head. The handkerchief is very easily made up over the shape ; one corner is placed at the back and the two sides brought round the side of the cap as far as they will go toward the front ; the rest of the handkerchief must lie in loose folds over the crown, and the other two corners form a trimming in the front. Here and there it may be found difficult to completely hide the foundation, but such little inequalities are easily concealed with a few loops of ribbon to match the embroidery of the handkerchief. The look of the cap is greatly improved by a frill of lace or lisse frilling tacked inside, so that it rests against the hair and saves the cap itself from getting dirty. It is easily renewed, and the cap wears much longer with it than without it.

Smarter caps look very nice made of nothing but pleatings of Breton lace (or lisse for mourning), overlapping each other, and with no trimming but a knot of flowers in front. Many ladies like the turban caps made of nothing but a piece of India silk, and care should be taken to have some on the stall suitable for fair as well as dark complexions. Odds and ends of lace may be used up in a dozen different ways. One yard of India muslin at 50 cents will make at least six articles with the help of lace. Ties of different lengths and little lace bows for the front of a dress are very quickly tacked together. The prettiest bows are made by taking about three-quarters of a yard of lace, about six inches wide or a little less, cutting it in half and joining both pieces in a circle. Take a piece of In-

dia muslin the same size as the circles of lace, and about four inches wide, and join that also in a circle. Trim each end of the muslin with the lace, so that when progress so far has been made you have a circular piece of muslin trimmed with lace at each end, and looking like a sleeve. Then, in the exact middle of the muslin, run a gathering-thread and draw it up tight, fasten it off securely, and finish off the bow by a tie or knot of lace in the center to hide the draw-thread. These bows sell much better if a spray of artificial flowers be fastened carelessly on them, or if a tube be fixed at the back to hold a natural flower when worn.

A novelty at a bazaar is to sell household articles, such as tea-cloths, and dusters done up in packets of a dozen, smart cooking-aprons, jelly-bags, gay afternoon tea-cloths, and any other household necessaries ingenuity may suggest. If a bazaar is to take place anywhere near Christmas, it is a good plan to have a stall devoted to Christmas and New Year's cards.

Occasionally at a bazaar one stall is devoted to the sale of articles of dress, and this has proved very successful. Hats of plush, straw, or velvet, of all sizes, shapes and styles, tea-gowns, children's costumes, gloves, and even tiny boots, knitted petticoats and hoods are among the most salable articles.

Pictures are an attractive feature in a bazaar, and if a good number of choice pictures can be obtained and hung in one of the side rooms, it may prove a successful picture gallery ; and many people will doubtless be willing to lend their pictures for such exhibition. It is a very usual practice to hang pictures in the room where the bazaar is held, especially just above the stalls.

Tea and egg cosies in crewels or braiding ; screens, banner-ets, in feathers or water colors ; shaving tidies of white jean, with a group of flowers painted or embroidered on them ; paintings on white silk to be finished for antimacassars by the addition of a lace border ; knitted or patch-work quilts, afghans, and carriage-rugs will all sell profitably.

All kinds of cane, rush, and wicker-work ; hanging-baskets for ferns, made of cones or acorns ; photographs and picture frames of paper stars, cardboard, or straw work ; papier-mâché blotting-books, card trays, crumb trays, and brushes ; fancy china, terra-cotta ; tiny statuettes in bronze, Parian marble, or alabaster ; Indian and Japanese trinkets and curiosities will be eagerly sought after.

NOVELTIES FOR BAZAARS.

Daisy Mats—Mottoes—Moss-Frames—Wall-Pockets—Letter-Cases.

DAISY MATS.--Carry the wool across the frame from peg to peg till one side is full ; then turn the frame and work across in the same manner. When all the pegs are covered break and fasten off the wool. Take a meshful of coarse knitting cotton, and secure each place where the strands cross each other. When this is done, cut half the thickness of the work between each fastening, and with the points of the scissors shape it into a smooth ball. Remove the mat from the frame by lifting the wool off the pegs.

A pretty novelty for holding a thimble is a small top-boot. Round the sole are places for pins. This is not at all difficult to make. The shape is cut in cardboard, and then covered with velvet or silk.

Etched doyleys, when well done, are very effective. The best material for etching upon is satin jean. A fine-pointed steel pen and good marking-ink are necessary. Care must be taken to work the right way of the jean, or spluttering will disfigure it. Hold the work to the fire while in progress, and when finished iron on the wrong side. This will prevent the ink from turning brown when the doyley is washed.

Kettle-holders made of a variety of materials are found to sell well ; they may be made of spatter-work on jean, on canvas embroidered with crewels, of crash, of plaited ribbons, etc. They should be lined with flannel of a contrasting color and finished with a ruche. A very good idea is to make tea-cosies and kettle-holders to match, to sell together.

Work-bags for children, made of holland, are very acceptable. They are made in the shape of a round apron. A part of the bottom is turned up and cut into large scallops. The points are fastened down. A band round the waist completes the bag. The edges look well if bound with red braid or cotton Scotch plaid.

Very pretty tea-cosies can be made in the following manner : Buy some cotton-backed satin, and quilt it, lining it with sarcenet and edging with a silk cord. Fasten a spray of artificial leaves on the outside, or a cluster of acorns, berries, etc. Pale blue and cherry color show the leaves to the best advantage.

Children's scrap-books made of holland sell well. The pages should be well filled with gaily-colored pictures.

Pretty tidies are easily made of net or spotted muslin, with the addition of a frill all round and bows at the corners.

Note-cases of brown holland bound with braid are very popular with children at bazaars. They should be made of the size and shape of blotters, with a pocket at one end, into which note-paper is slipped. A piece of elastic down the middle holds some sheets of blotting-paper in their place. Similar cases, made of leather, crash, or *toile cirée*, with a design in crewels, serve to hold letters, photographs, etc.

An exceedingly pretty little pincushion consists of a bunch of tiny hearts in cardboard, each covered with a different shade of silk or velvet. The pins are put in all round. A bright-colored ribbon, to which each heart is attached by a little string, is tied in a bow connecting all together.

Emery cushions can be made very easily, and gummed into acorn-cups, beechnut-cups, or walnut-shells. They are very neat and pretty.

Dolls' bedsteads are ingeniously made out of small, oblong boxes by placing the lid at right angles to the box, and then covering all with a valance and curtains. The coverings and pillows must just fit the box, and can be trimmed round with very narrow imitation Valenciennes lace.

Menu-cards in packets of a dozen will be found to sell well. These can be made in a variety of elegant designs. Autumn leaves well arranged and gummed on to the cards, pretty groups of hand-painted flowers or miniature landscapes, pen-and-ink sketches, etc., will all be suitable. The greater originality displayed the better.

A decided novelty in crosses, frames for small pictures, and

similar ornaments, and one that strongly resembles carved jet, can be made by pounding thick black glass into fragments, heating them very hot in the fire to soften the sharp edges, and then attaching them to the surface of the article you wish to decorate by means of strong glue.

In making picture frames or crosses, a light wood foundation is preferable to cardboard, as it is less likely to warp.

Blue, green, crimson, or other colored glasses may be substituted for black in making ornamental work, if the surface of the article first be colored the same shade as the glass. A very transparent glue must be used to fasten the particles.

MOTTOES.—Exquisite mottoes can be made as follows:—Cut a piece of very stiff cardboard the desired shape and size of your motto. Give the upper surface a thick coat of mucilage, and over this press the thickest and best pure white cotton wadding. When this is firmly attached and the gum quite dry, gently pull off the smooth upper surface of the wadding, and very gently pull up, here and there, that which is attached to the cardboard and sprinkle with diamond-dust, such as is used for wax flowers, and you have what looks like snow. This for the foundation. Having ready your letters or other designs for the motto, cut in thin cardboard, cover them with glass of the desired color—different colors mixed are pretty—fasten on the cotton foundation, and frame with a border of black glass. Christmas and New Year's mottoes are very pretty with the border and lettering made of evergreens mixed with white and scarlet berries. Another beautiful motto is made by covering a heavy cardboard foundation with pale blue frosted plush or velvet, the lettering, etc., made of white cotton wadding, frosted with diamond-dust, and the frame of the motto made of white glass. Exceedingly unique and rustic-looking mottoes and other ornaments can be made by fastening on to a cardboard foundation the dry, greenish-gray moss found on wood's bark as a background, and making the lettering, designs, etc., of light green moss that has been pressed for the purpose, and tiny autumn leaves and such pressed flowers as retain their colors. Frame with cedar spray or the slender branches of the pine tree, from which the needles have been removed.

Moss Frames.—Very pretty frames for small photographs or engravings may be made of the wood's moss before referred to that is found on the bark of most forest trees, and in profusion on that of apple-trees. To make these frames, make stiff cardboard foundation, attach the moss with glue, commencing with the lightest shades of moss for the inside edges of frames and the darkest for the outer edges. Now go over the surface of the moss with a brush that has been dipped in very thin mucilage, and whilst yet damp sift over it diamond-dust or the fine glass that may be had at any glass factory.

Artificial Moss.—Take green single wool shaded in the skein, or you may mix the shades to suit yourself, and split it carefully. With a medium-sized steel crochet-hook make, on a foundation chain of seven stitches, strips a yard or more in length in single crochet. When you have crocheted as much as you think you will need, wet it thoroughly in the following solution: One cup of warm soft water, one tablespoonful of alcohol, one teaspoonful of strong spirits of ammonia, and the whole stirred with a bit of white soap until it makes a slight lather. When thoroughly wetted squeeze out the strips, and press between thick cloths or papers with heavy warm irons until every bit of moisture has been absorbed. Let it lie a few days, the longer the better, before using. When you wish to use the crocheted strip, overhand it very closely lengthwise of one edge with green thread or wool, cut the other edge of the entire length, wasting as little as possible. Now cut in slits, half an inch apart, to within one-eighth of an inch of the over-seamed edge, and ravel out, and you will find that you have a lovely imitation of moss. Sew in alternate strips on your foundation for frame or mat, and you may frost, if you choose, the same as the *real* moss. This artificial moss is especially pretty for lamp-mats, or as a binder for rugs that have been worked on canvas. For this latter purpose, it is pretty knitted in shaded brown. Instead of the crochet-hook this moss may be made with coarse steel knitting-needles in plain knitting.

Wall Pockets.—Very effective pockets or catch-alls are made of cheap straw wide-brimmed hats. Buy at the druggist's or fancy dealer's, a bottle of liquid-gilt, and put it all over the outside of the hat with a camel's-hair brush. Let it dry thoroughly, and then line the brim with satin, and in place of a crown lining make the satin to form a bag and draw with a drawing-cord and tassels. Turn the hat up on one side, and put on a large bunch of dried grasses and ribbon, also a few wild-flowers. For those who have not seen them, children's little wooden pails with fancy pictures on or painted in water-colors, and finished at the top with satin frilled on to form a bag, are very pretty and inexpensive.

Cap Basket.—A basket of this description is very useful for elderly ladies who dwell in the country and carry their caps when dining out, and it is also useful for carrying about fancy work, etc. A round is formed of silver paper, it is lined, and at each side there is a crimson silk or satin bag, drawn with a silk cord. If preferred, cardboard covered with Java canvas and worked in cross-stitch can be substituted for the silver paper.

Chinese Penwiper.—Take a diminutive Chinese fan with very long handle, cover the fan with silk on both sides, then cut several pieces of black cloth and fasten each side of fan. For the outside cut off cardboard, cover with silk, and transfer a Chinese picture in the center. To complete the ornamentation, fasten a few light feathers turning toward the handle, and finish with a fine cord and small tassels.

Curtain-Band—Knitting.—(White cord and coarse steel needles.) Begin by crocheting a loop loosely with 18 chain and 1 slip stitch; then place the stitch on the knitting-needle and knit to and fro as follows: First row—Twice alternately cotton forward, and decrease 1 (that is, slip 1 as if for purling, knit 1, and pass the slipped stitch over the knitted one). Second row—Twice alternately cotton forward, decrease 1; repeat the second row as often as necessary, cast off, and crochet a loop of 18 chain as above. This is also pretty, used for a border on table-covers or brackets, and hang tassels in the loops to form a fringe.

Fan or Hand-Screen.—Cover two pieces of very thin cardboard on one side with silk. Paint or embroider a floral design in the center of each. For the handle use the end of an

old parasol handle, or purchase a handsome carved tooth-brush and cut the bristles off, and glue it firmly between the two card-boards. Finish the edge with chenille and gold braid, and at the top, glue in any kind of fancy feathers, cord and tassels to correspond with the silk and painting.

Herring-Bone Purse.—Only two needles are required for this knitting. Cast on eighty-eight stitches, begin with the silk forward, slip a stitch, knit a stitch, pass the first over the second, knit a stitch, bring the silk forward and rib the next; when this is done the silk will be forward; begin again. If the purse is required to be longer, cast on as many stitches as are necessary, only it must be a number which can be divided by *four*.

Porcupine Knitting for a Purse.—Four fine needles, nearly three skeins of silk, and one string of gold beads are required. Thread some of the beads on the silk before you begin. Cast 36 stitches on each of three needles, knit a plain round; knit 4 stitches, bring the silk forward, knit a stitch—this is the center stitch of the pattern—bring the silk forward, knit 4 stitches, slip a stitch, taking it under, knit 2 taken together, pull the slipped stitch over it, then begin knitting the 4 stitches again, etc. It is better, at the end of each needle, to knit a stitch off the next one, as it prepares for the next round. Continue thus for six rounds, increasing before and after every center stitch, and knitting till within one of where you decreased, which stitch slip, knit the next two together, and pull the slipped stitch over it; knit a plain round, knit another round plain, excepting over the center stitches, where you are to knit a bead, bringing it through the stitch; knit a plain round, keeping the beads on the outside of the purse (this purse is knitted wrong side outward); knit to within one stitch of the bead stitch, which slip; knit two together. These six rounds increase each side of the stitch you decreased with in the last pattern, which makes that the center stitch for the bead. It is easy to count the number of rounds you have done at the place where you decreased.

A very pretty chatelaine pocket may be made by cutting the shape first in cardboard, one for the front and another for the back, similar in shape to the first, only with a pointed piece to turn over and button envelope fashion. A third piece, an inch and a half wide, must surround the first piece of cardboard and be joined to it on one side, and the second piece on the other side. Line each of these pieces with silk or cambric, and cover the outside with velvet or corded silk before joining together. Edge the seams with a small gold or silk cord, leaving a loop at the point of the envelope, which must fasten to a corresponding button on the first piece. If the bag is velvet the belt must be the same, if of silk then the belt must be silk. The bag must be hung to the belt by two cords, from either side, of the same kind as trims the seams, and joined at the waist by a button or hook.

A neat work-case may be made of Java canvas twelve inches long and seven broad, a bit of silk the same size for lining, and six skeins of worsted or floss, any color best liked. Work a border down both sides of the canvas and across one end, leaving space to turn in the edge of the material. The border may be as simple as you like; four rows of cross-stitch will do. When the border is done, baste on the lining, turn in the edges, and seam it very neatly. Then turn up the lower end of this strip to form a bag, and sew the edges together firmly. The embroidered end folds over to form a flap like a pocket-book, and must have two small buttons and loops to fasten it down.

Knitting-bags made of Turkish toweling are very convenient to hang on the back of a chair and hold knitting-work when not needed. They are made of four pieces, each one a foot long, pointed at the top and bottom, and slightly curved toward the middle on both sides. The pieces are braided or embroidered in silk or worsted in some simple pattern, bound with narrow ribbon of bright color, and sewed together with a tassel to finish the bottom and a drawing ribbon at the top.

Work-aprons may be made like any aprons, secured by a band around the waist, except that they are cut ten inches longer. This extra ten inches of length is to be turned up from the bottom and divided off by stitching, so as to form four or more oblong pockets open at the top. These pockets are handy for balls of worsted, patterns, or unfinished work.

Scent-cases, for the top of a trunk or drawer, may be made of large silk or muslin cases, quilted with orris-root or sachet-powder, and are acceptable to almost all ladies. Pocket sachets of silk, quilted and trimmed with gold twist, or braided and scented, are pretty presents for gentlemen. A glove-sachet should be the length and width of an ordinary pair of gloves. It must be quilted and edged with narrow silk cord, with a small loop at each corner. A necktie-sachet is made narrow and just long enough to hold an evening tie folded in half. Articles which will be found useful and acceptable to clergymen are sermon-covers of either silk or velvet, a trifle larger than ordinary sermon paper, lined with silk, and having a cross or monogram embroidered or braided on them. A bit of fine elastic should be placed inside from top to bottom to hold the leaves in their place.

For comforters, those knitted in brioche stitch in single Berlin wool are the softest, most pliable and elastic. It is an easy stitch to knit, as every row is the same. It is * over, slip 1 as if about to purl, knit 2 together, repeat from *. The next row is the same, * over, slip 1, knit 2 together, repeat from *, but the slipped stitch is the one made by "knit 2 together" in the last row, and the over and the slipped stitch of the last row are knitted together. It takes two rows to make a complete stitch, one each side of the work. Seventy-two stitches make a wide comforter, and any color looks well with stripes of black at the end. A fringe should finish it.

Hairbrush-cases are useful, and may be made ornamental also. A pretty one is made of a length of blue cambric or sateen, covered with spotted muslin, sufficiently long and wide to lie on a table under brushes, and fold across above them. An edging of lace and ruche of blue satin ribbon is added all round as a finish, but must be on alternate sides, making a division in the center where the folding is, as the side that passes over the brushes must be trimmed on the outside. Sometimes the ruche is put on both sides. Another pattern is to make the case to fit the brushes easily, with a flap to fold over, and to work designs on the case and flap. Add a band of elastic on the flap below the pattern for the comb. For traveling, the flap turns over and buttons up. Such cases look well in linen, neatly braided.

Tasteful flowerpot-covers may be made of four pieces of card-board the height of ordinary flowerpots, and from five to eight inches in width, according to the size of the pot. Lace them together at the sides with fine gold or silver cord, and tie the cords at the top in a bow, with a little gold or silver tassel attached to each end. The four sides of the cover should be ornamented in the center of each with drawings, colored pictures, groups of dried flowers, ferns, seaweed, or autumn leaves, as fancy may dictate.

Letter-cases to hang on the walls are made by cutting a piece of white card-board twelve inches long. Make a point at the top, like the flap of an envelope, and bind it all round with narrow, bright-colored ribbon ; turn up four inches at the bottom to make a sort of flap-pocket ; lace it up each side with ribbon or cord, and bore a round hole in the point by which to hang it.

Cases similar to these, on a larger and stronger scale, are useful for hanging in libraries or sitting rooms, as a depository for newspapers, periodicals, etc. They offer great opportunities for a display of taste in decoration. Pockets, the same shape, of holland or crash, are handy to hang in closets for boots and shoes, and larger ones, divided into compartments for patterns or scrap-bundles, are invaluable.

A strong and neat music-case is made as follows :—Cut a piece of the leather some inches larger than an open piece of music, bind it all round, double it, and sew together at the edges. The music lies flat inside. Another shape is to cut it the size of the music with a good margin, line it, sew elastic in the center, under which the music is fastened, and then roll music and case together.

In lamp-shades, one has quite a play for ingenuity. Cut a shape in card-board and ornament with pictures, or prick a design with a pen-knife, which has an admirable effect. Dried flowers or ferns arranged on silk or card-board, and covered with prepared muslin to keep them from breaking off, are lovely and somewhat of a novelty. For a silk or thin ground, a brass wire of given circumference for the top, and another much wider for the bottom, are required. Very elegant shades may be made of pink crape. Cut a circle of the crape ; let the diameter of this circle be exactly double the depth you wish the shade to be ; cut a round hole in the center for the chimney of the lamp to pass through. Ornament the crape with small bunches of flowers cut out of cretonne, tacked on and buttonholed round. Edge the bottom of the shade with pink silk fringe about three inches wide, and finish by putting a close ruching of pink silk round the top, and you will have an uncommon-looking shade, and one which will shed a pleasing light through the room.

Children's reins for play, made from the following directions, are strong and pretty :—Cast, on a pair of bone knitting-needles, twenty stitches in double Berlin, and knit, in plain knitting, as tripe ten inches in length, always slipping the first stitch of every row ; cast off. To each end of this stripe is attached a circle for the arms, which is made thus : Take a piece of cord, the kind used in hanging pictures, and make circle the size of a child's arm at the shoulder ; sew the ends firmly together, splicing one a little past the other ; then cover the cord with cotton, wool, or flannel, to make it soft ; then cover lastly with a stripe of knitting, casting on eight stitches and knitting the length required, plain every row ; sew it on overcast on the inner side. Before attaching the stripe first knitted to the armholes, there ought to be sewed upon it some name, such as "Beauty," or "Fairy," and to the under edge, should be fastened three or four little bells. When fastening the stripe for the chest to the armholes, do not let the sewing be seen, but overcast on the inner side to the overcasting on the armholes. Cast on eight stitches and knit, in plain knitting, a rein the length required, two and a half yards being enough, as it stretches in use. Attach the ends to the armholes at the back, sewing to the overcasting ; then finish by knitting a stripe twenty stitches in breadth and ten inches in length, the ends of which sew to the armholes at the back, at the same place as the rein.

Dolls of all sizes, and dressed in every costume, from the bald-headed baby in long clothes to the young lady in Parisian attire, are not to be forgotten. One dressed in white cotton wool, or Canton flannel, as an Esquimaux, is an excellent toy for a baby. So also are the knitted dolls. These are knitted in fine worsted on No. 16 or 18 needles, and should be knitted to a shape. It would take too long to give exact directions, but you cannot go far wrong, if you lay a doll down and draw the outline. Knit, by this outline, two pieces and join them. A face is knitted with an oval piece of knitting, and drawn over an old face. With judicious dressing, you may have a fair result, even the first time of trying. Rabbits, cats, and dogs are all made in the same manner : they should be knitted in loop-stitch or looped crochet, then cut, combed, and stuffed. Rabbits, too, are very pretty made of gray velveteen and white plush, stuffed with wool, and pink or black beads used for eyes.

Dancing-men may be made of cork, dressed up, and with black silk strings to make them dance. Men and animals cut out of card-board, painted, and joined together with strong twine, afford great amusement, and are just as good as any you purchase.

Balls are made in various ways, and use up the various odds and ends to great advantage. The soft, fluffy balls made over cardboard are the best for this purpose. For one of these balls you trace a circle, the diameter of which must be the size you wish the ball. Say the diameter is three inches : inside this, and from the same point in the center, trace a smaller circle of one and a quarter inches in diameter. Cut this inner circle out, draw another exactly like the large one, keep the two together, and wind the wool you use over and over these two pieces of card, until you can draw no more wool through, even with a crochet-hook. You next cut the wool just over the outer rim of the two circles, and between the pieces of cardboard tie all the wool together securely with strong twine or with thick silk, if you wish to make the balls hang together. This silk must be left with long ends and crocheted up into a very fine cord in chain stitch. You next remove the cardboard and proceed to cut the wool and shape it round with a scissors : this is the only difficult part of the manufacture of these soft balls. Another method is to knit them in brioche stitch in one, two, or three colors, in single Berlin wool. Take a pair of No. 14 needles and cast on 28 stitches ; knit back. The

first row : * wool forward, slip the next stitch, knit the second ; repeat from * to the end of the row. Second row : * wool forward, slip as if you intended to purl the next stitch, knit the 2 stitches together, lying over each other ; repeat from * twelve times more, leaving 3 stitches unworked. Third row : Turn, wool forward, slip 1, knit 2 together twelve times, leaving 3 unworked at the other end of the needle. Fourth row : Turn, work as before eleven times. Fifth row : Turn, work as before ten times, and so on, leaving 3 more stitches, or another rib, until you have only two ribs in the center ; knit these two ribs, turn, and knit all the stitches off ; then knit two whole rows of the 28 stitches. Join now your second color, knit two whole rows, and then repeat from the second row. Eight of these little pieces will be required ; knit the two pieces together to join them, stuff it with lamb's-wool combed, or the shavings of other soft balls, and draw up the centers.

A third kind of ball is made by cutting pieces of kid or leather in the same shapes as those described above. Draw a circle the size you require the ball, and divide it into four or eight sections ; cut these out, then cut your pieces the same size, sew them together, stuff with hair or wool, and ornament with braid. Such balls may be made from old kid gloves.

Fancy Pincushion.—Take three small cane rods and put brass knobs at all the ends. Make the foundation of cushion of a large-size collar-box, cover the sides with velvet, upon which diamond-shaped pieces of perforated board are placed, worked round the edge with colored floss. Fill the box with bran, and cover the top with velvet. The canes are wound round, and the pincushion is crossed by a narrow strip of perforated card laid on to a narrow blue ribbon. Bows of blue ribbon are then tied on, and the stand is finished. A sharp knife is needed to cut the cardboard.

Box for Playing-Cards.—Materials : cardboard, wire, velvet, silk, ribbon, purse-silk or gold cord, and coarse sewing-silk. The box is intended to hold two packs of cards. There is an inner case, into which the cards are placed. This case lifts out, if desired ; but a little half-circle is cut out on each side of it to lift the cards out more readily. Both the outer and inner edges are worked round with a small zigzag pattern, or a row of herring-bone stitch will answer. The inner case is covered inside and out with silk. The sides of the inner case measure four and a half inches in width, and two and a half inches in depth, with the half-circle cut in the middle. The ends are two and a half inches deep, and two and a half inches wide. The bottom is cut to fit. Cover all inside and out with silk the color of the velvet, and work round the top with a little pointed pattern. Ribbon is put on to lift the case out by, and the cards may be tied in to keep them in place. For the outer case :—The cardboard ends are five inches high in the middle, and are rounded off toward the sides. They are three inches wide. The front and back are each five inches long and six inches deep. The back is joined to the ends four inches in depth. Previous to covering, the cardboard must have a cut made in it, so that it will bend, and wire must be sewn on to the part above the cut, so as to give it a proper curve to fit the arch of the ends. The front is joined to the ends two and a half inches in depth, and the card must here be cut. If by accident it is cut through, some hinges of ribbon must be glued on. The wire is put on from this part, and must be bent to the exact curve of the ends. The bottom is cut to fit. When the separate parts are cut they are all lined with silk, covered with velvet, and bound with ribbon. Ribbon is laid on flat, and worked down with the embroidery pattern at the hinges of the lid. The box is fastened at the top with two buttons and loops of cord placed under the ribbon bows.

Gentleman's Dressing-Case.—A straight piece of cloth doubled eleven inches broad and nineteen inches long. The ends are turned up to form pockets, and bound with ribbon or braid. A strip of leather with slits cut in it is stitched through the center of case, through which a strap sixteen inches long is slipped. Slope it a trifle at one end that it can go through readily, and make several buttonholes at the end, so that, after placing in the necessary articles, it may be drawn tightly and buttoned. On the outside is a strap bound with ribbon or braid to fasten the case when rolled.

Child's Worsted Horse-Reins.—Work with scarlet fingering wool over a crocheted chain as follows :—Make a long chain for insertion ; then, on a chain of 13 stitches, work, passing over the first stitch a row of double on the front thread of the previous row, inserting the chain cord ; at the end of the row, 1 chain, * turn the work, 1 slip stitch on the back thread of the previous row, without inserting the chain cord, at the end of the row, 1 chain ; repeat from * till the reins are the required length. Now work over the loops formed by the chain cord along both sides of the reins as follows : * 1 double over the first loop, 5 treble over the following loop ; repeat from *.

Comb-Case.—Take two pieces of silver perforated paper four inches long, and one and a quarter inches broad. Work them with purple and canary-colored worsted. Bind them with narrow purple ribbon, and ornament this binding at regular distances with little knots of canary twist, then overhand the two pieces together.

Child's Ball.—Take a large ball of yarn or a very thin india-rubber one. Commence the cover of worsted by making a chain of four stitches joined to a circle, and work in double stitches, increasing at regular intervals till the work is large enough to cover one-half the ball ; then work a few rows without increase, draw the cover over the ball, letting the wrong side of the work be outside, and work the other half to correspond with the first half, decreasing at regular intervals, and putting the needle in from the inside. A pattern of bright flowers worked with worsted round the center adds greatly to the ball's attractions for a child.

Glove-Case.—Materials : Silver-colored leather canvas ; lilac cashmere or llama ; 1¼ yards lilac sarcenet ribbon, 1 inch broad ; black and lilac Berlin wool in two contrasting shades ; twenty-four little enamel buttons ; white sewing-silk. The outer covering of the case consists of a piece of silver-colored leather canvas, 21 inches long and 6½ inches broad, sloped off equally on each side, and measuring 16 inches in length at the sides. The pattern is worked in cross and loose stitch in Berlin wool. The lining is lilac llama, fastened with wide button-hole stitch in white silk, ornamented with herring-bone

stitch of the same silk; 1¾ inches from the edge on each side are straps of white llama, ¾ inch broad, which button over each other to form six divisions for placing gloves. At the sloped ends are a ribbon with a knot and two uneven ends for fastening the case when rolled up.

Pretty, simple sachets for handkerchiefs are made in colored cardboard, crimson for instance. A square the necessary size is bound with very narrow black ribbon, and to this is sewed a ribbon about an inch and a half wide. Four semi-circular pieces of cardboard are then bound with the narrow black ribbon, and sewed to the upper edge of the wide. Two of these have ribbon to tie, and on them may be designed any pretty device in gold leaf or otherwise.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO DRESS, ETC.

How to Dress for a Fair—Raffles—Bran-Tubs—Fish-Ponds—Articles supplied from Stores.

How to Dress for a Fair.—The dress of the stall-holder should always be as neat and simple as possible. Heavy material, profuse trimming, trains and fringes encumber and harass the wearer, making her hot, tired and dusty; the fringes catch in everything, the trains are continually in the way, and the thickness of the dress makes the whole business a weary work.

In these days of light and pretty fabrics, there will be no difficulty in selecting such as will be tasteful and appropriate, giving satisfaction to the wearer and to others. Washing materials are decidedly the best; they do not catch and hold the dust, and they keep a cool and refreshing appearance throughout. Cambric, percale, batiste, chintz, oatmeal cloth, holland, or sateen will afford ample variety of choice. Foulard, too, is exceedingly suitable. The dress should be short and as waitress-like as possible. It is customary to wear aprons or the pretty pinafore costume, giving a graceful effect. These aprons can be of any suitable material. Many are made of the bright-hued Indian handkerchiefs, others of shepherd's plaid, or muslin. We noticed a very pretty apron made of white muslin, with a bib and bretelles passing over the shoulders to fasten at the back. These bretelles are only an inch wide, and are edged on each side with lace. A belt or sash can be worn if preferred, but the prettier style is as described.

In the matter of head-gear there is no limit. Caps are sometimes seen, but hats are most in favor. These may be as large and eccentric as the wearer pleases. Any bizarre style, or a hat worn with a fancy costume, will be just the thing. They should be profusely trimmed with feathers, lace, flowers, ribbon, etc. Gloves, of course, are not worn, though mittens may be.

Raffles, Bran-Tubs, etc. — These require much patience and good temper, since there is great trouble in getting them up and much disappointment in the drawing of lots.

The ugliest and least saleable articles should be raffled at the commencement of the Fair, or they remain unsold and in the way.

Towards the close of a Fair a number of articles should be put in a giant lottery in which are no blanks, so that none go away empty-handed. This form of raffling is usually popular.

The manner of conducting these raffles is to make so many shares of the value of fifty cents, or twenty-five cents, etc. When the full value of the article has been attained by means of the shares, as many slips of paper as there are shareholders are put in a hat, a basket, or bag, and each in turn draws out a ticket. The one who draws out the slip with the word "prize" written on it becomes the owner of the article and the lottery is over.

Bran-Tubs and Fish-Ponds are, however, those most chiefly patronized, and especially by juveniles. The prices will vary, of course, according to the value of the articles. The usual charge is ten cents a dip, though sometimes it is necessary to make it twenty-five cents, or lower it to a cent. A bran-tub at which the charge is so low as this last is always a success. A large tub must be procured, care being taken that it is first well scrubbed and cleaned; then cover it with glazed calico of a color corresponding or contrasting with the prevailing tone of the room, and further ornamented with flounces of lace or muslin and bows of ribbon. The bottom is then strewn with sawdust, and the articles, neatly wrapped in white paper, are packed in it. Now put more sawdust, pack in more prizes, and so on until the tub is filled.

The drawing of prizes takes place on the payment of the fee. Each subscriber plunges his hand into the tub, withdrawing it on securing a parcel. The chief amusement derived from this lottery is the absurd incongruity between the prize-winner and the prize. An old gentlemen may be seen parading with a toy drum, or a grandmamma of sixty with a rosy-cheeked doll.

A DIGEST OF THE

Laws Relating to the Rights of American Women.

MARRIAGE.

MARRIAGE may be entered into by any two persons, with the following exceptions: Idiots, lunatics, persons of unsound mind, persons related by blood or affinity, within certain degrees prohibited by law; infants under the age of consent, which, in the State of New York, is 14 for males and 12 for females, and all persons already married and not legally divorced.

The law relating to marriages, touching the prohibited degrees of kindred, age, and so forth, varies according to the statutes of the different States.

Marriage may be solemnized before any person professing to be a justice of the peace or a minister of the gospel.

But a precise compliance with all the requirements of law has not been deemed necessary; and in some important provisions it has been held that a disregard of them was punishable, but did not vitiate the marriage; as the want of consent of parents or guardians, where one party is a minor. The essential thing seems to be the declaration of consent by both parties, before a person authorized to receive such declaration by law.

Consent is the essence of this contract, as of all other contracts. Hence it cannot be valid, if made by those who had not sufficient minds to consent; such as idiots, or insane persons. Hence such marriages are void at common law and by the statutes of several of the States. It is usual, however, for such marriages to be declared void by a competent tribunal after a due ascertainment of the facts. In some of the States this can be done by common law courts.

From the necessity of consent likewise, a marriage obtained by force or fraud is void; but the force or fraud must be certain and extreme.

The same is true if another husband or wife of either of the parties be living.

Bigamy or polygamy is an indictable offence in *all* the States, but exceptions are made in cases of long-continued absence, with belief of the death of the party, etc. But these exceptions to the criminality of the act do not change the question as to the validity of the second marriage, which is the same as before. And so if the parties are within the prohibited degrees of kindred.

The consent of parents or guardians to the marriage of minors depends on the statutes of the several States. Generally, if not universally, the marriage would be held valid, though the person celebrating it might be held punishable.

In the statutes of some of the States there are provisions to the effect that a marriage not lawfully celebrated by reason of the fraud of one of the parties shall yet be held valid in favor of the innocent party, as in case the husband imposed upon the wife by a forged or unauthorized license or a pretended clergyman.

FOREIGN MARRIAGES.

It is a doctrine of English and American law that a marriage which is valid where contracted is valid everywhere. But it is subject to some qualification. A marriage contracted elsewhere would not be held valid in a State the law of which forbade it as incestuous, although an issue might be made whether it would be held incestuous, so far as to annul the marriage, if within the degrees prohibited by the laws of the State in which the question arose, or only if it be between kindred who are too near to marry by the law of the civilized world.

If a married man, a citizen of one of our States, went into a Mormon territory, and there married again, he would not be held on his return to be the lawful hus-

band of two wives; or if a Mormon came to any of the States with two or more wives, he would not be held to be the lawful husband of all of them.

Though the rule is true that a marriage which is void when contracted is valid nowhere, there are exceptions to it: as if two Americans intermarried in China, where the marriage was performed in presence of an American chaplain, according to American forms. If such marriage were held void in China, it would be held valid in the United States.

The incidents of marriage, and contracts in relation to marriage, such as settlement of property are construed by the law of the place where these were made; this being supposed to be the intention and agreement of the parties. But this rule does not hold when the parties are married while accidentally or temporarily absent from their homes, as then there is no domicile, and the marriage is regarded as constructively domestic.

DIVORCE.

The law and practice in relation to divorce differ in the different States, being exactly alike in no two of them

Absolute divorce can be obtained in the State of New York for adultery alone.

Limited divorce is granted on the following grounds:

1. Idiocy or lunacy.

2. Consent of either party having been obtained by force or fraud.

3. Want of age or of physical capacity.

4. The former husband or wife of the respective parties being still living.

5. Inhuman treatment, abandonment, neglect or failure on the part of the husband to provide for the wife.

6. Such conduct on the part of the defendant as would render it dangerous for plaintiff to cohabit with defendant.

A divorce *a vinculo* annuls the marriage entirely, and restores the parties to all the rights of unmarried persons, and relieves them from all liabilities that grew out of the marriage, except so far as may be provided by the statutes or made a portion of the decree by the court. Thus the statutes of some States provide that the guilty party shall not marry again. The court generally has the power to decree the terms of the separation, regarding alimony, possession of children, and so forth. Strict care is taken to prevent divorce being obtained by collusion. It will not be granted merely upon the consent or default of the party charged, but only on the proof of cause alleged.

The causes of divorce from bed and board are now very commonly made sufficient for divorce from the bond of marriage. As a general rule, a woman divorced from the bed and board of her husband acquires the rights of an unmarried woman, with regard to property, business, and contracts. The husband is relieved from his general duty of maintaining her, the courts generally exercising their power of decreeing such maintenance by the husband as the character and circumstances of the case render fit.

In some of the States it is the custom of the legistures to grant divorces by private acts, and this is sometimes done for the feeblest of reasons.

As a general rule, a divorce granted in a State in which both parties had their actual domicile, *and also* were married, is valid everywhere. Again, every State generally recognizes the validity of a divorce granted where both parties have their actual domicile, if granted in accordance with the law of that place.

In the United States the law on this subject is generally regulated by statutes, and these differ very much. In the absence of statutory provision, the rule of the courts generally is that a divorce, which was valid where granted, and which was obtained in good faith, is valid everywhere.

CONTRACTS TO MARRY.

Contracts to marry at a future time are valid and effectual in law as any; and, in actions upon them, damages may be recovered, for pecuniary loss, or for suffering and injury to condition and prospects.

Where the promise is mutual, an action for breach of promise may be maintained against a woman.

This action connot be maintained against an infant. But the infant may bring an action, in this case, against an adult.

A promise to give to a woman, or settle upon her, a specific sum or estate on her marriage, is valid.

RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN.

Any and all property owned by a woman at the time of her marriage, together with the rents, issues, and profits thereof, and the property that comes to her by descent, devise, bequest, gift or grant, or which she acquires by her trade, business, labor, or services performed on her separate account, shall, notwithstanding her marriage, remain her sole and separate property, and may be used, collected, and invested by her in her own name, and shall not be subject to the interference or control of her husband, or be liable for his debts, unless for such debts as may have been contracted for the support of herself or children by her as his agent.

A married woman may also bargain, sell, assign, transfer, and convey such property and enter into contracts concerning the same, on her separate trade, labor or business with the same effect as if she were not married. But her husband is not liable for such contracts, and they do not render him or his property in any wise

liable therefor. She may also sue and be sued in all matters having relation to her sole and separate property in the same manner as if she were sole.

A married woman's contract may be enforced against her and her separate estate :

First—When the contract is created in or respecting the carrying on of the wife's trade or business.

Second—When it relates to or is made for the benefit of her sole or separate estate.

Third—When the intention to charge the separate estate is expressed in the contract creating the liability.

When a husband receives a principal sum of money belonging to his wife, the law presumes that he receives it for her use, and that he must account for it, or expend it on her account by her authority or direction, or that she gave it to him as a gift.

Should he receive interest or income and spend it without her knowledge and without objection, a gift will be presumed from acquiescence.

Money received by a husband from his wife and expended by him, under his direction, on his land, in improving the home of the family, is a gift, and cannot be recovered by the wife, or reclaimed, or an account demanded.

An appropriation of her separate property by a wife, herself, to the use and benefit of her husband, in the absence of an agreement to repay, or any circumstances from which such an agreement can be inferred, will not create the relation of debtor and creditor, nor render the husband liable to account.

And though no words of gift be spoken, a gift by a wife to her husband may be shown by the nature of the transaction itself, or it may appear from the attending circumstances.

A wife who deserts her husband without cause is not entitled to the aid of a Court of Equity in getting possession of such chattels, as she has contributed to the furnishing and adornment of her husband's house. Her legal title remains, and she could convey her interest to a third party by sale, and said party would have a valid title, unless her husband should prove a gift.

A wife's property is not liable to a lien of a sub-contractor for materials furnished to the husband for the erection of a building thereon, where it is not shown that the wife was notified of the intention to furnish the materials, or a settlement made with the contractor and given to the wife, to her agent or trustee.

ADMINISTRATION.

Administration is the legal right to settle and control the estate of deceased persons, as also the exercise of that right. Letters of administration are the warrant under the seal of the court granting the legal right.

The estate of a person who has died leaving no valid will behind him, is distributed among his heirs by what is called "the operation of law." This is regulated by the statutes of the State in which the deceased resided at the time of his death. The distribution is made by an administrator duly appointed by law, and who is appointed by the court having jurisdiction in such cases on being satisfied that the person is legally qualified. The appointment must be made with the consent of the person appointed. It is generally accepted as a rule that any one is legally competent to be an administrator who is legally competent to make a contract. Certain classes of persons are disqualified by statute, as, in the State of New York, drunkards, gamblers, spendthrifts, and so forth. The relatives of deceased are considered as entitled to the appointment of administering the estate. The order of precedence is regulated by statute. Administration is to be granted to the husband on the wife's personal estate, and administration on the husband's estate is to be granted to the widow and the next of kin in the following order, provided they will accept:

1. To the widow.
2. To the children.
3. To the father.
4. To the brothers.
5. To the sisters.
6. To the grandchildren.
7. To any other of the next of kin who would be entitled to a share in the distribution of the estate.

The guardians of minors who are entitled may administer for them.

Should none of the relations or guardians accept, the administration will be given to the creditors of the deceased. The creditor applying first, provided he be legally competent, is to be preferred. In case no creditor applies, any person who is legally qualified may be appointed.

In the city of New York, the public administrator may administer the estate after the next of kin. In the State of New York, the Surrogate may select, among the next of kin, any one in equal degree, and appoint him sole administrator to the exclusion of the others. Where there are several persons of the same degree of kindred to the intestate, entitled to administration, they are preferred in the following order :

1. Males to females.
2. Relatives of the whole blood to those of the half blood.
3. Unmarried to married women, and in case there be several persons equally entitled, the Surrogate may grant letters to one or more of them as he may judge best.

Letters of administration unduly granted may be revoked.

Administration may also be granted on certain conditions, for a certain limited time, or for a special purpose.

The powers and duties of an administrator differ from those of an executor inasmuch as he is bound to distribute and dispose of the estate according to the direction of the law, as he has no will to follow.

First.—The administrator must give bonds with sureties for the faithful administration of his trust.

Second.—He must make an inventory of the goods and chattels of the intestate, in accordance with the requirements of the law.

Third.—Two copies of said inventory shall be made, one of which will be lodged with the judge of the court, and the other will be kept by the administrator. The latter will be obliged to account for the property mentioned in the inventory.

Fourth.—The inventory completed, the administrator must then collect the outstanding debts of the same, and follow the order of payment, as regulated by the local statutes.

All the debts of the intestate being liquidated, the administrator will divide the remainder of the assets among the surviving relatives of the deceased. In doing this he will act under the directions of the court.

Letters of administration are of three kinds: first, upon the goods, chattels, and credits of a person who shall have died intestate, as considered above; second, special letters of administration authorizing the administrator to collect and preserve the estate either of a testator in certain cases, or, of an intestate; and lastly, letters of administration authorizing the person appointed to execute the powers given by will of the deceased, called letters of administration, with the will annexed.

The last named is granted when there are no persons named as executors in the will; when all the executors named shall have renounced, or shall be legally incompetent; or after testamentary letters shall have superseded or revoked.

When a man having a family shall die leaving a widow, or a minor child or children, or a widow shall die leaving a minor child or children, the following articles shall not be deemed assets, for the purpose of distribution, the payment of debts or legacies, but shall be included and stated in the inventory of the estate without being appraised.

I. All spinning wheels, weaving looms, one knitting machine, one sewing machine, and stores put up and kept for use in the family.

II. The family Bible, family pictures, and school books used by or in the family of such deceased person, and books not exceeding in value fifty dollars, which were kept and used as part of the family library before the decease of such person.

III. All sheep to the number of ten, with their fleeces, and the yarn and cloth manufactured from the same; one cow, two swine, and the pork of such swine, and necessary food for such swine, sheep or cow for sixty days; and all necessary provisions, and fuel for such widow, or child, or children, for sixty days after the death of such deceased person.

IV. All necessary wearing apparel, beds, bedsteads, and bedding; necessary cooking utensils; the clothing of the family; the clothes of the widow, and her ornaments proper for her station; one table, six chairs, twelve knives and forks, twelve plates, twelve teacups and saucers, one sugar-dish, one milk-pot, and teapot and twelve spoons, and also other household furniture which shall not exceed one hundred and fifty dollars in value.

All articles and property set apart, in accordance with law for the benefit of a widow and a minor or minors, shall be and remain the sole personal property of such widow, after such minor or minors shall have arrived at age.

The executor or administrator, pending the final settlement of accounts, should not suffer any considerable balances to lie unproductive. When real securities are not to be had, he should obtain the approval of the surrogate as to the investment.

The executor should always exercise the care which a prudent man would use about his own affairs, as to title, when real estate is in question, or as to the security offered by a bank if a deposit is made of the fund.

Reasonable funeral expenses are to be paid in preference to any debts, and are charged as expenses of administration.

DISTRIBUTION.

When the deceased shall have died intestate, the surplus of his personal estate remaining after a payment of debts, and where the deceased left a will, the surplus remaining after the payment of debts and legacies, if not bequeathed, shall be distributed to the widow, children, or next of kin of the deceased in the manner following:

1. One third part thereof to the widow, and all the residue of equal portions, among the children, and such persons as legally represent such children, if any of them shall have died before the deceased.

2. If there be no children, nor any legal representatives of them, then one moiety (that is one half) of the whole surplus, shall be allotted to the widow, and the other moiety shall be distributed to the next of kin of the deceased.

3. If the deceased leave a widow, and no descend-

ant, parent, brother or sister, nephew or niece, the widow shall be entitled to the whole surplus; but if there be a brother or sister, nephew or niece, and no descendant or parent, the widow shall be entitled to a moiety of the surplus, and to the whole of the residue where it does not exceed two thousand dollars; if the residue exceed that sum, she shall receive in addition to her moiety two thousand dollars, and the remainder shall be distributed to the brothers and sisters and their representatives.

4. If there be no widow, then the whole surplus shall be distributed equally to and among the children, and such as legally represent them.

5. In case there be no widow, and no children, and no representatives of a child, then the whole surplus shall be distributed to the next of kin, in equal degree to the deceased, and the legal representatives.

6. If the deceased shall leave no children, and no representatives of them, and no father, and shall leave a widow and a mother, the moiety not distributed to the widow, shall be distributed in equal shares to his mother, and brothers and sisters, or the representatives of such brothers and sisters; and if there be no widow, the whole surplus shall be distributed in like manner to the mother and to the brothers and sisters, or the representatives of such brothers and sisters.

7. If the deceased leave a father, and no child or descendant, the father shall take a moiety, if there be a widow, and the whole if there be no widow.

8. If the deceased leave a mother, and no child, descendant, father, brother, sister or representatives of a brother or sister, the mother, if there be a widow, shall take a moiety, and the whole if there be no widow.

9. When the descendants or next of kin of the deceased, entitled to share in his estate, shall be all in equal degree to the deceased, their shares shall be equal.

10. When such descendants, or next of kin shall be of unequal degrees of kindred, the surplus shall be apportioned among those entitled thereto, according to their respective stocks; so that those who take in their own right, shall receive equal shares, and those who take by representation shall receive the shares to which the parent whom they represent, if living, would have been entitled.

11. No representation shall be admitted among collaterals after brothers' and sisters' children.

12. Relations of the half blood shall take equally with those of the whole blood, in the same degree, and representatives of such relations shall take in the same manner as the representatives of the whole blood.

13. Descendants and next of kin of the deceased begotten before his death, but born thereafter, shall take in the same manner as if they had been born in the lifetime of the deceased, and had survived.

These provisions apply to the personal estate of married women who die intestate, leaving descendants; and the husband of any deceased married woman may demand, recover, and enjoy the same distributive share in her personal estate that she, if a widow, would be entitled to in his personal estate, but no more.

The real property of every person dying intestate shall descend as follows:

1. To his lineal descendants.
2. To his father.
3. To his mother.
4. To his collateral relatives.

Should the inheritance come to the intestate on the part of the mother, the father does not take if the mother be living; and, in such a case, if she be dead, the father takes a life interest only, unless all the brothers and sisters of the deceased and their descendants be dead, or unless the deceased had no brothers or sisters, in which case the father is entitled to take the fee.

In case there is no father or mother, and the inheritance came to the deceased on the part of the mother, it will descend to the collateral relatives of the mother in preference to those of the father.

In case the inheritance came to the deceased on the part of neither father nor mother, it will descend to the collateral relatives of both in equal shares.

Relatives of the half blood inherit equally with those of the whole blood in the same degree.

The mother of an illegitimate child, dying without any descendants, takes the inheritance.

In addition to the provisions in favor of the widow and the minor children from the personal estate of her husband, it is provided that she may tarry in the house of her husband forty days after his death, whether her dower be sooner assigned or not, without being liable to rent for the same, and meantime she shall have her reasonable sustenance off the estate of her husband. This sustenance shall be provided out of the personal property of her husband, and through the executor or administrator, should one be appointed prior to the expiration of the forty days, and shall be given accordingly to the circumstances and station in life of the family, to the widow and children dependent on her. In providing this sustenance, the executor or administrator may exercise judgment and discretion, as he should in paying funeral expenses.

DOWER OF WIDOW.

Dower is the estate which the widow of a deceased person takes in the lands of her husband, being a life estate in one-third of the lands whereof he was seized of an estate of inheritance at any time during the marriage.

A widow can be barred of her dower by her own act only, such as by uniting with her husband, in conveying the land by ante-nuptial settlement, by acceptance of a devise or bequest, in lieu of a dower, or by conjugal unfaithfulness; but to make this last effectual a divorce should be decreed against her for adultery, in the lifetime of her husband.

The widow of an alien entitled to hold real estate, if an inhabitant of this state at the time of his death, is entitled to dower in the same manner, as if such alien had been a native citizen.

Any woman, being an alien, who has heretofore married, or who may hereafter marry a citizen of the United States, shall be entitled to dower, within this State to the same extent as if a citizen of the United States.

There are some restrictions to this general rule, as if a husband exchanges lands, the wife not uniting in the conveyance completing the exchange, she shall not be entitled to dower in both but shall make her election, and if she shall not begin proceedings to recover her dower in the land given in exchange, within a year following the death of her husband, she shall be considered as having elected to take her dower in the lands received in exchange. Where a person mortgages his lands before his marriage, his widow shall not be entitled to dower, as against the mortgagee, or those claiming under him, but she shall be entitled to dower against everybody else.

When a husband executes a mortgage for purchase money, the widow will not be entitled to dower, as against the mortgagee, or those claiming under him, but shall be entitled, as against all other persons, and if the lands so mortgaged be sold under such mortgage, she will be entitled to dower in any surplus remaining after payment of the mortgage, and costs and expenses of sale, and she shall be entitled to the interest or income of one-third of such surplus during life.

A wife may cut off her incolate dower, by uniting in the conveyance of land with her husband during the marriage, or, before her marriage, by consenting to receive a settlement, either in lands or money, as a jointure or provision in lieu of dower.

Any widow who shall not have her dower assigned to her within forty days after the decease of her husband, may apply for admeasurement of her dower to the proper court, specifying therein the lands to which she claims dower.

WILLS.

All persons of sound mind and of proper age are capable of disposing of their property by last will and testament. In some of the States minors may bequeath personal property. The limitation for disposing of personal estate by will is eighteen years for males and sixteen for females.

A will must be made in writing and subscribed with the testator's name, unless the person be prevented from so doing by the extremity of his last illness, in which case his name may be signed in his presence, and by his express direction. But in such a case the statute requires that the writer shall also affix his own name as a witness, or incur a penalty of fifty dollars.

A will requires at least two attesting witnesses.

The form of a will is not material, provided it manifests, in a sufficiently clear manner, the intention of the testator. He may put it in any language he may choose.

A will may be revoked at any time by the testator.

It may be revoked as follows:

First.—By subsequent instrument. A second will nullifies a former will, providing it contains words expressly revoking it, or that it makes a different and incompatible disposition of the property.

Second.—By the destruction of the will.

Third.—By marriage. Marriage, and the birth of a child after the execution of a will, is a presumptive revocation of such will, provided wife and child are left unprovided for.

An unmarried woman's will is annulled by her marriage. She may make a deed of settlement of her estate, however, before marriage, empowering her to retain the right to make a will after marriage.

Children born after the execution of the will, and in the lifetime of the father, will inherit at the death of the testator in the same manner as if he had died without making a will.

Fourth.—By alteration of estate. Any alteration of the estate or interest of the testator in the property devised, implies a revocation of the will.

A sale of the devised property, or a valid agreement to sell it, is a legal revocation of such will.

A codicil, so far as it may be inconsistent with the will, works a revocation.

A subsequent will, duly executed, revokes all former wills, though no words to that effect may be used.

Property cannot be devised to corporations, unless such corporations are expressly authorized to receive bequests by their charters.

A will should not be written by a legatee or devisee, nor should either of them, or an executor, or any one interested in the will be called upon to witness such will.

Married women are now enabled to devise real estate in the same manner and with the like effect as if they were unmarried.

And no person having a husband, wife, child or parent shall, by his or her last will and testament, de-

vise or bequeath to any benevolent, charitable, literary, scientific, religious, or missionary society, association or corporation, in trust or otherwise, more than one-half part of his or her estate, after the payment of his or her debts, and any such devise or bequest shall be valid to the extent of one-half and no more.

Every citizen of the United States may take lands by devise.

And any person may take personal property by bequest under any will, except a witness thereto.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS.

All marriages, births, and deaths are required by law to be recorded, within a given time.

Of these the death record is the only one, as a rule, that is kept with measurable accuracy. The authorities are extremely careful that no body be interred without special permission, and due certificate as to death, cause of death, &c. Births are only partially reported, and though failure to report the fact to the Board of Statistics by one or all of those present at the birth is punishable under the law as a misdemeanor, the authorities, in many of our cities, wink at such delinquencies, although it is on record that fines have been imposed on physicians and others for violation of the code in this regard. But burial permits, procured for the removal of the body of the deceased person, can only be granted and signed by the Register of Records. No permits can be procured without a proper certificate from the physician who attended the case. In the event of sudden, violent, or suspicious death, whether with or without the attendance of a physician, the Coroner steps in and subpœnas a "properly qualified physician," to view the body of the deceased persons, or, if necessary, to make an autopsy thereon.

No master of a ferryboat or public conveyance may carry the body of a deceased person without presentation of the death certificate, duly signed, and the same rule applies to those in charge of the burial ground.

The statistics cover every detail, regarding the various diseases causing death, the times and the seasons in which death occurs; and in the case of birth, the parentage, whether native or foreign born, black, white, or parti-colored, together with the place of birth, the father and mother's names, the mother's maiden name, the birthplace (County or State) of the father and mother, their age and occupation, the number of the child, whether first, second, &c. New York is less accurate in its birth returns than any other city in the Union, only 65 per cent. of the births being reported. Massachusetts is the most exacting and accurate of any of the States in the matter of the registering of births.

LANDLORD AND TENANT.

Where a tenant hires rooms from another the relation of landlord and tenant is formed with certain corresponding rights and privileges. If the hiring be by the month, the tenant may leave when the month expires, without incurring any new liabiliiy. In such a case the landlord has the liberty of terminating the tenancy at the end of the month, and the power to dispossess the tenant, upon giving the latter five days' written notice that unless the tenant removes at the end of the month the landlord will resort to proceedings to dispossess him.

If the hiring be by the year, the same corresponding rights and privileges attach, excepting that the five days' preliminary notice need not be given to the yearly tenant. If the hiring is by the year, the tenant cannot be dispossessed until the year expires, if the rent be paid in the meantime.

The difficulties tenants often experience arise from a misunderstanding of the nature of their hiring—that is, while they frequently regard it as by the year, the landlord regards it as by the month If the court happens to agree with the landlord, in his construction with the hiring, the tenant must go; and in this respect the landlord has the advantage; tenements are generally hired by the month, at a monthly rental, and the printed receipt given provides that "the letting is by the month only." These circumstances tend to corroborate the landlord in his theory, which accounts for the fact that landlords generally succeed in their construction of those agreements.

If the tenant, instead of accepting these receipts providing that the hiring is "by the month only," will get the landlord to leave that provision out, his chances of remaining for the year are improved; and if he can induce the landlord to insert in the receipt the words, "the hiring is for one year," his possession for that time is assured. Where a tenant hires by the month and remains in possession after the expiration of the month, the landlord has an option either to treat the tenant as a tresspasser or as a tenant for a renewed term of one month. He may treat him as a tresspasser by dispossessing him, or as a tenant for a new term of one month by accepting the second month's rent.

In this way these monthly tenancies are sometimes continued for months, when all of a sudden they are brought to a close by five day's notice from the landlord that the tenant must remove at the end of the month.

If the hiring is by the month, it matters not what the landlord's reason for terminating it may be, the law gives him a legal right to bring it to a close, and his motive for so doing becomes immaterial.

The only way for a tenant to protect himself from this risk is by written agreement, specifying distinctly that he hires by the year, or by a receipt signed by the landlord or his agent, indicating in substance the same

thing, or by an oral understanding, had in presence of witnesses, that the hiring is by the year, and for the tenant to refuse to accept receipts indicating that the hiring is by the month only.

Leases for one year or less need no written agreement. Leases for more than a year must be in writing; if for life, signed, sealed and witnessed in the same manner as any other document.

Leases for over three years must be recorded. No particular form is necessary.

In the city of New York, when the duration of the occupation is not specified, the agreement shall be held valid until the first day of the May following the occupation under such agreement.

A landlord can no longer distress for rent in New York, nor has any lien on the goods and chattels of the tenant for rent due. Rent may be collected by action after the removal of the tenant.

A tenant is not responsible for taxes, unless it is so stated in the lease.

A lease falling into the hands of a party accidentally would be invalid, and must, in all cases, be delivered to the party for whom it is intended.

The tenant may underlet as much of the property as he may desire, unless it is expressly forbidden in the lease. Tenants at will cannot underlet.

A lease made by a minor is not binding after the minor has attained his majority. But it binds the lessee, unless the minor should release him. Should the minor receive rent after attaining his majority, the lease will be thereby ratified. A lease given by a guardian will not extend beyond the majority of the ward. A new lease renders void a former lease.

In case there are no writings the tenancy begins from the day possession is taken; where there are writings and the time of commencement is not stated, the tenancy will be held to commence from the date of said writings.

If a landlord consents to receive a substitute, the former tenant is thereby released.

Sculpture—Modelling.

ANYONE starting for the first time as a sculptor must be struck by the extreme simplicity of the material and the ease with which the rudiments of the art are to be learnt. A lump of soft clay, a board to put it upon, and a few wooden tools of most simple shapes—these, and a bit of sponge, and your own fingers are really all that is necessary to produce a result. When the result has been attained, and the work has been modelled, then no doubt there are a few things to learn to enable you to transpose your work—which now exists in soft material—into a hard and more durable substance, either into stone, plaster, or terra cotta. There is no good in disguising the fact that to carve properly, a strong arm and a firm grasp are required, and that is not consistent with a woman's more delicate frame. She may console herself though with the reflection that there are many man sculptors who do not do their own carving, so she will not be exceptional if she employs help to perform that part for which she is not fitted.

In earlier days it would have been almost impossible for ladies to take up the profession of a sculptor, as we have reason to believe that the clay model was much less depended upon, the statue in marble being worked from small sketches or models, and not so elaborately pointed up, or so dependant for its general form upon mechanism as now. With all this great difference it is still a pity for a man who is able, not to carve or finish his marble work himself, and in fact our best work has been produced by the sculptor's own chisel; it is, however, considered legitimate help, and a lady would be perfectly justified in employing assistance in that branch of the art.

You will find that although the rudiments are so easily learned, the art of modelling will not appear so very easy; and if you love your work, you will find there is more and more to learn, and the knowledge will gradually dawn upon you that sculpture is not merely a copy of what you see, but rather a free translation. It is easier certainly to produce a show in this art than in painting, that is, it requires a less skilled artist to reach to a certain point in the one than in the other; but that being the case, it is equally certain that it requires greater art to put individuality into sculpture than into painting, and to touch the deeper chords of human nature, for that which helps you at the commencement of your career, namely, the simplicity of your materials, impedes you as you march onward, and makes it very difficult for you to impress your thoughts into it. You have form, and form alone, to deal with, color being entirely excluded. (The question of polychromy is not alluded to here, as the color employed by the Greeks was especially unrealistic and decorative in its character.) Sculpture, therefore, is one step further off life than her sister art, and it requires more imagination both to enjoy it thoroughly and to practice it to perfection.

To prove that form is more rarely appreciated than color, we would instance the general opinion of faces that we meet at an assembly. Ask why a certain face pleases more than another, and the answer will be generally one based on complexion and expression rather than on form. Now complexion is impossible to render in sculpture, and in the power of expression the art is exceedingly limited; the subtle changings, the exquisite language of the eye, being entirely outside the province of sculpture.

We will assume now that you are not troubling yourself about the limits of a sculpture's art, that you are not going into the abstruse question of Lessing's Lacoon, about what can and what cannot be done, nor are dreaming at present of ranking with Phidias, Michael Angelo, and the other giants, but are simply

anxious to do your little in the modeller's art, and would be glad if all unnecessary difficulties were cleared for you.

A few axioms may be useful at starting.

1. Do not be afraid of making a muss; the corollary naturally follows, do not work on a carpeted floor, or mother and aunts will "go" for you with righteous indignation; therefore select a room where you can do as you like, see only that it has a good light, either a high side-light (blocking out the lower) or a skylight, the former being better because less flattering to your work; a room to the north or north-east is preferable in order to avoid the sun.

2. Work with soft clay, and have a sponge by your side to keep your fingers from sticking, and let the clay you put on be softer than that on which you work. The principle of modelling, as opposed to carving, is, that in the first you put on, and in the latter you take off.

3. Use your fingers as much as you can, and let your tools be as simple as possible—more like a continuation of fingers, as if Nature had provided you with two or three smaller and larger ones. Let them be slightly curved, just as your fingers when much used, will of themselves assume a backward turn.

4. Be sure you consider the question of weight and balance when arranging your supports, or one fine morning you may see your work, when far advanced, lying on the floor. If you anticipate baking when the work is done, you must either have no supports at all, or place them in such a manner, that you can easily remove them when the clay is tolerably hard, without injuring the surface of your work.

5. All clay bakes, some harder than others, but terra cotta merely means baked clay.

6. In working from life, depend as little as possible upon measurements; rely upon the eye, and so cultivate it.

"These few precepts in the memory see thou character," to quote the wordly-wise Polonius.

In working from life you should also try to have your sitter very much in the same light as your work, for light and shade are most important factors, and you will find that the relative proportions of shadow were wonderfully understood in the best Greek work, and in fact in all good work, two equal shadows never being near to each other.

In addition to clay, you can also use wax for modelling; it has the advantage of being much cleaner, but still we should not recommend it, as clay admits of freer and quicker work, and the end is attained with more facility. English clay bakes about the same color as when moist. The French is dark grey, and bakes a light reddish hue. Besides the essentials—clay, tools, and a board—you will find it more convenient to have a proper stand, or banker, as it is called, with a revolving top, so that you may easily turn your model around, for it is most important not to work too long at one view—it is the fault of a painter when first learning to model.

Your sitters, too, you should make as comfortable as you can, so that you are not worried by their not being at their ease; an office revolving chair on a raised dais is perhaps the best contrivance you have while modelling in the round, to take relief into consideration, but this though often tried at starting, we should not recommend at first. It has difficulties of its own, which, when understood, might hamper you when afterward modelling from the round. These difficulties of treatment would be soon overcome when you had learned how to model at all.

One great advantage a sculptor has over a painter is that he can take advantage of artificial lighting. We can thus throw the light where we will; for, although work will, and should, look better in a certain light, it should not look wrong in any. It does not matter very much what you choose to model first: no doubt you will select something difficult, but will soon discard it for some more simple form. A foot, or a hand, whether antique or cast from life are as good as anything, or a face where the planes are simple and broadly marked. For the foot or hand you would probably require no support at all; for the heads just an upright stick fastened well into a board, or bat, as we call it, that is, two boards each about eighteen inches or two feet square, fixed at two sides with two-inch space between, one above the other, parallel, so that you have room to place your tools in between. When you have the support ready, build your work up to the bat, keeping the upright well in the middle, so as not to let it protrude at the neck or elsewhere. Keep your work clean-looking and simple, the planes all distinctly marked, and particularly avoid all details and sharp cuttings until you have the general form rightly set in. It is good not to be always too near your work. Continually place your model and work together, so as to compare them, remembering to have them at the same angle to the light. You will understand by this that it is seldom you can sit to your work. When working keep damp cloths over your work, and do not let the cloths touch the more important surfaces.

If you should intend that your clay model should go to the kiln to be baked, there are two or threeparticulars you must carefully attend to. In the first place, see that your clay is quite clean, from lime, plaster or stone, as the presence of any of these is sufficient to burst your work and make pieces fly. Secondly, before sending it away from your studio, see that your work is perfectly dry. It is only through non-attention in these matters that much of beginner's work is spoiled in the firing; it is seldom the fault of the potter. A small figure can be

baked solid, but a larger one should always be hollowed out, as there is much more room for air to play round it. If you hollow it out, take care that there are a few small holes—in unimportant places where they would not be seen—to allow of escape of air. The hollowing out should be done when the clay is totally hard, but before it is quite dry. It is better to build up your work solidly and hollow it out afterward, than to hollow it out from the first. The latter can be done, but the difficulties necessitated by it are apt to distract your attention from your chief object, as very great care would be required to put the model together. The question of supports has been referred to. Most busts you can build up without any support at all; and for statuettes you can generally arrange a support that can readily be removed when the clay becomes of sufficient consistency to stand alone. Take care, also, that the clay is well kneaded, so that it holds together, and that there are no air-holes present.

You can never be quite sure of the color when baked, as that depends a little upon the surroundings of your work in the kiln, nor can you always avoid slight cracks.

There is another important point to remember about terra cotta. As clay naturally shrinks when drying, you must allow for it. If you should want your work, when finished, to be of a certain size, one-tenth is generally allowed—a little more or less would depend upon the degree of moisture that is in the clay, but it is seldom necessary to be so very particular.

There are drawbacks to terra cotta, but it is well to know that terra cotta can be repaired. A thin coat of distemper or paint will hide the cracks, although it also slightly hides the more delicate modelling, so it is not therefore to be recommended for finer work—better show the cracks.

If you don't intend to have your work baked, but to have it cast in plaster preparatory for bronze or marble, you need not be so careful in preparing your clay, neither need you consider your supports except for their strength and position. Do not attempt to cast your work yourself, for it requires some little skill to mix the plaster, and there are men (moulders) who make it their vocation—only caution them that you want your work returned to you exactly as you left it, otherwise you may find your surfaces all gone and worked out, or finished according to the moulder's notion.

These remarks will assist those who might try to model unaided, but if you get to like the work, and would wish to succeed, you should take a few lessons from an expert, so as to be guided in your progress.

In modelling, remember always that you have merely form to deal with, but you have, if modelling a bust, to give the impression of the head and not a copy of it, and this is where the art of the sculptor is called into play.

In sculpture you cannot give the color to the eye; you cannot give eyelashes, nor the fineness of the hair—all these points so important in life—so you must execute your work that none of these specialties should be missed. "How is this to be done?" you will ask. In a great measure it must be left to you to decide, to your own feeling and individuality. There are several ways of interpreting life, and several schools formed on these ways of execution, and a sculptor is perhaps the last person to recommend one way or the other, as, if he loves his art, he has become a specialist himself, and would unintentionally direct you towards his own way of interpretation. He can teach you to see nature, it is true, but can only teach you to render it in his own way—he is not able to say which is the right way, probably there isn't one; it is only a matter of feeling.

The destination of a work as well as the subject itself, are most important factors in determining the treatment.

We will refer to one or two ways of treatment. For instance, in the eyes the Greeks left the pupils blank, but they gathered shadow by sinking the whole eye, and generally making the lower eyelid deeper than the upper. We moderns usually cut in the pupil, and leave the eye where nature placed it, conventionalizing the pupil more. Perhaps the former way is more suitable for ideal work, and the latter for portrait and character. The disadvantage of the latter way is that it is more dependent for its true effect upon the light in which it may be placed. The Roman work is marked much in the same way as our own, only not so deeply.

Whilst speaking of the antique we caution you against a too free use of it. Students generally commence there, and they stop there so long, that the development of all individuality and life is checked.

It is certainly useful at first, because you are not troubled with a model's varying phases, but when you have attained some little proficiency in modelling, it would be better to go direct to life. In the antique, as in other work, there is both good and bad. Many of the figures, and also of the busts are merely interesting from a historical point of view, and you must, as a student, look at them from the artistic side, to see whether the form is good, the lines well composed, and whether the entire builds up into one artistic whole.

BRASS WORK.

THIS work is easy, pretty, and effective, and is well suited to ladies, as it does not require any great degree of strength.

Most of us know what is meant by *repoussé* work in metal. In that kind of work the pattern is beaten out at the back so that it stands out from the ground-work, which remains at its old level. The work which we are about to describe is precisely the opposite to this. Though the effect produced is somewhat the same, it is attained by different means. In a few words, instead of beating out the pattern from behind, the ground is beaten down from in front, leaving the pattern untouched.

The tools required for this work are few and inexpensive. The beating down of the metal is effected by means of punches, struck by a mallet or hammer. It is well to use punches with some little pattern on them, for two reasons: firstly, because they are then less likely to slip from the exact place where the blow is required; and secondly, because such punches give a grained surface to the ground-work, and such an appearance is more pleasing than a plain surface, and affords a greater contrast to the smoothness of the pattern. Punches suitable for this purpose are called "star" and "chequering" punches.

Besides these you will require some tool with a plain edge for marking out lines on the pattern itself. For this purpose a blunt bradawl or small screw-driver may be used, or even a large nail filed to a similar edge; these tools should not be sharp, or you will run the risk of cutting the metal. These are also useful for getting into sharp angles in the pattern, where your punches, whether round or square, cannot go; a triangular file broken off will also be found a handy tool for this purpose.

If you have any doubts of your ability to hit the head of the punch, it will be safer to use a mallet than a hammer, as a miss means an awkward rap on the knuckles. You will require a pair of shell shears for cutting the sheet metal; these are like a pair of very strong scissors.

The metal itself should be brass, at any rate to begin with, though if you like you may use silver when you get on.

The kind of brass to use is sheet brass; No. 7 gauge will be found to be of a proper thickness. It may be procured of any length, in width from two or three inches upwards. It is sold by weight.

The first thing to do is to decide on the pattern, and we would suggest for your first attempt some simple design on a small piece of brass; a plain Latin cross on a bit four inches by three inches will do very well; or, if you like, the initial letter of your name. Cut your brass to the size required with the shears; you will find it rather difficult to make a straight cut of any length at first. This is because the part cut off does not yield and get out of the way like paper or cloth. You will have to bend it out of the way, it can easily be flattened afterwards with the hammer.

Cut out a piece of *thin* paper (tissue paper does well) the exact size of the brass, and on it trace your pattern. Flatten the brass, and gum the paper to it. Never mind if there are a few small wrinkles, these will vanish when the paper dries. Thin paper is recommended because thick paper is apt to loosen and come off when the punch is applied. This sometimes occurs even with thin paper, and if you find this happening, it is best to trace the pattern through the paper on the brass with some sharp instrument, taking care to scratch only very faintly. You can then wash off the paper, and be independent of it.

To work on the brass, it must be fastened down in some manner, and the most convenient way of doing this is to put a strip of wood on each end and screw it down. The brass need only be covered by the wood for about a quarter of an inch or even less. The board it is screwed down to should lie quite flat and firm on the table you work at, and the table itself should be a carpenter's bench, or some very strong and steady piece of furniture.

The most essential point about the punching is that it should be commenced at the edges of the brass, and worked inwards towards the middle. If the piece of

brass you are using is larger than is really required, it may be fastened down at once as recommended above. But if it is only the exact size, the edges, which are to go under the strips of wood, must be first punched.

Holding the punch perfectly perpendicular, strike firmly with the mallet, or hammer, so as to dent the brass.

Begin at one corner, and work all around the edge, allowing the marks to overlap each other somewhat irregularly, so as to do away with any suggestion of pattern in the ground-work. When you have got all round, do a second row inside the first in the same irregular manner. Enough of the ground will now be done to enable you to fasten it down with the strips of wood, and you can then proceed, working inwards towards the pattern. As you get on you will see the inworked portion in the center (containing all the pattern) rising up in relief. You must now be guided by the pattern itself. If it is a figure with no grounding in the middle, proceed with the punching right up to the edges of the pattern. If it has an isolated piece of ground-work in it, for instance, if it has the letter O, it will be well at this stage to begin punching the middle, and working alternately thence to the pattern, and from the outside also, for if you go quite up to the pattern from the outside before you touch the middle, the brass will have risen to such a height that it will be difficult to punch it down neatly.

On the same principle if the pattern has some ground-work running into it, as in the letter V, you should commence working up into this place before you have reached the pattern from the outside.

As a general rule, it is a good thing to keep the advancing line of dents at the same distance from the outline all round, that is to say, the punch-marks should give a rough representation of this outline. But no rule can be laid down on this point, and a few attempts will show you with tolerable certainty how to proceed in any particular case.

As you get near to the pattern a new difficulty encounters you. This is caused by the fact that, as the center has risen, you are working each punch-mark on a sloping surface of brass. Under these circumstances the punch will slip when struck, and will not make a clean dent.

This is very annoying, especially as it occurs chiefly when you are approaching the outline of the pattern and wish every blow to tell in exactly its right place.

It may he avoided by holding the punch very firmly against the brass and by giving the head of it a slight inclination outwards from the pattern, so that the blow may be directed really at right angles to the surface, as was the case before the rising of the pattern took place. It is hardly necessary to mention that the punch is usually held in the left hand and the mallet or hammer in the right, though it is sometimes convenient to work the reverse way.

When you have worked up to the pattern in this manner, and have carefully gone round the outline, wash off the paper tracing, if you have retained it till now. You will then be able to see many little places which require punching, and this can be easily done by the aid of the eye alone.

If the punch-marks appear too marked or regular in any part of the ground go over this again, until the whole ground-work presents a uniformly dented appearance.

If any lines have to be marked out on the pattern itself, this is the time to do it. Intricate work on the pattern is difficult and not effective, but in many cases, some simple lines must be made.

For instance, if a butterfly has been represented, it would be hopeless to attempt any reproduction of the pattern on its wings, but it would be easy (and sufficient) to mark out the division between its front and hind wings and the segments of its body. This should be done with the small screw-driver or bradawl mentioned before. They should be used as a punch, and the lines marked out by *light* blows of the hammer, as it is not desired to sink these lines down to the level of the ground-work. In fact, if they are well marked, the less indented they are the better. Be careful to hold these chisel-shaped implements upright when struck, as you do not want to dig the corners into the work.

It is difficult to give any idea on paper of the exact force which should be given to the blows of the mallet or hammer, but a few trials will put you in the way of it. The brass should be considerably indented, but, on the other hand, you must be careful to avoid making a hole.

Perhaps you will be able to get on better with thinner brass than we have recommended; this is a matter of individual preference.

Your work is now finished as far as the punching goes, and you can remove the slips of wood which have been holding it down and examine it at your leisure.

You will probably find that it has a slight curl in it and will not lie flat. This may be removed by beating the ground-work lightly with a small hammer, and it will be found useful to beat it from behind, by turning it upside down and beating it on the projecting corner of a board. Of course this corner must not project on the pattern, or the raised work will be beaten down.

If any fragments of paper remain, or any gum, they can be removed by warm water and rubbing with a rag.

The whole work can now be polished, using sifted whiting, tripoli powder, or anything of that kind which will not scratch the brass. It will be a matter of taste or convenience whether you prefer the brass to look old or to keep it polished. In the former case it only re-

quires to be let alone, and in a very short time it will lose its bright polish and the pale yellow color which it will have immediately after it is cleaned. But if you wish it always to shine, you must either be always polishing it or else it must be "lacquered."

"Lacquering" brass is nothing more than varnishing it with a transparent varnish, which protects it from the action of the air and enables the lustre to be seen through it. The varnish used for this purpose is "shellac" varnish, and is made by dissolving shellac in spirits of wine. As you will only require a small quantity, it will be better to buy it than to try to make it yourself.

Before applying it see that the brass is perfectly clean, then warm it, and lay on the varnish with a small brush. It will dry rapidly, and be hard and transparent if the work has been properly carried out. If the varnish becomes too thick, as it will do if the cork is ever left out, it may be thinned by adding some methylated spirits, and the brush can be cleaned in the same liquid, which may also be used for cleaning old lacquer off, or for removing an unsatisfactory coat before applying a fresh one.

The work is now ready for fixing wherever you intend, and this leads us to consider to what purposes such work is applicable. It may be generally stated that wherever a decorative panel of moderate size is required, this metal work will be found suitable. Perhaps the simplest thing to begin on, after your first attempt, will be a door-plate. We do not mean the brass plate on the outside of the front door, which conveys to passers-by the name and profession of the occupier, but the plates used on room doors to prevent the door from being soiled by the fingers. Such a plate should be attached to the door by very small brass-headed screws, and holes to receive them should be drilled in the corners. If it is not lacquered and requires to be cleaned, it is as well to cut out of a piece of pasteboard a hole the exact shape of the plate. This pasteboard should be held over the plate while it is being cleaned, and will protect the door from being injured by whatever composition is used.

Brass work may be advantageously substituted for mirrors in the ebonized furniture so fashionable at present, and it may also be used for the panels in the lid and sides of a wooden coal-box. A small shield, with a crest or coat of arms worked on it, is an effective ornament in wall decoration. Panels should have a slight margin left outside the worked part, this will be found useful in fixing.

You may also try to make circular, card-tray, or an oblong pen-tray. A margin must be left to form the sides of these articles, and the punching should begin from the inside of this margin.

This will cause the sides to rise somewhat, and will be sufficient, unless a very deep tray is desired. In this case more slope may be given by denting lines with your chisel-shaped tool on the margin at right angles to the edge. This will give a crimped look to the margin and make it rise. The blows should be harder at the outside.

It may be well to say a few words about the time and labor required for this work. The time taken in drawing the pattern will of course be less if the worker is gifted with sufficient artistic power to enable her to rapidly sketch the outline from the subject, whatever it may be, but a very short time will suffice even for those who have to trace their outlines. Leaves, &c., may be put on the paper, and the outline traced directly from them.

Anybody can draw geometrical patterns with rule and compasses, though we think they are as a rule unsuited to brass work.

The actual labor of working the punch is very slight, though it may be found that the hand which holds it is apt to get rather cramped at first. The time required will, of course, depend greatly on the intricacy of the pattern, more care being required where there is much outline, but at the same time there will be less ground to do if the pattern covers much space. About twenty minutes should be ample for a square panel of five inches in the side, that is to say, with an average pattern, but this is not meant to include tracing or fixing the paper design.

With regard to the sort of designs which can appropriately be represented, it is really so much a matter of taste that no absolute rule can be laid down. Speaking generally, any subject which can be expressed chiefly by means of outline is suitable. Leaves, either singly or in the form of sprays, will do very well. Girls should go to the right source for their model—nature herself. Of course, any kind of motto or saying may be worked on a band of brass, if you have a suitable place to put it in when finished.

Insects produce an effective and quaint appearance. Butterflies and moths, with their wings extended, or butterflies, with the wings closed about the back, are easy and striking, while beetles have quite a "cunning" look. Some large beetle should be chosen, either the Egyptian, *scarabæus*, or the large water-beetles of the ponds.

You can attempt to imitate, if you will, the old *repoussé* work, of which Cellini was such a master, though you will perhaps be unable to try it on the same precious metals which were placed at his command by his wealthy and influential patrons. Learn, however, to command your temper better than he did; you may be sure that your work will be none the worse for that.

In these days, a greater respect for life prevails than

in his age, and when we want to defeat a rival, we do so by trying to make our work better than his, and not by an appeal to arms.

A little care and pains will enable you to turn out very fair work, and you will be surprised and pleased to find what a wonderful effect may be produced by such simple means. You will have to exercise your forethought in the selection of a subject within the range of the process and the reach of your own powers, and your manual dexterity will be called out in the execution of the work. It is an old saying, but a very true one, that what is worth doing at all is worth doing well.

Work done badly bears on it the stamp of its own worthlessness, the confession that the workman had not thought it worth doing. A beginner's work cannot be as good as that of an old hand, but let it be the beginner's best, and nobody should complain. And whatever you do, fit yourself up a workshop of your own, where you can carry out your brass work or wood carving and other such employment conveniently, without fear of interruption, or of being told you make a "horrible mess."

CIVIL SERVICE RULES.

IN the exercise of the power vested in the President by the Constitution, and by virtue of the 1753d section of the Revised Statutes, and of the civil service act approved January 16, 1883, the following rules for the regulation and improvement of the executive civil service are hereby amended and promulgated:

RULE I.

No person in said service shall use his official authority or influence either to coerce the political action of any person or body or to interfere with any election.

RULE II.

No person in the public service shall for that reason be under any obligation to contribute to any political fund, or to render any political service, and he will not be removed or otherwise prejudiced for refusing to do so.

RULE III.

It shall be the duty of collectors, postmasters, assistant treasurers, naval officers, surveyors, appraisers, and custodians of public buildings, at places where examinations are to be held, to allow and arrange for the reasonable use of suitable rooms in the public buildings in their charge, and for heating, lighting, and furnishing the same, for the purposes of such examinations; and all other executive officers shall in all legal and proper ways facilitate such examinations and the execution of these rules.

RULE IV.

1. All officials connected with any office where, or for which, any examination is to take place, will give the Civil Service Commission, and the chief examiner, such information as may be reasonably required to enable the Commission to select competent and trustworthy examiners; and the examinations by those selected as examiners, and the work incident thereto, will be regarded as a part of the public business to be performed at such office.

2. It shall be the duty of every executive officer promptly to inform the Commission, in writing, of the removal or discharge from the public service of any examiner in his office, or of the inability or refusal of any such examiner to act in that capacity.

RULE V.

There shall be three branches of the service, classified under the civil service act (not including laborers or workmen, or officers required to be confirmed by the Senate), as follows:

1. Those classified in the departments at Washington shall be designated "The Classified Departmental Service."

2. Those classified under any collector, naval officer, surveyor, or appraiser in any customs district, shall be designated "The Classified Customs Service."

3. Those classified under any postmaster at any post office, including that at Washington, shall be designated "The Classified Postal Service."

4. The Classified Customs Service shall embrace the several customs districts where the officials are as many as fifty, now the following: New York City, N. Y.; Boston, Mass.; Philadelphia, Pa.; San Francisco, Cal.; Baltimore, Md.; New Orleans, La.; Chicago, Ill.; Burlington, Vt.; Portland, Me.; Detroit, Mich.; Port Huron, Mich.

5. The Classified Postal Service shall embrace the several post offices where the officials are as many as fifty, now the following: Albany, N. Y.; Baltimore, Md.; Boston, Mass.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Buffalo, N. Y.; Chicago, Ill.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Cleveland, Ohio; Detroit, Mich.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Kansas City, Mo.; Louisville, Ky.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Newark, N. J.; New Orleans, La.; New York City, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Pittsburg, Pa.; Providence, R. I.; Rochester, N. Y.; St. Louis, Mo.; San Francisco, Cal.; Washington, D. C.

RULE VI.

1. There shall be open, competitive examinations for testing the fitness of applicants for admission to the service. Such examinations shall be practical in their character, and, so far as may be, shall relate to those matters which will fairly test the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the branch of the service which they seek to enter.

2. There shall, so far as they may be deemed useful, be competitive examinations of a suitable character to test the fitness of persons for promotion in the service.

RULE VII.

1. The general examinations under the first clause of Rule VI for admission to the service shall be limited to the following subjects: 1st. Orthography, penmanship, and copying. 2d. Arithmetic—fundamental rules, fractions, and percentage. 3d. Interest, discounts, and elements of book-keeping and of accounts. 4th. Elements of the English language, letter-writing, and the proper construction of sentences. 5th. Elements of the geography, history, and government of the United States.

2. Proficiency in each of these subjects shall be credited in grading the standing of the persons examined in proportion to the value of a knowledge of such subjects in the branch or part of the service which the applicant seeks to enter.

3. No one shall be entitled to be certified for appointment, whose standing upon a just grading in the general examination shall be less than sixty-five per centum of complete proficiency in the first three subjects mentioned in this rule, and the measure of proficiency shall be deemed adequate.

4. For places in which a lower degree of education will suffice, the Commission may limit the examinations to less than the five subjects above mentioned; but no person shall be certified for appointment, under this clause, whose grading shall be less than an average of sixty-five per centum on such of the first three subjects or parts thereof as the examination may embrace.

5. The Commission may also order examinations upon other subjects of a technical or special character, to test the capacity which may be needed in any part of the Classified Service which requires peculiar information or skill. Examinations hereunder may be competitive or non-competitive, and the maximum limitations of age contained in the twelfth Rule shall not apply to applicants for the same. The applica-

tion for, and notice of, these special examinations, the records thereof and the certification of those found competent shall be such as the Commission may provide for. After consulting the head of any Department or office, the Commission may from time to time designate, subject to the approval of the President, the positions therein for which applicants may be required to pass this special examination.

RULE VIII.

No question in any examination, or proceeding by, or under, the Commission or examiners, shall call for the expression or disclosure of any political or religious opinion or affiliation, and if such opinion or affiliation be known, no discrimination shall be made by reason thereof by the examiners, the Commission or the appointing power. The Commission and its examiners shall discountenance all disclosure, before either of them, of such opinion by or concerning any applicant for examination or by or concerning any one whose name is on any register awaiting appointment.

RULE IX.

All regular applications for the competitive examinations for admission to the classified service must be made on blanks in a form approved by the Commission. All requests for such blanks, and all applications for examination, must be addressed as follows: 1. If for the Classified Departmental Service, to the U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C. 2. If for the Classified Postal Service, to the postmaster under whom service is sought. 3. If for the Classified Customs Service, to the head of either customs office in which service is sought. All officers receiving such applications will endorse thereon the date of the reception thereof and transmit the same to the proper examining board of the district or office where service is sought, or, if in Washington, to the Civil Service Commission.

RULE X.

Every examining board shall keep such records, and such papers on file, and make such reports as the Commission shall require; and any such paper or record in the charge of any examination board or any officer shall at all times be open to examination as the Commission shall direct, and upon its request shall be forwarded to the Commission for inspection and revision.

RULE XI.

Every application, in order to entitle the applicant to appear for examination or to be examined, must state, under oath, the facts on the following subjects: 1. Full name, residence, and post office address, 2. Citizenship. 3. Age. 4. Place of birth. 5. Health and physical capacity for the public service. 6. Right of preference by reason of military or naval service. 7. Previous employment in the public service. 8. Business or employment and residence for the previous five years. 9. Education. Such other information shall be furnished as the Commission may reasonably require touching the applicant's fitness for the public service. The applicant must also state the number of members of his family in the public service, and where employed, and must also assert that he is not disqualified under section 8 of the civil service act, which is as follows: "That no person habitually using intoxicating beverages to excess shall be appointed to or retained in any office, appointment, or employment to which the provisions of this act are applicable." No person under enlistment in the Army or Navy of the United States shall be examined under these Rules.

RULE XII.

1. Every regular application must be supported by proper certificates of good moral character, health, and physical and mental capacity for doing the public work, the certificates to be in such form and number as the regulations of the Commission shall provide; but no certificate will be received which is inconsistent with the tenth section of the civil service act.

2. No one shall be entitled to be examined for admission to the Classified Postal Service if under sixteen or over thirty-five years of age; or to the Classified Customs Service, or to the Classified Departmental Service, if under eighteen or over forty-five years of age; but no one shall be examined for appointment to any place in the Classified Customs Service except that of clerk or messenger who is under twenty-one years of age; but these limitations of age shall not apply to persons honorably discharged from the military or naval service of the country, who are otherwise duly qualified.

RULE XIII.

1. The date of the reception of all regular applications for the Classified Departmental Service shall be entered of record by the Commission, and of all other regular applications by the proper examining boards of the district or office for which they are made; and applicants when in excess of the number that can be examined at a single examination shall, subject to the needs of apportionment, be notified to appear, in their order on the respective records. But any applicants in the several States and Territories for appointment in the Classified Departmental Service may be notified to appear for examination at any place at which an examination is to be held, whether in any State or Territory, or in Washington, which shall be deemed most convenient for them.

2. The Commission is authorized, in aid of the apportionment among the States and Territories, to hold examinations at places convenient for applicants from different States and Territories, or for those examination districts which it may designate and which the President shall approve.

RULE XIV.

Those examined shall be graded, and shall have their grade marked upon a register after those previously thereon, in the order of their excellence as shown by their examination papers, except that those from the same State or Territory may be entered upon the register together, in the order of relative excellence, to facilitate apportionment. Separate registers may be kept of those seeking to enter any part of the service in which special qualifications are required.

RULE XV.

The Commission may give a certificate to any person examined, stating the grade which such a person attained and the proficiency in the several subjects, shown by the markings.

RULE XVI.

1. Whenever any officer having the power of appointment or employment shall so request, there shall be certified to him, by the Commission or the proper examining board, four names for the vacancy specified, to be taken from those graded highest on the proper register of those in his branch of the service and remaining eligible, regard being had to the apportionment of appointments to States and Territories; and from the said four a selection shall be made for the vacancy.

2. These certifications for the service at Washington shall be made in such order as to apportion, as nearly as may be practicable, the original appointments thereto among the States and Territories and the District of Columbia, upon the basis of population as ascertained at the last preceding census.

3. In case the request for any such certification or any law or regulation shall call for those of either sex, the four highest of that sex shall be certified, otherwise sex shall be disregarded in such certification.

4. No person upon any register shall be certified more than four times to the same officer in the customs or postal service, or more than twice to any department at Washington, unless upon request of the appointing officer; nor shall anyone remain eligible more than one year upon any register. No person while remaining eligible on any register shall be admitted to a new examination, and no person having failed upon any examination shall within six months thereafter be admitted to another examination without the consent of the Commission. But these restrictions shall not extend to examinations under clause 5 of Rule 7.

5. Any person appointed to or employed in any part of the classified service, after due certification for the same under these rules, who shall be dismissed or separated therefrom without fault or delinquency on his part, may be re-appointed or re-employed in the same part or grade of such service at the same office, within eight months next following such dismissal or separation, without further examination.

RULE XVII.

1. Every original appointment or employment in said classified

service shall be for the probationary period of six months, at the end of which time, if the conduct and capacity of the person appointed have been found satisfactory, the probationer shall be absolutely appointed or employed; but, otherwise, be deemed out of the service.

2. Every officer under whom any probationer shall serve during any part of the probation provided for by these rules shall carefully observe the quality and value of the service rendered by such probationer, and shall report to the proper appointing officer, in writing, the facts observed by him, showing the character and qualifications of such probationer, and of the service performed by him; and such reports shall be preserved on file.

3. Every false statement knowingly made by any person in his application for examination, and every connivance by him at any false statement made in any certificate which may accompany his application, shall be regarded as good cause for the removal or discharge of such person during his probation.

RULE XVIII.

Every head of a department or office shall notify the Commission of the name of every person appointed to, or employed in, the classified service under him (giving the date of the appointment and the designation of the office or place) from those examined under the Commission; and shall also inform the Commission of the date of any rejection or final appointment or employment of any probationer, and of the promotion, removal, discharge, resignation, transfer, or death of any such person after probation. Every head of any office in the postal or customs service shall give such information on these subjects to the Board of Examiners for his office as the regulations of the Commission may provide for.

RULE XIX.

There are excepted from examination the following: 1. The confidential clerk or secretary of any head of a department or office. 2. Cashiers of collectors. 3. Cashiers of postmasters. 4. Superintendents of money-order divisions in post-offices. 5. The direct custodians of money for whose fidelity another officer is under official bond; but these exceptions shall not extend to any official below the grade of assistant cashier or teller. 6. Persons employed exclusively in the secret service of the Government, or as translators, or interpreters, or stenographers. 7. Persons whose employment is exclusively professional. 8. Chief clerks, deputy collectors, and superintendents, or chiefs of divisions or bureaus. But no person so excepted shall be either transferred, appointed, or promoted, unless to some excepted place, without an examination under the Commission. Promotions may be made without examination in offices where examinations for promotion are not now held, until rules on the subject shall be promulgated.

RULE XX.

If the failure of competent persons to attend and be examined, or the prevalence of contagious disease or other sufficient cause, shall make it impracticable to supply in due season for any appointment the names of persons who have passed a competitive examination, the appointment may be made of a person who has passed a non-competitive examination, which examination the Commission may provide for; but its next report shall give the reason for such resort to non-competitive examination.

RULE XXI.

1. No person shall be promoted, without examination under these rules, from any position for which an examination is not required to any position for which an examination is required under the rules; nor shall any person who has passed only a limited examination under clause 4 of Rule 7, for the lower classes or grades in the departmental or customs service, be promoted within two years after appointment to any position giving a salary of $1,000, or upwards, without first passing an examination under clause 1 of said rule, and such examination shall not be allowed within the first year after appointment.

2. But a person who has passed the examination under said clause 1, and has accepted a position giving a salary of $900 or less, shall have the same right of promotion as if originally appointed to a position giving a salary of $1,000 or more.

3. The Commission may at any time certify for a $900 or any lower place in the classified service any person upon the register who has passed the examination under clause 1 of Rule 7, if such person does not object before such certification is made.

RULE XXII.

The Civil Service Commission will make appropriate regulations for carrying these rules into effect.

RULE XXIII.

Every violation, by any officer in the executive civil service, of these rules, or of the 11th, 12th, 13th, or 14th section of the civil service act, relating to political assessments, shall be good cause for removal.

[Rules, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, 16, 18, and 19 were amended and promulgated Nov. 7. Rule 12 was amended and promulgated Dec. 5, 1883. Rule 16 was amended and promulgated Jan. 18, 1884. Present Rule 21 was promulgated Jan. 18, 1884. Former Rule 21 is now 22; and 22 is Rule 23.]

REGULATIONS.

The United States Civil Service Commission, acting under the authority of the Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883, and the rules promulgated by the President, makes the following regulations:

CHIEF EXAMINER.

1. The Chief Examiner shall, as far as practicable, except when otherwise directed by the Commission, attend the examinations held by the several boards of examiners. He shall take care to secure accuracy, uniformity, and justice in all their proceedings, which shall at all times be open to him; but leaving the duty of the examiners, in marking and grading those examined, unimpaired. The Commission will, in its discretion, designate one of its own members, or request the detail of a suitable person, to supervise examinations whenever deemed needful.

2. He shall prepare and submit to the approval of the Commission proper forms and questions. He shall take care that the rules and regulations are complied with, and bring every case of injustice and irregularity observed by him to the attention of the Commission. He shall take such part as the Commission shall assign him in the work at Washington. It shall be his duty to confer, from time to time, with the heads of the postal and customs offices which he officially visits concerning the regularity, sufficiency, and convenience of the examinations for the service under them.

SECRETARY.

3. The Secretary shall keep the minutes of the proceedings of the Commission and have charge of and be responsible for the safe keeping of the books, records, papers, and other property in its office. He shall make the proper certification of those eligible for the Departmental service. He shall generally conduct the correspondence of the Commission and perform such other appropriate duties as it may assign to him.

BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

4. The general Board of Examiners for the Departmental service shall consist of two persons from the Treasury Department, two from the Post-Office Department, two from the Interior Department, and one from each of the other Departments. But any three members may be designated by the Commission to constitute the acting Examining Board for any examination.

The secretary of the Board of Examiners for the Departmental service shall keep a record of its proceedings and have charge of its papers.

5. In case of examinations to be held at other places than those having the classified service, the Commission will designate an Examining Board for that purpose.

6. For each post-office, the Board of Examiners shall consist of three persons.

7. The Examiners for each customs district shall consist of two persons selected from the office of the collector, and one from each of the other customs offices which are subject to the rules; but if there be no office subject thereto except that of the collector, the three shall be selected from his office.

8. The Examiners may serve as a Board for conducting any examination; and the Examiners for any customs district will determine which three shall hold any examination, taking care that, if an exam-

ination is wholly or mainly for any office, one or more of the examiners from that office shall be on the acting Board. In case of a failure or disagreement as to which three shall be the Board for any examination, the Commission or Chief Examiner shall designate the local examiners who shall serve. In case of the disability or necessary absence of one of the three examiners selected, the other two may conduct the examination.

9. Each Examining Board in the postal and customs service shall select one of its members to serve as secretary, and it shall be his duty to keep a complete record of the proceedings of the Board and of all examinations held. He shall also keep the Record of Applicants and Examinations, and the Register of Persons Eligible for Appointment. He shall have charge of all books and papers belonging to the Board and shall be responsible for their safe-keeping. On application of the proper appointing officer, he shall certify to such officer, in conformity to the rules, the names of the four persons of highest grade remaining on the register. He shall also answer all proper requests for application blanks, and send due notifications to applicants to be examined, and shall give all other notices required to be given by the Board.

10. No examiner or officer serving under the Commission must attempt to control or influence appointments, removals, or promotions.

11. Care must be taken by the examiners not to allow such visitors as they may admit, nor any conversation or other cause, to obstruct or distract those being examined.

12. Examiners must not disclose for public information, unless by consent, the names of those examined, nor more than the general results of examinations.

13. Complaints, which show injustice or unfairness on the part of any Examining Board, or any one acting under the Commission, will be considered by the Commission, and if necessary it will revise the marking and grading on the papers, or order a new examination, or otherwise do justice in the premises.

14. The head of each post-office and of each customs office, to which the rules are applicable, should inform the local Board of Examiners of probable vacancies, that examinations for filling them may be held in due season, and should also inform such local Board of the name of every person appointed or employed in the classified service under him (giving the date of the employment or appointment and the designation of the office or place) from those examined under said Board.

15. The Board of Examiners for each office or district must promptly notify the Commission of the need of holding an examination in and for such office or district, and may appoint the time for the same, but subject to any change the Commission may find it necessary to make for the more convenient and effective discharge of its duty to see that the examinations are accurate, uniform, and just. The notice must state under which clause or clauses of Rule 7 the applicants are to be examined, and must, when practicable, be given at least twenty days before the time appointed therein for the examinations.

EXAMINATIONS.

16. Notices in writing should be mailed to applicants for examination in the postal and customs service at least eight days before the examination, except in cases of non-competitive and special examinations, and they shall clearly specify the place and the time, including the hour, of holding the same.

17. All competitive examinations for admission to the civil service shall be in writing, except that tests of physical qualities or expertness may be added as the Commission shall approve.

18. The examination sheets will be given out in the order of their numbers; each, after the first, being given only when the applicant shall return to the examiners the last sheet taken by him.

19. Not more than ten questions shall be given in any subject of the examination; and, to facilitate the marking, the questions in the same subject shall, as far as practicable, be equal in difficulty. Care shall also be taken that the time allotted for the examination shall be reasonably sufficient for answering the questions.

20. In general no competitive examination should occupy more than five hours, and every Examiner will exercise all due diligence to secure fairness, and to prevent all collusion or fraud in the examinations.

21. The examination papers of each applicant shall be marked only with a number, and his name with his number shall be placed in a sealed envelope which shall not be opened till after his papers are marked.

22. The examination papers shall, so far as practicable, be reviewed by each Examiner separately, and in any case of disagreement the average of the markings, to be made on the papers by all, shall be the final marking on each question, subject to the regulation as to revision.

23. The views of the heads of post-offices and customs offices, as to whether applicants for the several parts of the service under them shall be examined in the five subjects under clause 1 of Rule 7, or only in a less number of subjects under clause 4 of that rule, will be accepted by the Commission so far as its duty to require uniformity, and adequate tests of capacity for doing the public work, will permit.

MARKING AND GRADING.

24. To whichever of the five subjects, or parts thereof, mentioned in Rule 7 a competitive examination may extend, the marking and grading of the applicant upon each is to be conducted in the same way.

25. To determine the Standing of the applicant in any subject, mark and credit each answer in proportion to its completeness and accuracy according to regulations prescribed for each subject; the perfect answer being credited 100. Divide the sum of the credits by the number of questions upon the subject; the quotient will be the applicant's Standing in that subject.

26. To determine whether any applicant has reached an Average Standing of 65 per centum in the first two or the first three subjects, add the figures marking the applicant's Standing in each; divide their sum by the number of the subjects and the quotient will be the Average Standing therein.

27. No applicant is entitled to go upon the Register of those eligible for appointment, whose Average Standing upon the first three subjects, or such parts thereof, as are covered by the examination is below 65 per centum; therefore, when the marking and grading have been carried so far as to show such Average Standing to be below 65 per centum, they need not be carried farther; and if the examination includes no part of the 4th or 5th subject, such Average Standing will be the General Average to be entered on the Register.

28. To whatever number of subjects the examination may extend, the General Average will be ascertained by dividing the sum of the marking showing the Standings in each of the subjects by the number of subjects.

29. Every example, though it be a case of dictation or copying, is regarded as a question under these regulations, and, although only a portion of the topics included in a subject under Rule 7, is embraced in the examination, it will, for the purpose of the marking, be treated as a subject.

The following example illustrates these directions:

[Sum of credits in each subject divided by number of questions gives credit in that subject.]

First subject.	Credit to each question.	Second subject.	Credit to each question.	Third subject.	Credit to each question.	Fourth subject.	Credit to each question.	Fifth subject.	Credit to each question.
Question 1	80	Question 1.	40	Question 1..	70	Question 1..	60	Question 1..	60
Question 2	45	Question 2.	90	Question 2..	45	Question 2.	50	Question 2..	90
Question 3	71	Question 3.	74	Question 3..	90	Question 3.	35	Question 3..	50
Question 4	50	Question 4.	56	Question 4..	85	Question 4..	90	.....	.....
Question 5	65	.....	.....	Question 5..	100	Question 5.	100	.....	.....
	311		260		390		335		230
Divide credits by number of questions	5		4		5		5		3
	62.2		65		78		67		76.66

The grade at which the applicant will go upon the Register, is, therefore—

$$62.2 + 65 + 78 + 67 + 76.66 = 348.86. \quad \frac{348.86}{5} = 69.77.$$

NON-COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS UNDER RULE 20.

In case the necessity shall exist at any office or Department for holding a non-competitive examination under Rule 20, the following conditions shall be observed ;

30. The Commission shall be immediately notified of such necessity and of the grounds thereof, showing that it is impracticable to supply in due season for any appointment the names of persons who have passed a competitive examination by reason of the failure of competent persons to attend to be examined, or the prevalence of contagious disease, or other sufficient cause.

31. If the Commission shall not disapprove the holding of a non-competitive examination, the Secretary of the Commission in Washington, or of the Examining Board for any post-office or customs district, shall notify for such examinations any persons whose names may be on the record, as applicants for places analogous to those to be filled, and whom the exigency of time may allow to be notified, not less in number than the vacancies and places to be provided for, nor more than four for each of them.

32. If the number of applicants on the record be insufficient to furnish such supply, then the examining Board, or in its absence the Secretary, may notify other suitable persons, nominated by said Board or Secretary, upon consultation with the head of the office, who, taken together with said regular applicants notified, shall, if practicable, be not less in number than four to each place to be filled. The persons selected for appointment or employment shall be required to make oath to the proper application paper, before entering upon their official duties.

33. The non-competitive examination shall conform as nearly as practicable, in subjects, questions, and marking, to the competitive examinations of the same grade; but no person shall be appointed under such non-competitive examination whose average standing upon the first three subjects, clause 1, Rule 7, or such parts thereof as may be used, is less than 65 per centum ; *Provided*, There are those who pass at or above that grade from whom the place can be filled.

34. The names of all the persons passing the examination shall be certified to the proper officer, and the existing vacancies shall be filled therefrom ; but no person by reason of such non-competitive examination shall be appointed at any other time than during such exigency or to any other vacancy or place.

35. A record shall be kept by the local Examining Board, and by the Secretary of the Commission at Washington, of the persons thus notified, examined and appointed, or employed, and copies of notices and the examination papers shall be preserved ; and said Board shall after each such examination and appointment make full report to the Civil Service Commission of all the facts.

36. In case a majority of the Commission may not be present, when an examination hereunder may need to be held at Washington, the same may be conducted under the charge of the chief examiner and any two members of the Board of Examiners.

SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS.

37. Special Boards of Examiners will, when deemed necessary, be designated by the Commission for the examinations in special and technical subjects under clause 5, Rule 7, and one or more members of each such Board will be selected from the office or bureau for which the Board is to serve. These special Boards shall be subject to the regulations prescribed by the Commission for the general Examining Boards as far as they are applicable, except as herein otherwise provided.

38. Applications for any special examination must be made in the form prescribed by the Commission, and must be accompanied by certificates as required in the case of ordinary applications. The minimum limitations of age shall be the same as those prescribed by Rule 12 for the several branches of the service, but no maximum limitations shall be required except such as the Commission may from time to time prescribe.

39. Whenever a special examination is to be held, notice in writing, specifying the time and place of the examination, shall be sent to a suitable number of the applicants, in the order of their application for the same, in time to allow their attendance.

40. Each special examination shall embrace the subjects approved by the Commission therefor, after consultation with the head of the office concerned or the special Examining Board for such office ; and shall, as far as appropriate, be conducted under the same general regulations, as to the marking of the examination papers and the grading of the persons examined, as those for ordinary examinations.

41. A special record of applicants and a special register of eligibles shall be kept for each part of the service or office requiring special examinations ; and when the Commission, or the proper Examining Board, shall be notified by the appointing officer of a vacancy in such part of the service, certification shall be made to him of the names of the four persons graded highest on the special list of eligibles for the same, or of a less number, if four names do not remain thereon.

42. In case that competent special applicants do not apply, or do not appear for a competitive examination, after suitable notice, a non-competitive examination may be held in as near conformity as may be to the regulations provided for non-competitive examinations for admission to the service. For such examination, applicants on the general Record, and persons on the general Register of Eligibles whose application papers claim the special knowledge required, may be notified, and if they appear shall be examined, as if special applicants ; but no person so examined shall forfeit his right to the general examinations, or lose his place on any register of eligibles by reason of his special examination.

Adopted, December 10, 1883.

Instruction to Ladies desirous of entering the Civil Service.

THE APPLICATION FOR EXAMINATION.

To every person requesting to enter the classified service, a blank application paper is sent. The filing of this paper is the first step in the applicants' examination. In the proper blanks she gives her name, age, residence and occupation, for each of the past five years, and such other facts in regard to herself and her experience, education, and qualifications as are important to be known. All these statements are made under oath, and are required to be confirmed by the vouchers of not less than three, or more than five persons, who state, in blank certificates on the same sheet, their knowledge of the applicant, and their belief in the truth of her statements, and vouch for her character, capacity, and good reputation. No recommendation outside of these vouchers are allowed to be received or considered by the Commission, the examiners, or the appointing officers.

The application thus filed is returned to the Commission, or to the proper Examining Board, and if its statements show that the applicant is regularly voched for, and that she is entitled by age, health, and citizenship, to be examined for the service she seeks, her name is entered upon the proper record, with the date of her application, and her paper is placed on file. When the examination is held, at a point which is deemed convenient for her, she is notified to be present. If the applications on file, at any office, are in excess of the number that can be examined at one time, the earlier applicants, by Rule 13, are summoned first; except that at Washington, the duty of apportionment may require those to be first examined who are from states whose qualified applications are in deficient numbers. This excludes all preferenee of applicants through favor or patronage, and is the spirit of the act, section 5, which makes all willful and corrupt obstruction of the right of examination a criminal offense. The applicants who are in excess of the number that can be examined at one time stand first upon the record to be notified for the the next examination. Examinations are held as frequently as the needs of the service require. Thus for all applicants (except some from the District of Columbia, where the number is excessive, and in one or two similar cases outside), have been notified to attend the first examinations held after their applications were received.

The application paper is itself a sort of preliminary examination, it asks the same questions that any wise and experienced business man or appointing officer would desire to ask concerning the circumstances, health, character, and experience of the applicant, and it frequently deters from the examinations unworthy or incompetent peraons, who find themselves unable to answer satisfactorily the inquiries proposed, or unwilling to give the information asked for. Of the best of place-seekers, many may be weeded out by the necessity of making this sworn statement of their career, while to genuine and worthy applicants it opens the way for the proper statement of their qualifications.

WHO MAY COMPETE.

A competition theoretically perfect would be one in which every person, from any part of the country, could compete for every vacancy. But the needs of the public business, as well as the provisions of the act that the examination shall be practical, and shall fairly test capacity and fitness needed for discharging the duties of the place sought, require limitations. The qualifications needed for carriers or for weighers, for example, are quite different from those needed for copyists, or for some grades of clerks. Questions appropriate for ordinary clerkships would be unfit tests for telegraphers, or pension-office examiners. Provisions is therefore made under which the application paper designates the grade or description of places sought; and it follows that the real competition is between all those who seek the same grade or places.

Further than this, the act, requiring the appointments to the service at Washington to be appointed among the States, Territories, and the District of Columbia, practically makes the competition between those from the same State or Territory, rather than an inter-State competition. In some cases, perhaps, this state competition may put into the service a person inferior to the one whom the broader competition would have supplied. But it gives to each State and Territory, what it has not yet had, a proportion of the appointments numerically due to the population, and it will unquestionally stimulate education in the states as well as increase the local interest in all matters affecting the administration of the Fedral Government.

SUBJECTS FOR EXAMINATION.

The branches embraced in the general examination for ordinary clerkships and other places of the same grade, are given in Rule 7. In none of these branches do the questions go further than is covered by the ordinary instruction in the common schools of the country. If limited examination is provided under Clause 4 of Rule 7, for copyists, messengers, carriers, night inspectors, and other employees of similar grades, including only a part of the branches above named, the subjects and questions being varied in number and grade to meet the requirements of the different parts of the service. This allows persons of only limited attainments to secure the positions for which they are competent. The common school education must have been exeeedingly defective which does not enable one to pass this examination.

It will be noticed that, even in the general or higher grade of examination under Clause 1, Rule 1, proficiency in the first three subjects secures eligibility for appointment. Therefore failure in the last two will exclude no one from the service, though a good standing therein raises the grade of the applicant and gives her the better chance for an appointment.

If any shall notice, with regret, that only common-school education is exacted for entering the public service at the higher grade, and that thus only small direct reward is offered to academic and college learning, it may be remembered, on the other hand, that both by rewarding excellence in the common schools and by barring out corrupt influence from public office, learning of every grade, and good character and effort in every position are stimulated and strengthened. The common schools are the gates to the academies, and the academies are the gates to the colleges.

SPECIAL AND TECHNICAL EXAMINATIONS.

While only the common-school education is required of the applicant for the ordinery clerkship and subordinate places in the classified service, there are other places, comparatively few in number, for which higher qualifications are requisite. Among these are clerkships in the State Department, which demand some knowledge of modern languages, and of other special subjects; assistant examiners, draughtsmen, and other places requiring technical knowledge or skill, in the Patent office; pension examiners and other clerkships in several Departments requiring some knowledge of law; draughtsmen and other employees in the Super-

vising, Architect's office, and Engineer Department, and employees in other technical or scientific Bureaus or divisions of the service. Rule 7, Clause 5, provides for the special examinations for such places. Special Boards of Examiners have already been designated in the State Department, the Patent Office, and the Pension Bureau. Special examinations have been held of a telegrapher for the Department of Justice, and a telegraphic draughtsman for the Engineer Department.

QUESTIONS AND EXAMINATIONS.

In order to secure uniformity and justice, the questions for the examinations are almost invariably prepared by the Commission; those for any Examining Board outside Washington being forwarded for its use just before any examination is to be held. They are printed upon sheets with adequate space below each question for writing or solution. The applicant gets her first knowledge of the question as the sheets are given her, one after the other as her work advances, at her examination table. The examinations are open to such spectators as can be accommodated without interfering with the quiet due to those being examined, but the answers are not exhibited without the consent of the person who wrote them. The question sheets, with answers thereon, are preserved as a part of the permanent records of the Commission, so that the fairness of the marking and grading can be tested as well a year as a week after they are made. It is hardly necessary to add that, except in the very few examinations needed for places requiring technical or scientific knowledge, no very difficult questions have been used The examples in arithmetic do not go beyond the needs of the public business. Every question in geography, history, or government is confined to that of the United States. Not a word of a foreign language, nor a technical term of art or science, nor any example in algebra, geometry, or trigonometry has been employed in any one of the general or limited examinations, and these examinations alone are used for at least ninety-five out of every hundred places within the classified service.

CERTIFYING FOR APPOINTMENT.

Those who have attained a grade showing fitness for appointment at Washington are placed upon the proper register kept by the Commission, for the service there; and at other places by the Examining Board at each place. (See Rules 13, 14 and 16, and Regulations 4 to 10.) These registers are permanent books of record, showing the age, grade, residence, date of entry thereon as elegible for appointment for all parts and grades of the service. When a vacancy occurs at Washing on, the Commission, and when at a Post Office or Customs Office the Examining Board of the same, certifies from the proper register four persons who are graded highest among those entered thereon for the grade or part of the service in which the vacancy exists. In the latter offices, where no appointment is required, the four graded highest must in every case be certified. At Washington, the Commission takes the four names from the list of those from one or more States (having names upon the register), which have the strongest claim on the basis of the appointment. But the highest in the grade, from the State or States which have such claim, must be taken ; and the whole action in that regard appears on record. The grade is won by the applicant herself. The order of selection is fixed by the law and the rules. This excludes both favor and patronage.

WOMEN IN THE SERVICE.

Nowhere, on the part of the Commission or its subordinants, is there any favor or disadvantage allowed by reason of sex. Only under free, open, competitive examinations have the worthiest women the opportunities, and the government the pretection, which arise from allowing character and capacity to win the precedence, and the places their due. The need for political influence, or for importunate solicitations, especially disagreeable to women, for securing appointments in the classified service exists no longer. Rule 16, Clause 3, control the certification of women for appointment so completely that the Commission has no discretion on the subject. The law in force before the passage of the Civil Service act gave the heads of Departments authority to decide when women are required or can be accepted. Both the Civil Service act and the rules have that authority unimpared.

In order to prevent disappointment we ought to add that, perhaps, because the examinations naturally appeal to the hopes and the ambition of women, a greater number of them, in proportion to the places treated by the Departments as open to their sex, have been examined and hence the number of women waiting to be certified is large in a like ratio.

REMOVALS.

The power of removal and its exercise, for just reasons, are essential both to discipline and the efficiency of the public service. A life tenure would be indefensible.

The Civil Service act and rules have the authority and duty of removal undisturbed, with this exception, that the second rule forbids a removal for refusing to perform a political service, or to pay a politicol assessment, and the last rule adds every violation of either rule, or of the provisions of the act against assessments to the good causes for removal which existed before. The act and rules have greatly diminished the pressure upon appointing officers for removals, and have taken from them the temptation to make removals of their own notion for the mere purpose of making a vacancy for a favorite. Many removals, and those the most indefensible in former years, were unquestionably made not because the person removed was not a useful public servant, but because some powerful influence was to be conciliated. Some friend was to be gratified, or some dangerous enemy was to be placated by putting a particular person in the vacancy.

Nevertheless, save in the particulars mentioned, the power to remove for even the most partisan and seifish reasons remains unchanged. The changes are only in the opportunity of filling the vacancy with favorites and henchmen, and in the greater peril from a frowning, hostile public opinion.

PROMOTIONS AND OTHER EXCEPTIONS FROM THE RULES.

Rule 19, recognizing needs in the public service familiar to those acquainted with the conditions of good administraiion, allows the applicant for certain places to be appointed without examination. The confidential or fiduciary relations sustained by those who fill some of these places, the occasional need of employing persons of professional standing or of peculiar capacity in others, and the lack of temptation for disregarding the public interests in filling others, are the reasons for all but one of these exceptions.

The entire exceptions (outside from that relating to promotions), cover but few places—not exceeding 135 in all the Departments at Washington; and in the postal and customs service the ratio of excepted places is smaller still.

PROBATION.

The rules provide for a probationary service of six months before any absolute appointment can be made. At the end of this time the appointee goes out of the service, unless then re-appointed. During the probation, the character of the service rendered by the probationer and her fidelity, are carelully observed, as the question of a permanent appointment depends upon them.

The probation is a practical scrutiny continued through six months in the very work which the applicant is to do. In this part of the system and oft-repeated objections based on the assumption that no merely literary examination can show all the qualities required in a good officer. Nobody pretends that an examination in any branch of learning is an adequate test of business capacity. Congress clearly recognized its inadequacy, and therefore provided that in all cases there shall be a period of probation before any absolute appointment or employment. Instead of this practical test being foreign to the competitive system, it is original with that system, and is everywhere an important part of it

It has been shown moreover, upon each of the several trials of competitive examinations, that in a larg majority of instances the superior men in the competitions are also the superior men in the public work. The proportion, among the bright minds, of those who have good business capacity, is at least as great as the proportion of those having that capacity among men of very dull minds. Between these extremes, they who excel in the schools do so by reason of the fidelity, patient labor, and good habits—qualities which also fit them for the public service.

The first person to enter the public service anywhere under the present rules—a young man at the post-office at St. Louis—was the first in the competition, and he was the first to be promoted for merit at the end of his probation. The first person appointed under the rules to a department at Washington, was a lady who stood first on the competitive list of her sex. Her practical capacity has proved to be as excellent as her attainments.

PHOTOGRAPHY

AMATEUR PHOTOGRAPHY is one of the most attractive and permanently interesting forms of amusement. Its practice includes everything from the simplest of mechanical operations to the intricacies of a modern science. It frequently happens that the person who commences with the very crudest form of apparatus ultimately ends up by entering into the thing so thoroughly that they equip themselves with the regular professional outfit. Some definite technical instruction, therefore, becomes necessary in order to lay before the amateur a comprehensive method of manipulating the camera.

The selection of an instrument is, of course, a matter of individual taste, but one which is of importance to those who are about to take up the practice of photography.

In the first place, it is desirable to consider whether at the outset it would be best to buy a very simple affair, which will require only the touching of a button at the proper moment, or an apparatus which will be more difficult to operate. All this will depend, first upon what amount of money it is intended to expend on the outfit, and, secondly, on what class of work it is intended to attempt.

The matter is one worth thinking quietly over before a decision is arrived at, because a good, serviceable camera will prove a lifelong companion, while a toy will never furnish any opportunity for taking up an extended study of photography. Fortunately, the competition of manufacturers has led to the placing upon the market of an infinite variety of apparatus, and the catalogue of any prominent photographic supply house will afford a large variety to select from.

An instrument which can be used either with films or dry plates is one of the most recent compromises in the way of style, and is a very useful innovation, as it permits of a wider range of work with greater convenience for the operator.

There is also among amateurs a tendency to utilize pictures for lantern slide purposes, and for this enlargements are necessary. The work of some cameras is better adapted for such a purpose than that of others, and it is one of the points to be considered in selecting an instrument if such a line of work be ultimately contemplated.

While touching the button of a kodak and forwarding the films to a photographer for development may be the acme of one operator's ambition, nine out of ten persons who enter this interesting field of work will want to master all the mysteries of developing, fixing, printing, enameling and mounting. The fascination of the dark room will, in fact, prove a powerful incentive to a careful study of the more difficult points of photography.

In selecting the camera, bear in mind the importance of having the size such as will be useful for your requirements. Should it be intended to print direct from negatives, a camera with plate about five by seven inches would be the most desirable size, while for lantern slides and enlargements a smaller plate, yielding pictures about three and one-quarter by four and one-quarter inches would be desirable.

One of the most important things to be considered is the lens, upon which much of the results of the camera will depend. There are any number of kinds on the market, and the dealer must be relied upon to provide one most suitable for general purposes. In case it is possible to have more than one lens, better results can be obtained by having one of them specially adapted for short and the other for long distances, a wide-angle lens being preferable for interiors. The tripod should always be as light as possible, and a mackintosh focusing cloth is the most useful for all weathers.

The work of focusing the object to be taken will be found by the amateur the most difficult thing to manage, when first starting out. Of course, where a snapshot camera is used, there is what we designate a finder attached, and one has only to look at this to see mirrored in it a picture of the scene or object to be taken. By exercising the judgment for a moment the best distance and elevation at which to snap the button will be easily seen. When using an ordinary camera and tripod it is entirely different, and mathematical accuracy is necessary in order to obtain a satisfactory picture. The first point is to ascertain the focus of the lens with which the camera is fitted. The focus means that point at which the reflected rays of light meet, or, more plainly speaking, the central point of vision to the camera.

It will be apparent to the novice that owing to the divergency of the rays of light entering the camera some system of regulating their action on the plate or film must be adopted. By obtaining what is known as the equivalent focus, a mathematical result of all the foci, the operator will learn in what position to place the camera before interposing the shutter. A further means of regulating and distributing these light rays is furnished by the diaphragm, generally known as the stop, which is also used to modify the amount of light reaching the plate and thus to regulate the time of the exposure.

A method commonly used for finding the equivalent focus of any camera is to screw the lens on the front of the instrument and place it at one end of a long table.

At the other end lay a foot-rule. Then mark on the ground glass of the camera a three-inch line and shift the instrument back and forth until a clear image of the foot-rule exactly coincides with the mark on the ground glass, which can be observed with a focusing glass. Next measure the distance between the focusing screen and the foot-rule and multiply this distance by the amount of reduction. We will, for instance, presume that the distance between foot-rule and screen is 84 inches. We divide the result by the number of times into which the twelve-inch object or rule is divisible by the three-inch mark; namely, four, plus one, thus:

$$84 \times 4 = 336$$

$$336 \div (4+1=25) = 336 \div 25 = 12\ 64 \text{ inches.}$$

The distances between the image and the lens and lens and object are known as conjugate foci. These are commonly required for purposes of enlargement and reduction. They are ascertained by equation when the equivalent focus is known. So that if it is required to copy or reduce an object to a particular size all that it is necessary to do is to measure the size of the object and divide it by the desired size of the image in order to obtain a ratio. For example: To reduce a picture measuring 12 inches at the longer base to 6 inches with a lens of 10 inches equivalent focus proceed as follows:

Equivalent focus 10 inches

$$r = 12 \div 6 = 2.$$

We then get the difference between lens and picture.

Focus $10 \times 4 + 1 = 50$ inches.

The difference between lens and screen will then be

$$50 \div 4 = 12\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ inches.}$$

These rules are worth mastering, because they will often prove valuable to the amateur and save the wasting of many plates. Nevertheless, if one has not a liking for mathematics they are not absolutely essential to the pursuit of photography. By simply extending the bellows of the camera and moving it back and forth the operator can quickly see how much of the picture can be taken on the plate at a certain distance. The ordinary operator regulates his work by this method almost entirely, knowing that for narrow streets or spaces and interior work nothing but a wide-angle lens will secure a picture.

A little problem like the following may be worked out on a pad in a few seconds. It is desired to photograph a building 60 feet high and 40 feet wide in a street 42 feet wide, on a 5 by 7 plate. We use the plate lengthwise, and proceed to see how we can operate. We have a six-inch clear space on the plate, therefore:

$$60 \text{ feet} = 720 \text{ inches} \div 6 = 120.$$

Supposing that we are using a lens with an equivalent focus of 9 inches:

$$9 \times 120 + 1 = 90\tfrac{1}{4} \text{ feet.}$$

By using a different lens it will be an easy matter to get the picture, but what size shall we require?

The street is 42 feet wide, which allows us 35 feet for a conjugate focus. Our image must necessarily be 120th the size of the original in order to get the entire building in, and we therefore must find out what the equivalent focus of the lens should be. For this the rule is to divide the greater conjugate, or distance between lens and object, by the ratio of reduction:

$$35 \text{ feet} = 420 \text{ inches.}$$

$$420 \div 120 = 3\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ inches.}$$

We therefore need a lens with an equivalent focus of $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and must place the camera at a distance of 35 feet from the building to get a complete picture of it.

Now as to the exposure which it will be necessary to give such a picture. The rule in photography is that, all things being equal, the duration of exposure is directly proportional to the square of the diameter of the diaphragm, otherwise its f value. The diaphragm aperture is taken as equivalent to the source of light and the plate as the surface illuminated. The ratio aperture of the diaphragm is reckoned as the expression of its value. Having found the equivalent focus we have only to divide it by the diameter of the diaphragm to get the ratio aperture. For instance, we have an 8-inch lens and the aperture of the diaphragm is $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, the ratio of which will be $8 \div \frac{1}{2} = 16$. This rule, strictly speaking, does not apply to other than single lenses, but it is near enough for general purposes. The ratio or f value being 16, this will require the same exposure with any lens or focus, provided the aperture stop is the same.

The rule to find the exposure necessary for any subject is as follows: The aperture being known with any other, square the two numbers. Thus: If the exposure with an 8-inch lens working at f-16 was the second, a 12-inch lens working at f-23 would be as follows:

$$16 \times 16 = 256 : 23 \times 23 = 529;$$

the latter would therefore require only half the exposure of the former.

Instantaneous photography is so important a branch of the work that it has almost thrown the older methods into the shade. To get the best results from this method it is necessary to have plenty of light, a rapid plate and as full an exposure as possible. Many of the plates will, however, be found under-exposed and a dilute developer will be necessary so that slow development will counteract the bad effects. Rules have been propounded for finding the exposure necessary to photograph a moving object. It is well to apply them if good results are desired, as the movement of the image on the plate is necessarily affected by the rate of motion and distance of the object from the camera. To find the exposure required for a moving object find the distance of the object from the camera in inches and divide it by the number of yards per hour at which it is moving, then multiply it by the focus of the lens in inches. This yields as a result the fraction of a second which is the maximum exposure that can be given without movement affecting the picture.

An example will suffice to show what is required. An object 50 feet from the camera is traveling at the rate of twelve miles an hour, and a lens with a focus of 6 inches is to be used for the exposure. By following the rule we find that the exposure allowable is only about one two-hundreth part of a second ($\frac{1}{200}$th).

Provided the object can be taken obliquely more latitude can be taken in regard to time. The following table will assist the amateur somewhat. It is made out

for a distance from the camera of one hundred times that of the focus of the lens; viz., a 6-inch focus lens at 50 feet, a 7-inch at 58 feet, an 8-inch at 67 feet, a 9-inch at 75 feet, and a 12-inch at 100 feet.

Object.	Moving toward Camera.	At Right Angles to Camera.
Man walking slowly	$\frac{1}{15}$th sec.	$\frac{1}{45}$th sec.
Cattle grazing	$\frac{1}{15}$ "	$\frac{1}{45}$ "
Boating	$\frac{1}{30}$ "	$\frac{1}{60}$ "
Man walking, children playing	$\frac{1}{30}$ "	$\frac{1}{120}$ "
Pony and cart, trotting	$\frac{1}{100}$ "	$\frac{1}{300}$ "
Ordinary cycling	$\frac{1}{100}$ "	$\frac{1}{300}$ "
Man running and jumping	$\frac{1}{150}$ "	$\frac{1}{450}$ "
Cycle racing	$\frac{1}{200}$ "	$\frac{1}{600}$ "
Horses galloping	$\frac{1}{200}$ "	$\frac{1}{600}$ "

Halve exposure for half distance and double for twice distance from object.

THE DARK ROOM.

The dark room is a necessary adjunct to the camera, but it need not be a matter of heavy cost to the amateur. A large closet or pantry with a fair-sized window in it will answer better than anything else; otherwise a portion of a room can be used with a corner which may be screened off for the purpose. Total darkness, of course, is not what is required of this chamber, the purpose being only to exclude all actinic rays of light. Running water will be a great convenience if available. The exclusion of all undesirable light must be very complete. Thick baize curtains, falling very full upon the floor, must be arranged at the doorway. The window should be glazed with ruby glass, of two thicknesses, on the inside of which there should be a curtain or blind of medium weight yellow material. A developing sink will be the next thing necessary, and for this purpose cheap apparatus can be bought or some simple substitute arranged. The all-important point about the dark room is to have every ray of white or ordinary light positively excluded. In order to test the room and see that not even the tiniest ray is admitted, even as small as would come through a keyhole, darken the window thoroughly, and then, having adjusted the curtains, watch for some time in the total darkness to see if any streak of light becomes visible.

Where it is not convenient to have a window in the dark room it will be necessary to use a lamp, fitted with a red or yellow chimney. A swinging screen made on the principle of a looking-glass can be interposed between the lamp and the developing bath, as to allow of minimizing the light while manipulating the pictures. This because it is not desirable to expose the plate to a strong light until it is thoroughly developed.

Having arranged the dark room satisfactorily, the process of developing must next be studied, as it is one of the most important features of the work.

DEVELOPMENT.

When the exposure has been made and the plate conveyed to a dark room without allowing the light to strike it there is upon it an invisible picture. Chemistry is next called in, to accomplish the development of this embryo photograph, and it is at this point that some delicate manipulation becomes necessary.

There has been considerable discussion over the question of developers, some of which have been condemned for their unpleasant effects on the hands, and many others have either been condemned or applauded for commercial purposes.

The objection to developers containing strong alkalies and acids can scarcely be overcome, as those ingredients are necessary to insure proper work. A comparatively new chemical compound known as metol is being advocated by one school of photographers, while pyrogallic acid or "pyro" hydro-quinine, eikonogen, amidol, and half a dozen others are still used extensively. Metol has, perhaps, received more favor recently than any other developer, and many advantages are claimed for it over others; so we will describe the process of using it.

Metol is a white crystalline powder and keeps for any length of time in a well-corked bottle. When made into a solution it should be kept from the light. It is one of the rapid developers, and only a few moments elapse before it has brought out every detail on the plate. It is necessary to give less exposure when metol is used. It will not fog a picture to leave it for an ample time in this developer. Metol does not stain the film or gelatine, and is easy to work with. A formula given by a practical photographer is as follows: Metol, 5 grains; sodium sulphite crystal, 25 grains; hot water, 1 ounce. First dissolve the metol and then add sulphite. Keep tightly corked in the dark and it will serve as a stock solution, remaining in good condition for two or three months.

To develop a plate 4x5 inches in size take your materials into the dark room. Pour out an ounce and a quarter of the metol solution, to which add three-quarters of an ounce of water. Pour this over the plate. Should the picture gradually appear and the details then come up with great clearness the plate is all right, but if the results are slow it is probably underexposed. For this situation a solution of carbonate of potass, made by dissolving one ounce in three ounces of water, will be necessary. When it is seen that the metol solution is not bringing up the picture, commence adding a few drops of the carbonate of potass solution. Start with four or five drops and keep gradually adding until results are secured.

In operating pour the developer over the plate, if possible, so that it is covered by the first wave, and then rock the plate gently so that the liquid penetrates evenly. The high lights of the picture should appear in about five seconds and the shadows follow in ten or twenty. Let the development continue until all the details are plainly brought out. A good rule to follow with this developer is to use it for plates of uncertain expose when it is fresh only, adding the carbonate of potass solution when underexposure is discovered. Two ounces of this developer will serve for about eight 4x5 inch plates. In case of overexposure, in place of the carbonate of potass, add to the metol solution a few drops of bromide of potass solution made by dissolving 1 ounce of the latter in 10 ounces of water. Where very sensitive plates are used it is recommended that the bromide of potass solution be added to the metol in the

proportion of 1 to 10, and where plates are thin the water should be either omitted or greatly reduced in quantity. From four to five minutes will complete the development of the plates.

A new method of development, known as the "Universal," is used by many as a compromise between the quick effects of metol and the slow work of glycin. It is said to be productive of the finest possible results irrespective of the time of exposure. By using this solution as many as two dozen plates can be developed at a time. The outcome is certain and eminently satisfactory; good, quick-printing negatives, full of tone and style, resulting. For using this method a large fixing-box will be necessary, with a tight cover to it, and a normal plate will develop in about thirty minutes. The formulas are as follows:

No. 1.	Metol	20 grains.
	Sulphite soda crystal	¾ ounce.
	Water	20 ounces.
No. 2.	Glycin	20 grains.
	Sulphite soda crystal	50 "
	Carbonate potass	100 "
	Hot water	2 ounces.

Add 18 ounces water when all the ingredients are dissolved.

These two formulas can be combined for neutral results, care being taken not to place the negatives in a bath which has been used for fixing purposes. The plates should be so arranged in the bath that the developer can reach them readily, and the liquid must be kept moving while the plates are immersed.

For the development of instantaneous plates take 2 grains of dry pyrogallic acid, 1 grain bromide of potassium, .880.2 minims of liquid ammonia and 1 ounce of water. Should the plates be underexposed, add an equal quantity of water to the bulk of the developer and 25 per cent extra of ammonia. In extreme cases the developer can be diluted with five times its bulk of water. The development will naturally occupy considerable time, but detail should appear all over the plate. To make up for the ammonia which has evaporated add a quantity equal to 25 per cent of that already used at the end of ten minutes and repeat again at the end of another ten. When the developer has been used for half an hour it may be replaced by another bath, made up as at first, and the operation continued. Should sufficient density not be obtained at the end of an hour a normal developer may be used for a short time. Care must be taken to keep the developer moving constantly, and the bath should be kept covered, so that there is no chance of the pictures being fogged by the light from lamp or window.

A good negative, with plenty of detail, and clear, well-marked shadows, having been obtained, care must be taken to see that it is free from all adhesions. Any emulsion that may have got on to the film or plate during the coating should be carefully washed off. It will also be well, as a safeguard, to varnish the negative, for which purpose the following formula is recommended: Four ounces sandarac, 28 ounces alcohol, 3 ounces oil of lavender.

Spots on the negative, or pinholes as they are termed, should be looked after before the printing is attempted. The best method is to touch them with carmine, using a very fine brush for the purpose. Other defects in the negative are remedied by what is known as retouching. Dark marks are either painted over on the negative or in the print, and lighter ones may be fixed by using a soft lead-pencil.

PRINTING.

It is probable that the amateur will find it more convenient to buy paper ready cut for printing his pictures on from the negatives. There are numerous kinds upon the market, each having its advocates, and in some instances being better suited to certain purposes.

In order to spare time and considerable trouble the amateur will be wise to use paper which is ready prepared and sensitized, rendering the amateur's work comparatively easy from this stage on. Carbon papers are used much less than formerly, the albumenized and the gelatino-citro-chloride papers now having the preference. It is claimed for the latter that they produce prints of greater richness and brilliancy than any others.

A very essential point in the amateur's outfit is to get a few good printing frames, as it will spare many troubles and annoyances in the course of the work. See that the back of the frame is made of hard wood, so as to prevent warping or shrinking, as the spring must always work easily yet firmly. Otherwise the prints will shift about, causing any amount of inconvenience and disappointment. It is well to have the inner side of the back of the frame lined with velvet. A small cloth pad, cut rather smaller than the size of the negative, will also be required. The front of the frame should be covered with glass, so that in case of a sudden shower the exposed prints will not be destroyed.

Before placing the paper in the frame in contact with the negative, dust both thoroughly with either a velvet or a camel's-hair brush. In order to get the negative and paper arranged in correct position in the frame, so that the printing will be straight, hold the frame up to the light so as to be sure that both are exactly in place. Always be careful to print from the film side of the negative, or disastrous results will ensue. The printing frame and accessories should be kept well aired and free from damp, in order that blurring may be avoided.

Exposure to the sun is not necessary for printing, but when the paper and film are firmly fixed in the frame a spot should be selected where the light is steady. The frame should then be placed at an angle of 30 degrees toward the point from which the light comes. The shadow of a building often affords a suitable place for the frame, and window-sills are commonly used to stand the frame upon. The face of the frame should be placed opposite to the sky at the angle stated, and care taken that the sun does not strike the frame, as it will ruin the proofs by casting shadows on them.

When the frame is placed in sunlight the glass should be covered with tissue-paper, and particular notice taken that there are no pinholes in the film, because they will undoubtedly cause markings on the print.

Professional operators make a thorough study of the light values, which vary considerably according to the time of year and day. This makes it rather difficult to

acquire skill in printing. For instance, the light value at noon in the month of January is 1.7, but at four o'clock an exposure of five times the duration requisite at that hour would be necessary. The light at noon in July is valued at 2 as compared with 1.7 in January at the same hour.

Skill in printing can only be acquired with practice and familiarity with materials used, as there are some papers which print much more rapidly than others. Allowance has to be made for the subsequent toning and fixing, which will have the effect of further lightening the print. It is claimed that amateurs, when first starting out, generally print too light. A good rule is to first print to the finished shade and then allow a little for toning out. Where there is an unequal amount of light and shade in a negative they should be printed darker. This rule also holds with a thin, dense negative. It will be necessary to open the frame to see how far the printing has proceeded. Care should be taken to shield the prints from a direct light when this is done.

When all the detail in the more obscure portions of the negative is visible on the proof the printing may, as a rule, be considered dark enough, and the proofs should be placed in a light proof-box which is entirely free from dust. When through accident a good negative has not been obtained and it is not possible to obtain one, it sometimes becomes necessary to use the best taken. In this case there are many ways of improving the negative so that a fairly satisfactory result can be obtained. When a negative is weak the gelatino-citro-chloride paper is the best to print upon.

To strengthen the negative, coat the glass side with a sheet of mineral paper. In order to get it stretched tightly on to the plate moisten the paper before placing it in position and then gum the edges to the plate. It will dry tight and evenly, then with stump and black lead work over the light parts of the print. In order to secure darker prints, which will be more satisfactory under the circumstances, print in a slow light, using two thicknesses of tissue-paper over the frame.

When the negative is hard, a great improvement may be made by backing the plate with mineral paper and working over the shadows instead of the lights and half-tones. By using a freshly sensitized paper and printing in direct sunlight a hard negative often yields good results. The half-tones in underexposed negatives are often marred by chalky effects. By tinting the paper this excessive whiteness will be overcome. This is accomplished by simply exposing the paper before placing it in the printing frame.

Negatives can sometimes be colored for the purpose of equalizing the lights and shadows, but in that case must never be exposed to direct sunlight. Where there is too dense a shadow on certain parts of a portrait they may be lightened with yellow paint or Prussian blue.

Errors in focusing may often be palliated by clever trimming. It will generally be found necessary to trim the print in order to get it in proper shape for mounting. There will either be too much fore or background, odd spacing at the sides, and other irregularities, which the judicious use of the trimming-knife will overcome.

TONING AND FIXING.

Fortunately there are ready-toned papers now, and the amateur is not compelled to master the rather difficult process of toning, unless from a desire to thoroughly understand all details.

Toning is a very delicate operation, and undoubtedly a few unfortunate experiments will precede the accomplishment of expert results. For the ready sensitized paper, which it is probable the amateur will use, the borax bath is recommended. This is made from the following formula: Gold chloride, 1 grain; borax, 100 grains; water, 10 ounces. It should be made about an hour before using. Purple tints can be obtained from this toning, but not blue or cold tones. The prints should not be allowed to remain in the solution too long, as otherwise the action of the chemicals will produce the opposite results to those desired. The best rule to follow is to watch the whites in the print, and as soon as bleaching or a bluish tinge commences to show, to take them out, as the shadows will be already sufficiently toned.

The process of toning can be stopped in gelatine prints when they are taken from the bath by putting a handful of salt into the toning bath and redipping them. The toning bath for gelatine papers is made as follows: Gold chloride, 2 grains; sulpho-cyanide of ammonium, 30 grains; water, 16 ounces. Toning by gaslight is often preferred by those who use papers which have been sensitized by themselves.

Toning after fixing is resorted to by some photographers. The process is as follows: Take three ounces of hypo and dissolve in twenty ounces of water to make the fixing bath. In this immerse the prints for ten minutes. Then wash them for two hours. Take a grain of gold chloride and increase it with water to one ounce. For one minute immerse the prints in this and then remove to the ordinary toning bath. Be careful to watch the toning by reflected light, and, when perfect, wash the prints for another hour and they will be ready for enameling or burnishing.

ENAMELING.

The prints can be taken direct from the bath. See that the enameling plate is clean, free from scratches, and has a brilliant surface. Warm the plate slightly and rub roughly over it a piece of pure beeswax. With a dry, soft flannel rag warm the plate until the wax melts. With the rag rub it all over the plate until every particle of the glass is covered. Being sure of this, commence rubbing the wax off again on the flannel. Rub lightly, in a circular direction, and evenly distribute all over the plate.

When the wax has almost disappeared from the glass take a clean flannel and give it a final polishing. Stop as soon as the wax has become invisible over the entire surface of the glass, which will then really be covered by a thin film of wax. The glass is now in perfect condition, and the prints, after being allowed to drip for a few minutes, should be laid, face downward, one at a time, on the plate glass. Press them firmly into contact with it and use a squegee to remove any air-bells. Then stand the glass on end in a dry, warm place, and

as the prints dry they will gradually drop off, each one being beautifully polished. If any of the prints stick, they can be removed by loosening the edges with a knife.

MOUNTING.

The final process of mounting is one requiring only care and cleanliness. There are any number of good mountants in the market, although it may be well to give a formula in case one may desire to make their own. Dissolve one ounce of gum arabic in three ounces of water and mix in a mortar with one ounce of starch. Heat in a dish until clear.

When the mountant is ready for use lay the prints face downward upon some oiled paper and carefully apply the liquid to the back. Then place it on the mount or cardboard and squegee it so as to make sure of it adhering firmly. Laid on top of each other with glass plates and small blocks of wood between, the cards soon dry and are sure to be perfectly flat when unpacked. We now have our photograph ready for any purpose, having gone through all the various processes necessary to perfect it.

OUTDOOR PORTRAITURE.

A few additional hints may serve to smooth the way of the amateur, and among them may be given something about the taking of various kinds of pictures which require special handling in order to insure good results.

One of the first experiments that the amateur will probably make with the camera will be to take a familiar object in the vicinity of home. One's back garden is frequently the scene of the first experiment. The victim, either a neighbor or a member of one's own family, should be cautiously lured into the garden, and seated facing the north, out of the direct sunshine. Employ the services of a friend to hold a large umbrella at such an angle as will shade one side of the sitter's face and the top of head. The exact position for the umbrella can be ascertained by finding at what angle a good modeling of the features is obtainable. For a background an old yellow blanket, kept moving while the exposure is made, will serve very well, and a good picture can be obtained with little trouble.

Landscape photography will doubtless be one of the earliest things attempted by the amateur. The easiest method to pursue, until one desires to attempt more ambitious things, is what photographers term "natural focusing." The main point of this method is to focus the principal object in the view, allowing all other points to be subordinate to it. The result on the negative is a picture which exactly represents the scene as it appears to the naked eye. Pretty and effective pictures can be obtained in this way, but the rules given concerning exposures made according to the laws regulating the foci will prove generally safe to go upon.

Objects in motion can be photographed successfully by observing a few common sense rules. For instance, in every action there is a position which may be defined as essentially characteristic. It is to seize this opportunity that the operator must wait and watch, obtaining an exposure just at the moment the object can be caught to best advantage. When the position of the object is oblique, either from or toward the camera, results will be obtained much more easily and satisfactorily than otherwise. This rule should always be remembered when an attempt is made to photograph animals, vehicles or vessels in motion. The shorter the exposure made for this purpose the better the results will be.

Marine negatives are very beautiful if properly taken. The composition of them should be the reverse of that for a landscape, because the more spirited it is the more pleasing the result. The crested waves at a vessel's bow and the glimmer of the sunlight on the waters lend the necessary enchantment to a good marine view. Care should be taken not to overexpose in such cases, or blurring will result.

The way that fancy pictures are made and tricks performed with the camera is scarcely worthy attention, but may be worth mentioning. A square piece of black paper is placed in front of the lens at a distance equal to ⅝ of the back focus, so as to hide half the range of the lens. One exposure is made, and the piece of paper is then turned over so as to cover the other half of the range. Then another exposure is taken, any objects in the exposed part of the range having been meanwhile transferred to the other half before the lens was uncapped. Care should be taken not to move the instrument while the exposures are being made. This is how spirit photographs are obtained.

The beginner will do well to bear in mind the different conditions which prevail in regard to photographing in summer and winter. Quicker plates, as a rule, will be found more advantageous in the winter and a larger stop can be used on the camera. In developing plates or films it will be found advisable to warm up the developer slightly in very cold weather, so that it will work on the negatives more quickly and effectively.

With these few hints, for they are scarcely more than that, on the important subject of photography, the amateur should be able, by asking a few questions now and again, to acquire considerable skill in the use of the camera. By observing the working of the necessary tools many things will be learned which reading would never teach. Of course much of the work could be simplified, if desired, for the amateur, by buying ready-made developers and adopting the short cuts afforded by the numerous new inventions which are always crowding the market



'UNDER THE GREENWOOD."—FROM THE PAINTING BY ADRIEN MOREAU.

PAINTING.

LANDSCAPE PAINTING.



LANDSCAPE painting is comparatively a modern art. Titian, who lived in the 16th century, is generally looked upon as its founder. By landscape painting one means the representation of natural scenery for its own sake. Now, of course, long before Titian, you find painters painting sky, and sea, and mountains, and trees, and painting them with extreme beauty and skill. But you will not find a single instance amongst the early Italians of a picture existing wholly or primarily for the sake of its landscape. Nay, more than this; you will find scarcely an instance in which the landscape is much more than a beautifully designed surrounding for figures; a surrounding founded indeed upon love and observation of nature, but painted primarily for exactly the same reason as still earlier, the gold pattern back-grounds were painted, that is to say simply as a beautifully designed surrounding for figures. Titian commenced a new order. Natural scenery had for him a meaning and a fascination in itself apart from human beings. And so Titian commenced the modern art of landscape; the art with which we connect the great names of Holbein and Ruysdale and Gaspar Poussin, and Crowe and Courdette and Turner. These men and their followers rejoiced in natural scenery purely for its own beauties, and tried to represent it as they saw it under its different aspects; they tried, as we may say, to give portraits of it, to give its genuine effect; they did not use it simply as material from which to work out beautiful designs; but they went to it that they might know its appearance, and bear record of that. And this is true landscape painting.

It is a matter of wonder that the art of landscape painting, which is now so popular, should have been such a late development of art! The answer to that question would lead us probably into a somewhat difficult discussion hardly suited to these pages. But we may say this—in early times, nature, as we call it, was not rejoiced in by the people as it is nowadays, because it was for them full of known or dreaded perils, and they cared neither to visit it, nor to look at its representation. Many of these perils were real, such for instance as those of a robber or a wild beast; some were imaginary, such as those from supernatural beings. If every time you went up to a mountain you were in dread of meeting a spirit, and every time you went into a forest you were in dread of meeting a robber or a wild beast, you would not much care about going up mountains or into forests, nor would you care about paintings of these dreadful places. But bye-and-bye civilization increased, superstition passed away, people came to be more and more at their ease with nature, and able to gaze on her with enjoyment.

TECHNIQUE.

The first business of a student is to learn how to reproduce with exactness the scene before him or her. When you go out to draw, determine that you will do your best to match the colors and the tones of the landscape as nearly as ever you can. Do not be content with imperfect knowledge and resources. Do not try to make pretty pictures; endeavor simply to make a study which shall be like the thing before you. Bye-and-bye you will get command over your materials, and then it will be time enough to commence painting pictures. But over your materials get command so soon as ever you can. Grudge no time or trouble which helps you on with this. Learn how to do whatever you want to do, to imitate whatever you want to imitate; this is studentship, and do not shirk it.

DETAIL.—MASS.—TONE.

The great difficulty which most peopple find when they begin landscape painting from nature, arises from detail. Detail is a terrible task. Let us by way of illustration try and imagine some simple scene. Supposing then, we want to paint—shall we say a cottage, with some trees in the back-ground, and in front a stream in which they are reflected. Now, in the trees there will be visible innumerable leaves, no doubt, and branches, and variations of color, In the roof it is perfectly certain that there will be a thousand tints, and in the walls a thousand streaks and reflected lights and tours and then all this more or less over again in the water with increased intricacy.

Most amateurs when they sit down to paint such a

thing, begin trying bit by bit to copy each leaf and twig, and tile and stain. One knows so well the result —a thin, toneless unproportional drawing, that has no true art-value whatever. Well, the first thing is to forget absolutely all detail, and to aim simply at mass and tone; to aim simply at getting down a ground-work of the general color, which shall be true in its broad relation of light and dark, and of tint. Into this you may work any amount of detail you choose; but unless you have got this, all detail is worthless, and when you have gotten it, when your tone acquired by broad relation of light and dark and of tint; true, even supposing, that you carry the drawing no further, it has real value as a representation of the scene, and as a a piece of art.

You will find it an excellent plan at the commencement of a drawing to half-close your eyes as you look at the landscape; in this way you will shut out all detail and will see the scene before you as a whole; you will see it in its broad relations, that is, of light and dark, and of tint. It is exceedingly useful too, when you have the time, to first of all make a pencil sketch of the scene on the same principle, attending, that is, wholly to masses and tone. You will get these down rightly with greater ease, because you will not have to be thinking yet of what the colors are and have to match them. When you have got your black and white study correct, using your pencil, we should advise you, as one uses charcoal, rubbing it, that is, with your finger, then on a new piece of paper begin coloring, keeping the pencil study by you as your scheme of mass and tone.

BLOCKS.—BODY COLOR.—INK.—COLORS.

Unless you have a long while before you, and can return to your subject again and again, so as to work it carefully out, we advise you not to make your landscape studies too large. For a morning's or an afternoon's work a block the size of a piece of note-paper folded out, or even of a piece of note-paper folded in two, as we ordinarily write on it, is large enough. Paint on white paper, and on white paper that has a tolerable but not too rough grain. You will find it useful to use body-color with a fair sized brush, and in a fluid state; when you are commencing your drawing, when you are getting in the broad relation of light and dark, and of tint. Into the body-color, while it is still fluid, work different tints more or less pure as you want them; then, when the ground-work is dry, draw into it the main form, with a pen charged with indelible brown ink, and then work on towards finishing with pure colors. You need not in this way fear that your drawing will look chalky; it will not in the least, if you work your pure colors in with tolerable skill. And as for the brown pen-lines, also they will disappear if you like to work on them enough.

As to colors, it is well to have a moderate number only in one's box. The following list will serve you for painting most ordinary landscapes. Raw umber, burnt sienna, raw sienna, light red, rose madder, brown madder, aureolin, cobalt blue, visidian, olive green, black and chinese white. Every artist, of course, has special colors that he or she is fond of, just as he or she has special methods; but with these colors you will be able to do most of what you find to do as soon as you get a tolerable facility in combining them.

SKETCHING.

Amateurs are exceedingly fond of what they call sketching. We all know what that generally comes to —to going out and choosing some large piece of landscape, and then making nonsense of it; spoiling a piece of paper with something which has no drawing, no tone, no color, but which is purely rubbish. Fly from the temptation to sketc, has you would fly from the evil one itself. If you do not really feel that you can muster energy enough to learn how to draw and how to color, do not set your hand to the business at all. But if you do, go to nature and to the masters reverently continuing, and try to let this witchery work on you, grudging no pains or no sacrifice. You may not do great things, but if you have any true art instinct at all you will in time do some beautiful things, things which however small and quiet, it is well to do; they will bring you happiness, and they will bring some others, for whom it is worth thinking, happiness also.

PAINTING ON TERRA COTTA.

In painting on terra-cotta it is best to treat your whole subject first of all in light and shade, with white enamel, using it thinly for the shadows, and thickiy in the light. As the unglazed pottery is more absorbent than the glazed, more oil is required in the enamel when used for this purpose than for ordinary work. Remember that the brush must never be filled with enamel, but take as much on the tip as it will hold, and you will begin to replenish it for every brush-mark. It will not be found at all easy to do this well, as white enamel is difficult to lay on cleanly and smoothly, until the student has had a good deal of practice. When the whole design has been painted in this manner, it must be fired, and then, if the white has been put on sufficiently thickly, the design will be glazed. You may then tint it with the ordinary china-painting colors and have it re-fired.

The chief difficulty in painting on terra-cotta will be overcome if your subject is well chosen. Let the flowers be of a simple, open nature, such as daisies, harthorn, blackthorn, wild roses, any sort of fruit blossoms, buttercups, or primroses. Any of those and many others are very appropriate, and look well; but if the stu-



"IN THE FOREST."—BY FRITZ A. KAULBACH.

dent has chosen anything of a bell-shaped nature, or, more still, anything elaborate, such as columbine or antirehinium, success will be most difficult of attainment.

Colors should be very subdued on terra-cotta: Pale Yellows, White, Dull Greens, and Browns all look well, with possibly of a little Turquoise Blue. It is best for the student not to paint on terra-cotta until he can conscientiously assure himself that his taste is well trained, and his manipulations good.

It is quite allowable to mix color with the enamel for the first firing, but there is no advantage in doing so, as the enamel makes too rough a surface for shading upon, and it therefore requires a second firing before it can be finished. If, however, for anything very simple, you would like to try it, let the proportions be about four of enamel to one of color.

Colored glazed plates and tiles may also be painted in the manner described for terra-cotta. Beautiful shades are to be had of Celadon, Chocolate, Orange, Blue, Green, and others.

PAINTING ON CHINA.

In commencing the study of China Painting it will be well if the student starts with the firm determination of completely mastering the use of his materials. Even though he may be proficient in oils or water colors, the *technique* is so different that it will be necessary to begin at the very beginning.

If the student knows nothing of pottery painting, by all means let him begin with over-glaze in preference to under glaze painting. In the former, all faults (for instance, brush marks, inefficient dabbling, the use of too much turpentine, too much or too little oil) are apparent on the surface. They are only too visible the instant they are perpetrated. There is seen to be something obviously wrong, and if the student does not know how to remedy it, he feels, if he is a conscientious worker, that the least he can do is to take it out, and hope for more skill in a second attempt. But in under-glaze painting, work often has the appearance of being very tolerably well done until it is glazed and fired, when brush marks, bad edges and harsh lines start forth in a manner that is most unexpected and disappointing.

We shall confine our attention entirely to over-glaze painting, and throughout it must be remembered that the colors mentioned are invariably over-glaze or manual colors. Enamel colors should be kept carefully apart from under-glaze colors, as the smallest grain of the latter mixed with the former would completely spoil the effect. The same remark applies to oil paints, and even to the turpentine in which brushes used for them have been rinsed.

In choosing your earthenware or china, notice that the glaze is smooth and even, without specks of any sort, and not crazed, *i. e.* requiring either a greater or less degree of heat in order to fuse it.

The following implements and colors are absolutely necessary. Those contained in the supplementary list will be found a great convenience after some progress has been made:

1 Steel Palette Knife.
1 Glass Muller.
1 Hand Rest.
1 Medium-sized Dabber.
1 Small Dabber in Quill.
1 Sable Crow Writer.
1 Plate (glazed).
2 or 3 sizes of Camel's-Hair Brushes for China Painting.
Several 6-inch or 8-inch Tiles (also glazed) to be used for Palettes.
Turpentine.
Fat Oil of Turpentine.
Spirits of Lavender, or Oil of Cloves.

MOIST WET COLORS.

Deep Azure Blue.	Outremer Turquoise.
German Brown.	Olive Brown.
Brunswick Brown.	Sepia.
Vandyke Brown.	Deep Black.
Grey Black.	Carmine.
Royal Purple.	Deep Green.
Rose-Leaf Green.	Light Sevres.
Dark Orange.	Pearl Grey.
Red.	Persian Yellow.
Strong Yellow.	White Enamel.
China Meglip.	

DRY COLORS (For Beginners).

Rouge Orangé.	Violet de Fer.
Noir d' Ivoire.	Bleu Riche.
Carmine No. 2.	Pourpre Riche.
Gris Perle.	Jaune Orangé.
Ocre.	Brun No. 4.
Vert Chrome Riche.	Vert Brun.
Vert Noir.	White Crome (English).

SUPPLEMENTARY LIST (For the More Advanced Student).

Jaune à Mêler	Rouge Chair No. 1
Vert Bleu Riche.	Carmine No 3.
Brun No. 3.	Evan's Brown.
Ivory Palette.	Knife.

All the colors mentioned in the list will work freely together, with the exception of Brunswick Brown and Red, which will, however, mix together, and with black and purple, but not with the other colors. Working with the moist water colors will be found very pleasant.

In sketching, use the crayon purchased for that purpose, which, being of an oily nature, will not be washed out by the water-color passing over it. It will, however, disappear completely in the firing. The manner of working is very much the same as if the colors were mixed with oil. The brush must be kept square, and the mark of color may be retouched again and again in order to make it smooth. If a large space is to be

covered, use the dabber. More water or meglip must be added as occasion requires; but too much of the former is apt to produce a very worky appearance, and if too much of the latter is used the color will take a long time to dry. For a broad sweep of color, a combination of the two is best. When the ground is laid, and your drawing is of such a nature that you have been obliged to take the color over it, you may clean out your design with great ease, by merely washing away the surplus color with a brush just moistened with water, but care must be taken that the brush is not too wet, lest the work shall be made messey. The pattern may also be cleaned out either with a pen-knife or with the pointed end of a brush handle. These colors are perfectly well ground and free from grit. One of the few technical difficulties connected with their use will be overcome if the student will *never* try to shade his work without drying the first washes at the fire. When these colors are dry they are easy to work upon, but we cannot sufficiently impress upon the student that they will not dry of their own accord. If the underworks are disturbed, it will show that these remarks have not been attended to.

With reference to the French colors it must be borne in mind that the Iron Reds (all Reds of a brick-dust shade) will mix with each other, or with Black or Violet de Fer, and, to a moderate extent, with Jaune à Mêler, or Jaune d'Ivoire, but not with other colors. If mixed with Carmine, Blue, &c., and fired, the Red would all disappear. However, if a little thought is bestowed on the subject, this is no very great disadvantage, as by using Jaune à Mêler as a sort of go-between, you may blend or graduate Red into almost any other color you wish. Say, for example, that you desire to shade Red into Green; a good Green for the purpose can be made with Noir d'Ivoire and Jaune à Mêler, both of which colors will mix with Red. Or if a brighter green is required, put plenty of oil into your Jaune à Mêler, and, with different brushes, wash the Red on to one end of the space to be covered, and the Green on to the other, blending them with Jaune à Mêler in the middle. If well done, the effect should be smooth and the gradation uniform; but if you use too little oil, the colors will join with a harsh line. Ocre is useful for shading Yellow, or, used by itself, for the warm glow in a sunset sky; but it will not mix at all satisfactorily with greens. All the other colors will mix freely together; but after a little experience you will find that Browns are very apt to fire out, *i. e.*, to disappear in the firing, leaving the other color with which they were mixed somewhat of the same tone as if it had been used pure; you will also find that Blues, Purples, and Carmines are very strong in their effect, being apt, when mixed with other colors, to show more after they are fired than before. White enamel is most useful for little touches of white, or for painting on terra-cotta. It must be kept scrupulously clean, and a separate palette sould be reserved for it, a glsss one being preferable to an ordinary tile. Then grind it with a steel knife, bnt use a glass muller or ivory palette-knife, otherwise it will probably be discolored in firing. If in painting with Enamel you find it is inclined to spread, breathe into the color on your palette, at the same time mixing it with a little more turpentine. As you require to put it on rather thickly, do not use too much oil.

The hand-rest, if placed over your work, for your hand to rest on whilst painting, will greatly help you to avoid rubbing or scratching your work, to which beginners are very prone. It will also assist you to acquire a light touch. A tall easel is a convenience, as it will save much stooping, and you can also see the general effect of your work better when it is not flat on the table.

If you have any facility in drawing we recommend you to sketch your work with Indian Ink, *water-color* carmine, or smoke; and if with the first, let it be of the first quality, or there may be impurities it it which will remain after firing. If the last is used, it is merely necessary to hold a saucer or tile over the flame of a candle, and then use the carbon while it collects with a little turpentine. If your design is very elaborate and you wish to trace it, you may do so by making use of either of the following methods. First, and least objectionable, is the process known as 'pouncing.' Arrange a piece of tracing paper over your design, and with a fine hard pencil make a careful outline of your drawing. When this is complete, place it on a cushion or anything soft, and with a fine needle, prick along every line. Finally, arrange your tracing on your plate, secure it at the corners with a wafer, and dust over it with a little black-lead or fine charcoal powder. The drawing will by this means be transferred to your plate in a series of dotted lines. It is then ready to be sketched with India Ink. Afterward remove all the dust with a soft brush or cloth, or it may interfere with your painting. The second process is to place a sheet of black tracing paper on the china, and over it your tracing; then go over all the lines again with a hard fine-pointed pencil, or the sharp end of a porcupine quill. The patterns so transferred to the china should be strengthened and corrected with a fine brush and India Ink. The process is quicker, but it is also dirtier, and you are more likely to lose the delicacy of your drawing, although in simple conventional borders there is no objection to this method being used. As the great advantage which amateurs possess over professional china painters is the power of spending unlimited time over the smallest piece of work, they should never run the risk of spoiling their painting by using inferior methods.

THE TOILET.

HYGIENE OF BEAUTY—RULES FOR PRESERVING GOOD LOOKS—TREATMENT OF THE COMPLEXION, HAIR, FEET, HANDS AND TEETH. FORMULAS FOR COSMETICS.

NATURE OF THE SKIN.

Much attention has been bestowed in recent years upon the various means of improving the personal appearance.

Skilled physicians, chemists and surgeons have devoted their attention to a subject formerly left to quacks and charlatans, and the work of preserving or restoring beauty has been brought within the province of legitimate practice.

A brief consideration of the nature and functions of the skin will demonstrate the relationship which exists between a healthy and pleasing appearance and the health generally. The primary purposes of the skin are the protection of the external surface of the body and the support of the internal organs. The sensations are also realized by us through the nerves by means of the skin, which also supplements the lungs as an organ of respiration. It has powers of absorption and secretion, and in its filter-like capacity acts as a purifier to the entire system. By means of perspiration it regulates the heat of the body and keeps it at an almost equable temperature. It will thus be seen how imperative it is in the first instance to keep the skin in a healthy and active condition.

The heart in pumping the blood through the system forces it outward to the skin, at which point it becomes charged with oxygen and distributes this vitalizing agent through the body, repairing by this means the continual waste of the fabric.

The microscope reveals millions of small thread-like tubes, known as capillaries, which penetrate from the surface inward to all parts of the body, forming the most delicate mechanism imaginable.

It is therefore easily seen that cleanliness is as essential to health as to beauty, and that the bath is the most important of all things as an aid to securing both.

To daub up the face with cosmetics without most thoroughly washing it is to invite the very ills which the person so doing is attempting to shun. In fact, as a rule, most of the preparations upon the market for treating the skin are dangerous, and many a complexion has been ruined by the use of them. The greatest discretion should be practiced in dealing with the skin, for nothing is so easy as to ruin forever a complexion which by the proper means might have been made either tolerable or beautiful.

There are any number of formulas, the ingredients of which are pure and harmless, and these often prove efficient in various ways. They can be put up by any good druggist, and will be found not only beneficial, but far more economical than the patent nostrum.

THE BATH.

The fundamental point in the ethics of beauty being the bath, it may be well to make a few remarks at the outset in regard to bathing.

It has been found that while the cold plunge bath is suited to some constitutions and skins, the warm bath is more advantageous to others. In this respect therefore one must follow the needs of their own particular case; for no consideration, however, failing to use one or the other with regularity. If the bath be omitted the pores of the skin become clogged up, and its natural purpose of expelling the waste of the system is interfered with. The circulation of the blood is impeded, and neither health nor good looks can be expected to come from any system of treatment.

For persons of a hardy constitution the cold bath is most desirable. It should, preferably,

be taken in the morning immediately upon arising. When the spray or plunge cannot be borne, a good sponging from head to feet can be resorted to. The skin should be dried by rubbing with a rough towel, which will give the blood a healthy rousing and bring all the organs into activity.

The hot or warm bath has its purposes as certainly as the cold bath.

Persons with delicate constitutions, and those suffering from over-fatigue, find it very beneficial; in the latter instance relaxation of the muscles is produced and the body prepared for a healthy sleep.

In cases where a dry hard skin is the cause of annoyance, the hot bath will be found invaluable, and its regular use is recommended.

The objections to a too frequent use of the warm bath is that it is enervating, and especially so when a long time is spent in the water. Unlike the cold bath, it does not stimulate the skin and its accessories to healthy action, and when used to excess it causes the epidermis to become wrinkled and flabby. The warm bath decreases the circulation and impairs the nervous force also, making those who indulge in it very susceptible to atmospheric changes.

The top of the head should invariably be wetted first when the entire body is to be immersed.

The rationale of the bath is one of the most important things to have clearly understood. A distinguished English physician says of it: "Doubtless, when judiciously employed and when a proper glow follows, it is a beneficial tonic. The blood, driven from the surface by the contraction of the blood vessels, is returned to the heart and the circulation is quickened. But where no reaction takes place, where the skin remains blue, the cold bath has done positive mischief, and next time tepid water should be used. The truth is that warm and cold water have *precisely the same results* in different people. In the strong, cold water secures a reaction, and the same warmth is obtained as is obtained directly and without reaction when a less sturdy person uses warm water. The effect is to quicken the circulation. In one case the blood is driven in upon the internal organs, which in their turn propel it again to the extremities; and in the other case the blood is drawn to the surface and extremities, the vessels in the skin being relaxed and opened by the genial warmth. And I would remark that in cases where there is a tendency to lose the hair the friction with the rough towel that is so useful in assisting circulation after a bath, and therefore so salutary to the skin, is by no means advantageous to the hair, which it loosens and causes to fall in greater quantities."

A hard cracking skin cannot receive too much moisture, and the latest method of treating extreme cases of this kind is to subject the patient to complete immersion for weeks and months at a time.

The thin, delicate, sensitive cuticle, on the other hand, can be speedily harmed by injudicious excess in the use of the bath. Hard water or alkali soaps will often produce cutaneous trouble, the true cause of which will be unsuspected by the sufferer. Rain water, or water softened by the addition of a few drops of ammonia, and distilled water, are also very soothing and agreeable to tender skins. Among the varieties of soap which are desirable, white castile probably ranks first. In making this soap, olive and linseed oils are combined, the other ingredient being poppy or ground nut. Palm oil, castor oil, and cocoanut oil soaps are also favored by dermatologists.

In order to wash the face properly a lather should be made with soap and warm water, which should be rubbed in with the hand preferably to using a towel or flannel. The face should next be washed with tepid water until every particle of soap is removed, and then finally a bathing with cold water should complete the operation.

In order that the constitution of the skin and its organism may be perfectly comprehended, it may be stated that, according to scientific analysis, complexion is known to be the result of a certain arrangement of pigment molecules. This molecular deposit develops from the blood by a certain chemical process, and in due course forms the hue of the complexion, hair and eyes.

Dark and light complexions are due to the greater or less amount of this pigment deposited by the system, the former being due to the excess of the molecules.

We thus find that the various styles of complexion are due to the greater or less quantity of blood driven into the small vessels near the surface of the skin, and to the character of the blood.

Paleness or flushing are due either to the abrupt contraction or expansion of these channels, caused by the action of the nerves upon them, whose function it is to regulate the condition of the epidermis.

PHYSICAL EXERCISE, OR CALISTHENICS.

The pallid sickly looking person is never addicted to indulgence in physical exercise.

Beauty as it is admired to-day bears the insignia of health, and rosy cheeks will win more appreciative glances than sallow ones. Hygiene is therefore so closely allied to the question of preserving personal charms that it enters at every stage into the curriculum. The languid and sentimental miss of a quarter century ago has given place to a style which is more dashing than it is statuesque, and more inclined to go to the extremes in an opposite direction. There is no doubt that the race is a gainer by the change, both in appearance and health.

The question of physical exercise is much like that of the bath, depending to a large extent upon the constitution of the individual.

Many women find bicycling to be beneficial in the highest degree, while others become physical wrecks from the use of the wheel. Outdoor exercise of some kind is of course essential to perfect health and its usual concomitant, beauty.

At certain seasons of the year and under certain circumstances it may not, however, be convenient to indulge in it as often as desirable, and there are also other reasons of a more general character for the practice of those exercises which come under the classification of calisthenics.

For the expansion of the chest the following simple movement has been devised: Upon arising from bed walk several times briskly around the chamber. Next stand in as absolutely erect a position as possible, extending the arms backward and forward from the shoulders to their full length for a number of times.

This movement should be executed slowly and no unusual exertion is necessary. The breath should be drawn gently through the nostrils while the exercise is being taken. The next thing is to drop the hands straight down beside the body, raising them slowly and extending them outward until the motion brings the finger tips together at the top of the head. This movement should be repeated several times, and may be followed by another one equally simple. Place the hands upon the hips first, and then stretch them out straight, bringing them together in front by a meeting of the tips of the fingers. The same movement can be practiced in the opposite direction and the fingers made to meet at the back.

A better movement still is supposed to be the following: Assume an erect pose and elevate the arms over the head. Keeping them straight outward, bend the body forward until the finger tips, descending, touch the floor. This can be repeated as many times as will not fatigue. Follow this by returning the body to its erect posture, and, using the base of the body as a pivot, turn it at the hips as far both to right and left as possible without changing the position of the feet. Again resuming the vertical poise, lean the body alternately to left and right a number of times and as far as possible without losing the balance. A finishing touch is to lift one knee at a time as high as possible and swing it back and forth in the hip socket. This movement will lend suppleness to the joints and consequent gracefulness to the carriage, besides promoting the general health.

One of the most valuable exercises for the development of grace and symmetry is fencing, now so much practiced by women. Too much cannot be said in favor of this diversion, which brings into play all the muscles of the body and trains both eye and hand to unerring accuracy.

Dumbbells may be used to great advantage by women, but their weight should not exceed two pounds, nor should they be used for a longer period than ten minutes, once or twice a day.

The art of being graceful is one of the most difficult to acquire, either by women or men, and the only royal road to it is by means of a course of calisthenics.

Suppleness of the joints may be secured by using an ointment composed of venison fat, eight ounces; musk, one grain; white brandy, half a pint; rosewater, four ounces. Rub on at bedtime and remove with a sponge and water in the morning.

THE STANDARD OF BEAUTY.

The ancients regarded the Venus de Medici as the true standard of proportion in form and feature. Her measurements were as follows: Height, 63 inches; breadth of neck, 4 inches; of shoulders, 16 inches; of waist, 9½ inches; and of hips, 13 inches.

The standard upheld by the Berlin Royal Academy of Arts varies slightly from this. Its measurements are: Height, 63½ inches; breadth of neck, 3¾ inches; of shoulders, 15 inches; of waist, 9 inches; of hips, 13½ inches.

The composite measurement of the American college girl is as follows: Height, 63½ inches; breadth of neck, 3.8 inches; girth of neck, 12.1 inches; breadth of shoulders, 14.7 inches; breadth of waist, 8.6 inches; girth of waist, 24.6 inches; breadth of hips, 13.1 inches; girth of hips, 35.4 inches; girth of upper part of arm, 10.1 inches; girth of thigh, 21.4 inches; and of forearm, 9.2 inches.

The rules given for assuming the proper posture and attitude while in a standing position are as follows: In the first place the corre-

sponding halves of the body must be in the same anatomical relation, the center of gravity of the whole body falling just in front of the last lumbar vertebræ. In order to admit of this pose being the natural one, and capable of being sustained for the greatest length of time without inconvenience, there must be perfect symmetry of the bony structure and an equal development of the muscles on the back and front of the body. Any exercise which tends to bring about an unequal development of the muscles will have a deterrent influence on the health and gracefulness of the body. Such physical defects as curvature of the spine, drooping shoulders and oblique poise of the head are due to this inequality or to structural malformation.

It is within the province of the physical trainer to remedy any irregular muscular development, and the latter ills, which are mostly deformities at birth, are now frequently remedied by the aid of surgical skill.

The normal weights in proportion to the height of the body of any individual are as follows: 5 feet tall, 120 lbs.; 5 feet 1 in., 125 lbs.; 5 feet 5 in., 145 lbs.; 5 feet 8 in., 160 lbs.; 5 feet 10 in., 170 lbs.; 6 feet, 180 lbs.

A scale has recently been compiled for infants, as follows:

At birth,	7 lbs.	24 weeks,	14¾ lbs.
2 days,	6 "	26 "	15 "
4 "	6 "	7 m'ths,	16 "
7 "	7 "	8 "	17 "
2 weeks,	7½ "	9 "	18 "
4 "	8 "	10 "	19 "
6 "	9 "	11 "	20 "
8 "	10 "	12 "	21 "
10 "	10¾ "	14 "	22 "
12 "	11½ "	16 "	23 "
14 "	12¼ "	18 "	24 "
16 "	12¾ "	20 "	25 "
18 "	13½ "	22 "	26 "
20 "	14 "	24 "	27 "
22 "	14½ "		

Many malformations which were formerly considered incurable can be easily overcome while the child's bones are soft and the muscles flexible. The number of cripples can, owing to the advance in surgical science, be greatly reduced by prompt attention to these natal defects, and years of after torture can thus be avoided for the unfortunate victim.

COSMETICS AND THE COMPLEXION.

The preparations advertised by quacks for remedying defects of the complexion are as a rule worthless, and generally cost many times the intrinsic or market value of the ingredients.

The two radical remedies which the chemist offers for this purpose are the astringent and the emollient. The dry, hard skin, which results in many minor surface disorders and abnormal desquamation finds its remedy in the latter, while the wrinkled, flabby and tender skin will be remedied, at least superficially, by the application of an astringent.

The principal astringents are the acids, alum, lime-water, chalk, and certain preparations of copper, zinc, iron and lead.

Emollients are derived from natural oils and fatty substances.

The use of benzine for the complexion as a remedy for congestion has also been much advocated in recent years.

The basis of most of the astringent preparations on the market is either alum or corrosive sublimate.

Either of these can be bought in quantities for nominal prices.

The indiscriminate use of the latter has ruined the complexions of thousands of unfortunate victims of irresponsible nostrum venders.

Peroxide of hydrogen and sulphur are new agents in the treatment of the complexion.

The value of sulphur used both inwardly and externally has long been known to authorities on the skin.

Peroxide of hydrogen is of more recent introduction. Although known in chemistry for half a century it has only of late years become popular in the hands of the dermatologist.

Brown patches and discolorations of all kinds which will yield to no other treatment can be removed by its use. Many forms of cutaneous trouble that cannot be reached by other agencies yield to this drug, which is also used for bleaching the hair, finger-nails, hands and other parts which are stained or discolored from any cause. It is an antiseptic, and has been used internally for diphtheria, as well as for many other purposes.

The greatest care must be taken in using this drug, so that the eyebrows and hair are not touched, as it will immediately bleach them white.

The desideratum in the way of complexion is a firm, healthily tinted skin, and the frequent use of cold water will do more to secure it than anything else when the cuticle is fairly healthy. The face should be dried first with a rough towel and then gently rubbed with a chamois leather. Warm water is best used when the face is not going to be immediately exposed to outside air, and should be as tepid as possible under such circumstances, because

the hotter it is the more it contracts the pores and prevents healthy action of the skin.

A glycerine or almond soap used in washing will prepare the skin better for exposure outdoors, and a little powdered chalk may be used without detriment.

When returning to the house, in order to remove all traces of perspiration a little borax may be added to the water used for washing in. It does more than this, leaving a soft, white glow to the skin which it acts upon in all ways beneficially.

Care should be taken not to indulge in too frequent ablutions, as the skin is extremely susceptible and is not benefited when healthy by absorbing too much moisture.

Sun baths, with the whole body absolutely exposed to the unrestricted rays, cannot be too highly recommended, the effect being to increase the elasticity of the skin so necessary in preserving the perfect contours. For very oily skins a little ammonia or benzoin dropped in the water will be found beneficial, and alum can be used when necessary to stop temporarily a too profuse perspiration. A prescription which has been advantageously used in such cases is the following: Blanched Jordan almonds, one ounce, blanched bitter almonds, three drams. Put these into a pint of distilled water, form into an emulsion and then strain. To this add fifteen grains of corrosive sublimate, dissolved in another half pint of distilled water. Use the emulsion not more frequently than twice a day—night and morning.

The following will be found a cheap and harmless bleach for the face and neck: To one pint of distilled water put ten grains of powdered corrosive sublimate. When fully dissolved add an ounce of pure glycerine. This may be used two or three times a day.

The following formula for an astringent skin lotion is also recommended by some chemists. To four ounces each of white wine vinegar and rosewater add half an ounce of dried rose leaves. Dilute with distilled water.

Oily skins need an astringent lotion made up as follows: Benzine, four ounces, rosewater, two ounces, and five grains of alum.

Cold cream for tender face and lips may be made as follows:

One ounce of pure white wax melted in four ounces of oil of almonds over a very slow fire, to which add gradually a quarter pint of distilled rosewater, stirring until cold.

Care should be taken to study the character of the skin so that proper treatment may be applied to it.

Every woman can under ordinary circumstances be her own complexion specialist, but the treatment must be appropriate to the case or successful results will not be achieved.

Cocoa buttermilk, which is much used by some ladies, can be made from the following: Powdered borax, 2½ drams; powdered castile soap, 5 drams; cocoanut oil, 2 ounces and 2 drams; distilled water, 2 fl. ounces; rosewater, 26 fl. ounces; oil of bergamot, 10 drops; oil of neroli, 5 drops; oil of wintergreen, 2 drops; oil of ylang-ylang, 1 drop; oil of almonds, 1 drop.

The first four articles should be pounded together in a mortar for ten minutes, then the rosewater be gradually poured on, the mixture well compounded, and perfumes subsequently added.

Compared with the simpler methods used for bleaching the skin in the present day some of the old time formulas appear to be very elaborate. The following was a favorite formula at the Spanish court.

"To a pint of white wine vinegar put a full handful of well-sifted wheat bran, steeping it for several hours, and adding the yolks of five eggs with two grains of ambergris. Distil, and bottle for fourteen days. Use when making the toilet, and a polished whiteness of the complexion will ensue."

For a dry, hard skin, lanoline, which is made from the wool of sheep, is now extensively used in various combinations, commonly known as skin food. Mutton tallow is a fair substitute for lanoline, but not so rich in animal oil. These should be used at retiring, being rubbed gently into the skin until the cuticle is thoroughly impregnated.

To produce a bright and rosy complexion the following formula should be used: Boil one ounce of gum benzoin in spirits of wine until the liquid assumes a deep, rich hue, and then add thereto two parts of white brandy and one of water.

A skin luster which cannot be surpassed is much used in St. Petersburg. The formula is given by a Russian court beauty. It somewhat resembles one previously stated. Take a pint of white wine vinegar and of sifted wheat bran four ounces. Allow the bran to infuse for four hours, then add the yolks of four eggs and two grains of musk. Apply at night, and when the morning bath has been taken the skin will be bright and polished like ivory.

Delicate skins suffer greatly from sunburn and much inconvenience is experienced if proper treatment is not given. In the first place washes of a cooling and evaporative nature should be applied on cloths, which will require constant changing until the heat is all drawn out of the cuticle. Lime juice or lemon juice mixed with either milk or cream should be used

during the night to bring the skin back to its normal condition. The cocoa buttermilk, or even plain buttermilk, will be found beneficial where the burn is not severe.

Another remedy for sunburn which can be used in place of the previously described treatment is as follows: Two drams of borax, one dram Roman alum, one dram camphor, half ounce of sugar candy, one pound of ox gall. Mix and stir these well for ten minutes and repeat the stirring three or four times a day for two weeks. When it becomes clear and transparent, strain through blotting paper and bottle for use.

A much simpler prescription is made from the juice of a lemon combined with half a teaspoonful of borax dissolved in an ounce of distilled water. This may be used frequently and steaming the face is advised in order to prevent the sunburn from becoming permanent.

In order to steam the face, take a basin filled with boiling water and drape a towel over the head so as to prevent the steam from escaping when the face is held over the water.

The steaming should be the first treatment, and if the burn is painful a careful rubbing with good cold cream will relieve it.

Freckles are another source of annoyance to many women.

Buttermilk taken fresh from the churn will sometimes destroy them. It should be spread over the face after the manner of a plaster and allowed to remain on for several hours, if possible. Remove it with warm water and see that the skin is carefully dried. To secure a cure several applications may be necessary.

A famous French prescription for removing freckles is composed of Venice soap, one ounce; lemon juice, half an ounce; oil of bitter almonds, quarter ounce; deliquidated oil of tartar, quarter ounce, and three drops of rhodium oil. Dissolve the soap in the lemon juice and add the two oils. Place in the sun until an ointment results and then add the rhodium. Anoint the face nightly and cleanse in the morning with a mixture of elder flower and rosewater.

Other simple prescriptions for freckles are lemon juice with salt dissolved in it, or a combination of glycerine and benzine, both of which are to be used after washing the face at night before retiring.

An excellent formula for tan or freckles is made as follows: Four ounces lactic acid, two ounces glycerine, one ounce rosewater. Apply several times a day and supplement with a cream made as per formula: Four ounces almond oil, one ounce each white wax and spermaceti. Melt together and gradually add three ounces of rosewater and one ounce witch-hazel. Stir ingredients until an emulsion is made, then allow to cool. Make the applications less frequent if this lotion is too strong for the skin treated.

A simple pomade for the cure of tan is made from equal parts of lemon juice and white of eggs stirred slowly over a slow fire and used night and morning. Washing with rice water will hasten results.

WRINKLES.

The question of wrinkles is a most serious one to all women sooner or later in life. That they can be dealt with satisfactorily by several methods is a matter of self-congratulation to the sex generally.

The primary cause of wrinkles is the relaxation of the muscles of the face and thickening of the epidermis, combined with decrease of cellular tissue.

The replacement of this cellular issue by artificial means and the strengthening of the facial muscles are fundamental points of treatment.

The outer layers of the skin are, in young and healthy persons, being constantly renewed. While the circulation of the blood remains active, tissue is renewed continually, and the skin performs its work, showing no degeneration in either its functions or appearance. When this machinery becomes clogged the opportunity for the deadly wrinkle to appear occurs. There is but one thing to be done by the person who is particular as to a comely appearance, and that is to fight the intruder by every means known to the dermatologist.

The simplest method of doing this is the application of astringent lotions and creams; the most elaborate is electricity. Massage is a middle means, often successfully employed at a stage when the crowsfeet have got beyond the possible help of the astringent. It is more commonly employed than any other system of rejuvenation.

Facial massage cannot be performed so well by one's self as by another person, and a practical masseur at that; however, with patience and the aid of a mirror, much can be done to subdue the wrinkles.

In manipulating the face a firm and gentle touch is necessary, and the tips of the forefinger and thumb only should be used. The motion of the finger tips is always outward and never receding. For instance, when the wrinkles are on the forehead an upward stroke is necessary, because the contraction of the

skin in that direction is needed to offset the expansion which has produced them.

The location of the facial muscles must first be determined, and along their lines in a contrary direction passes must be made for at least half an hour each day.

Massaging around the mouth and eyes is performed by a circular movement. To bring out fullness of the chin and cheeks upward and lateral movements are correct, in the latter case proceeding outward from the nose toward the ears.

It will take long and persistent operations to remove well-established wrinkles, and professional masseurs invariably use skin food and other ingredients in the course of their manipulations.

Before commencing operations the pores of the skin should be thoroughly cleansed and opened, so that the skin food can enter through the orifices and sink into the fatty glands, where it is intended to supplement the failing supply of nature and furnish material to develop new muscle and tissue.

The best skin food is made as follows: Three ounces of lanoline, three ounces sweet almond oil, one ounce of cocoa butter, a dram each of spermaceti and white wax. These should be melted together over a quick fire, in a metal vessel, and pounded into a fine paste, to which forty drops of benzoin tincture and a few drops of essence of jasmin should be added. The latter is intended as perfume. Almond oil can be substituted for the cocoa butter, and any essence will do in place of the jasmin which has an agreeable odor.

It is of little benefit to use this preparation without the massaging process, as merely spreading it on the face will do little or no good.

Where no inclination exists to pursue this elaborate course a simpler method can be tried. If the paste of half an ounce of alum and half an ounce of sweet almonds be added to the whites of five eggs beaten up in rosewater, and the compound spread upon a cloth firmly fixed upon the face every night, for a few weeks, the wrinkles will be considerably diminished.

Another plan pursued is to bind the face up nightly in slices of raw beefsteak or veal, which is supposed to furnish nutriment to the depleted tissue and both to prevent and destroy wrinkles.

A beautiful throat and neck are as essential to the appearance as anything, and wrinkles not infrequently invade this conspicuous section.

In order to do away with wrinkles and scragginess below the chin, the skin food should be rubbed in assiduously; and the muscles of the throat can be strengthened better by balancing a fairly heavy package on the head and walking round the room with it there a dozen times daily than by any other means. The combined treatment will secure a beautiful poise for the head and a throat as graceful as that of a swan.

The effect of the disposition in the production of wrinkles is exceedingly marked. A sunny and volatile temperament is the greatest preventive of them, while a scowling, fretful and discontented nature develops them prematurely. Gum chewing is attributed with being the unwitting cause of their appearance on many faces.

The most thorough and heroic treatment for the destruction of wrinkles is by means of electricity.

This is one of the cures, however, which can scarcely be conducted at home. It requires the most skillful of operators, in order to avoid the risk of disfiguring marks which may last for life. The number of persons practicing this method safely and successfully is probably under a dozen, and American experts have been paid large sums to go to Europe and treat members of the wealthy classes there by the process. The method pursued is to apply the electric current, running from the positive to the negative pole, to the fleshy part of the cheeks, neck or bosom.

The stimulation furnished by the current renews the healthy action of the capillary glands, gives an impetus to the flesh growth, and by this means fills the shrunken folds of skin up with healthy tissue, completely removing the wrinkles.

This treatment is costly but produces, when skillfully given, marvelous restorative results.

A combination process is often resorted to by specialists, which includes electrical treatment, massage, and the use of drugs. One of these methods is as follows:

First a thorough massaging of the face is given, which literally pulls the wrinkles out of their places and puts the face into a healthy glow, very often producing a slight perspiration. The face is then sponged off and a skin food applied by a renewal of the massaging process. When sufficient of this preparation has been absorbed a soft cloth and some distilled water are produced, the surface being gently rubbed until all the exudations forced by the massaging process have been wiped away.

The next step is a vigorous rubbing with a tonic designed to harden the flesh, muscle and skin. The tonic is the last thing in the morning process and prepares the skin to withstand

either winter storm or summer sun. It is an English preparation.

The evening course consists of the application of electricity, followed by washing in distilled or soft water and anointing with a cream composed of cucumber, lettuce and other herbs, added to rosewater and cocoanut oil or butter. This remains on all night, and when it is necessary for the party treated to spend the evening out a make up is added in addition.

This process is taken for a course of three weeks and then discontinued for some time, until the warning signs of nature suggest the necessity of its renewal.

A new method of curing wrinkles which has been introduced in the last few years consists of surgical operations, by means of which they are very positively banished for a considerable time. The method pursued is simple enough. A transverse incision is made across the wrinkles and a piece of skin taken out sufficient to leave the cuticle fitting tightly over the forehead or cheeks where the wrinkles formerly were, after the two edges are sewn together.

Provision is made to insure the healing of the flesh without leaving a scar, and many successful operations have been made.

Wrinkles of the nose or throat are treated by means of incisions made contrariwise to the direction in which they run, the operation being little more painful than other systems.

PIMPLES, BLOTCHES, AND OTHER CUTANEOUS TROUBLES.

Many women suffer untold tortures from disfiguring eruptions on the face, arms, and other parts of the body.

Some of these skin diseases are extremely difficult to handle, and tax the skill of the cleverest specialists. Others will often yield to simple remedies, careful dieting and other hygienic precautions. As a rule they have their origin in some organic disturbance, such as improper condition of the stomach, liver or kidneys, which expresses itself locally through inflammation of the fatty glands, and the skin is thereby affected.

In other cases the cause of the trouble is purely local and no amount of internal physicking will act as a panacea. Such is the case, for instance, in eczema, and several forms of pimples and sores.

Eczema is one of the most general and painful of diseases attacking the face. It is purely a cutaneous trouble, having its origin in a catarrhal condition of the skin. It is of several varieties and manifested by a breaking of the skin, principally on the face, scalp, hands and feet. The fissures are caused by the exudation of albuminous serum, a liquid which is produced by an imperfect development of the blood corpuscle. Intense itching is the first symptom of the disease, and the greatest care should be taken to avoid breaking the skin in scratching. When it does break zinc ointment will heal it more quickly than anything else. The same remedy may be applied with success to blotches and sores of all kinds. A novel treatment is advocated by a prominent physician for the cure of pimples on the face. The application of remedies he believes should be to all parts of the body but the face, thus creating a reaction on that part of the skin where the irritation exists. His method is to sponge the body thoroughly once a week, under the bed clothes, with acetic acid, in a weak and well diluted form. In case of fever the acid only is to be used, but when a chilliness is experienced, the body should be well rubbed with hot olive oil. At other times the skin must be kept clean with hot water and castile soap. The only treatment of the face recommended is to wash it once or twice daily with buttermilk and to restrict the patient to a light, easily digestible diet.

The use of sulphur, both internally and externally, is strongly recommended for most kinds of eruptions. A lotion made as follows can often be used beneficially for pimples. One ounce of sulphur water, quarter ounce acelated liquor of ammonia, one grain liquor of potassia, two ounces white wine vinegar, and two ounces of distilled water. Another good formula for pimples is made of: Lanoline, five grammes; sweet almond oil, five grammes; precipitated sulphur, five grammes; oxide of zinc, two and a half grammes, and extract of violet, half a gramme. Pimples on the nose can be treated with the ointment composed as follows: One ounce of benzoinated lard and one dram of ichthyol. Another formula which is good for either blackheads or pimples is: Oxide of zinc, one dram; resorcin, one dram; starch, one dram; petrolatum (yellow), two and a half drams. This should be applied at bedtime in a thin coating to the affected parts. It can be rubbed off with oil in the morning.

Acne is one of the most conspicuous of eruptive complaints. Its origin is due to stomach, liver and kidney troubles, and medical treatment is essential in connection with it.

A lotion suitable for acne pimples has been given, but the anointing should be preceded by steaming the face first for from fifteen to thirty minutes with simple steam and then with sulphur added to the water, which will

remove all the disease germs clotting up the pores.

The following are prescribed for chronic eczema: Salicylic acid, 5 grains; ichthyol, 10 grains; glycerine, 10 grains; spir. menth. pip, 20 grains; spirit lavender, 20 grains; rect. spirit wine, 60. This liquid should be applied with a brush several times daily.

If the disease has assumed an acute form: Bismuth oxid dr.j., ac. oleic oz.j., cera albe dr.iij., vaseline dr.ix., ol. rose m. ij.

For a dusting powder use: Pr. amyli oz.j., pr. zinci oxidi. dr.ij., pr. camphor dr.ss. Also try the use of pine tar soap in washing the affected parts.

Alkaline baths are also strongly recommended for these and nearly all other eruptive disorders of the skin.

Rosacea, a kind of yellow pustular formation with a deep red base occurring on the nose, cheeks and forehead, is another common form of eruption due to stomach trouble and coming within the scope of the physician's treatment.

Warts are a common cause of disfigurement to the female face. They are removed generally either with the lunar caustic pencil or by the electric needle. The following prescription can be applied night and morning: Salicylic acid, 1 part, lactic acid, 1 part, flexible collodion, 4 parts.

Chloasma or liver spot is a yellow discoloration frequently appearing upon the face. It needs internal treatment, for which the following old time liver remedy may prove useful: Pulv. gentian, 1 dram.; pulv. Columbo, 1 dram; pulv. quassia, 1 dram; pulv. dandelion, 1 dram; spts. trumento, half a pint.

For local treatment rub with flour of sulphur several times a day or wash with a lotion composed of one ounce sulphur water, quarter ounce lemon juice, and one dram cinnamon.

Acne Rosacea is a similar trouble to simple Rosacea, except that it is spread beyond the nose, often resulting in a fiery red discoloration of the nasal organs and contiguous parts.

Dieting and abstention from condiments or stimulants is absolutely essential to cure. Local treatment will be of little or no service until the blood is brought into proper condition.

Flesh worms are an annoying and irritating infliction. To remove them soak the face thoroughly with soft water and apply a lotion composed of four ounces of white brandy, two ounces of cologne and one ounce of liquor of potassia. Use a coarse towel for rubbing the face and the worms will soon yield to this treatment.

BEAUTIFUL TEETH, HANDS AND FEET.

TEETH.

The preservation of the teeth is a question of leading importance when the appearance is considered, not to mention it as a factor in the general health proposition.

A set of shining white teeth, set between rosy lips, are almost as attractive as a beaming smile or a flashing eye.

Cleanliness, absolute and unremitting, is the first essential in preserving the pearl-like purity of these natural gems.

When once in good condition a steady brushing of the teeth night and morning, and, when possible, after each meal, will keep them in proper order. Cold water is safer and better to use than the majority of dentifrices on the market. Where one is preferred, however, precipitated chalk may be used. To this can be added some ground orris root and a few drops of oil of rose.

The teeth should be cleaned underneath as well as outside, because secretions are apt to form there more than elsewhere. Two or three drops of myrrh in a half tumbler of cold water makes a pleasant wash, and the teeth should be brushed perpendicularly. Charcoal and cream of tartar are also used for tooth powder.

An excellent plan to prevent sensitiveness of the gums and to whiten the teeth is to paint them with milk of magnesia each night before retiring.

The acid deposits are what ruin the foundations of the teeth. To avoid permanent discoloration and decay it is well to visit a good dental establishment once or twice a year and have the teeth properly cleaned. The greatest danger to the teeth comes from the lodgment of small particles of food in the interstices. These should be carefully removed with a wooden toothpick after each meal, as when allowed to remain they form acid deposits which eat into the gums and subsequently penetrate the teeth.

Tartar deposits should be closely watched, as they are the cause of destruction to the teeth unless removed promptly.

Discolored teeth may often be cleaned without danger to the enamel by brushing them well with lemon juice.

Borax is also used with great satisfaction to cleanse the teeth and harden the gums, in fact it is an invaluable toilet adjunct for more than one purpose. Brandy may also be used safely for cleaning the teeth, as it destroys the animalculæ which serve as parasites to them. The acid of strawberries and oranges will remove

stains from the teeth without producing detrimental results.

Areca nut charcoal is favorably considered by dentists as a dentifrice, as it is an excellent antiseptic.

For painless extraction of teeth the following lotion should be used. It can be applied on cotton, pressed to each side of the tooth: Oil of wintergreen, 2 drams; chloroform, 1 dram; sulphuric ether, 1 dram; chloral hydrate, 2 drams; oil of cloves, 4 drams; alcohol, 12 drams.

THE HANDS.

The hands are generally an indication of the degree of refinement of the individual. We cannot all have long tapering fingers, but with due care and cleanliness the hands even of a person who is compelled to do moderately rough work with them may look well.

Here is a set of rules which carefully followed will preserve the hands even when rough housework has to be done by their owner.

In washing dishes never plunge the hands into very warm water. Use a mop, as far as possible, and wear rubber gloves; when handling a broom or doing other rough work wear housemaids' gloves with wadded palms. Clean off any stains that appear on the hands as promptly as possible. A piece of lemon is far superior to pumice stone for this purpose.

Do not wash the hands any oftener than necessary and always dry them thoroughly. Use oatmeal in place of soap, or good oatmeal soap. Before retiring wash the hands in moderately warm water with oatmeal. When dry rub into them some of the cocoa buttermilk cream according to prescription given or any equally good cream. Then put on loose kid gloves and wear them all night.

Oatmeal is an invaluable article for the hands. It should be kept in a convenient receptacle on the washstand, and as often as the hands are washed some of it should be rubbed on, allowed to remain a few minutes and then rinsed away. Afterward an emollient cream may be used compounded as follows: White wax, spermaceti and powdered camphor, five cents' worth each, olive oil sufficient to bring these ingredients to the thickness of soap. They can be melted and mixed in an ordinary pot on the stove and will make a good ointment for the hands.

Another recipe is: One wineglassful each of eau-de-cologne and lemon juice; two cakes of brown windsor soap scraped fine and powdered. Mix well and remold into soap cakes for whitening the hands.

For rough hands the following recipe can be used: Three ounces white vinegar, three ounces lemon juice, and half a pint of white brandy. This will heal either rough or chapped hands. Glycerine slightly flavored with rosewater is a good emollient to use for the hands at night after washing in soft warm water.

The nails are a subject of particular interest in the economy of the hand, and can be made either a disfigurement or an ornament according to the attention given them. A soft nail brush is essential and should be used with soap each time the hands are cleansed.

Twice a day the skin around the nails should be pressed back by means of the bone stick furnished in each manicure set. This skin should never be cut, as it will not grow long if not developed by paring. Before attempting to trim the nails the points of the fingers should be steeped in water. Having been cut to a point level with the ends of the fingers the nails will require filing only every morning to keep them the desired length and to make them strong. Putty powder is generally used to polish the nails, being accompanied by a vigorous rubbing with a chamois leather pad fixed on a handle. If necessary to whiten the nails first cleanse them thoroughly with castile soap and then dip in a solution made as follows: Diluted sulphuric acid, two drams; tincture of myrrh, one dram, and four ounces of spring water, well mixed.

Whitlows and hangnails may be greatly benefited by frequent bathing in warm water. Soap poultices will be found very soothing and helpful, zinc ointment being used afterward to heal completely. The latter can be put on at night under the sleeping gloves.

Hair on the hands can be destroyed by the use of spirit of sulphur. If this be put on to the affected parts with a small camel's hair brush and allowed to remain for a few minutes the hair will come off, and after a dozen or more applications will cease to grow at all. Another remedy is to rub dulcified spirits of salt on the part where the hair grows with a linen cloth. This is not so prompt as the spirit of sulphur, as the hair will not drop off for a week; in the case of the former it disappears immediately and painlessly.

Felons are often a source of great annoyance and should be taken in hand very promptly. When the felon first appears cut off the end of a lemon and thrust the finger into it; keeping it there as long as possible.

THE FEET.

Something approaching to the care bestowed upon the feet in ancient times is noticeable among society people to day. Pedicure estab-

lishments have increased rapidly and ladies of means visit them as regularly as they do the manicures. With the use of the sandal we should doubtless attain again to that general beauty and symmetry of the foot common in Greece during the classical age.

Bathing the feet is, of course, as necessary as bathing the hands and face. The same care should be used about the accessories; on no occasion allowing a common alkali soap to enter the foot bath. The skin on the feet is more delicate than that of the hands and needs proportionately more tender care, as it callouses much more readily. A little ammonia in the foot-bath is desirable, and palm oil soap is strongly recommended. The ointment prescribed for the hands may be used with equal benefit on the feet, and the same attention should be paid to the nails as to those on the former.

Tender feet are the cause of much discomfort, and so long as people persist in not going barefoot or wearing sandals this dis-ease will probably exist.

A good powder for softening the feet, and at the same time rendering the flesh firm, is composed of salicylic acid, soap, talc and starch, which has the additional virtue of removing the odor due to perspiration.

For the latter purpose, and where the offensiveness is very pronounced, the powder made as follows may be used by dusting it on the feet each morning:

Three ounces boracic acid, four ounces oxide of zinc, three ounces salicylic acid, and ten grains carbolic acid.

Abrasions of the feet or hands may be healed with the following salve, which is also good for chilblains and chapped parts: Boric acid, 2 parts; vaseline, 30 parts; glycerine, 3 parts. Perfume as desired. Other remedies for tender feet are to bathe them in tepid water with a handful of bran added, also a small quantity of borax.

Unpleasantness arising from over perspiration may also be remedied by thoroughly washing each night and morning and cleansing with soap. When thoroughly clean place them in fresh water to which a teaspoonful of chloride of lime or two teaspoonfuls of salts of ammonia have been added.

Ingrowing nails are generally met with more frequently on the feet than on the hands. The easiest way to relieve is by painting the abnormal growth with a forty per cent solution of warmed caustic potash, which will soften the nail so that it can be easily scraped away.

Corns are another of the nuisances of civilization. They are treated in numerous different ways. Burning them out with lunar caustic or nitrate of silver are common methods employed. A fresh piece of lemon tied on to the corn daily is said to so eat into its roots that in a short time the corn will come away. Another method is to place the feet for half an hour, two or three nights in succession, in a strong solution of common soda. The alkali dissolves the corn, which ultimately drops out, leaving a cavity into which the natural flesh quickly grows.

Tincture of iodine or aromatic vinegar applied with a wooden toothpick to the corn each night will loosen the corn so that after a few days, when bathed in hot water, it will loosen and come away. To remove effectually, the remaining scales should be treated with the vinegar or tincture until the last vestige has disappeared.

Soft corns are even more troublesome than hard ones. Soap cerate spread on a small piece of rag and placed between the toes will usually give relief. The dressing must be continued daily. Ivy leaves are said to be very efficacious for the same purpose, and the aromatic vinegar or tincture of iodine will also kill the soft corn. Another corn cure is: Half an ounce of collodium, half a dram borate of sodium, and half a scruple extract of cannabis.

For bunions make a lotion of one dram each of glycerine, tincture iodine and carbolic acid.

THE HAIR.

ITS PROPER TREATMENT—RULES FOR BLEACHING AND DYEING IT.

A beautiful head of hair is justly regarded as a crowning adornment by woman. How seldom is this ornament, however, retained as long as might be possible in all its beauty? Even before middle age is reached most persons have seen with regret the premature decay and loss of their hair, due, unfortunately, in nine cases out of ten, to ignorance of the manner of treatment necessary to preserve it.

The proper care of the hair rightly commences with its growth in infancy, because, if due attention be given it then, many of the diseases which prey upon the scalp and undermine the follicle will be given no opportunity to gain a footing. The indiscriminate use of oils and pomades on the child's head is always to be condemned. They only serve to block up the pores and interfere with the growth of the hair. The brushes and combs used on young heads should be soft and free from roughness, and when the hair is tangled a few minutes'

bathing in warm water, to which spirits of ammonia has been added, will quickly straighten it out.

In the early stages of its development the hair needs great attention, and the scalp should be bathed almost daily with an infusion of Murillo bark. It should always be most thoroughly dried after cleansing. After this a gentle but firm brushing will be necessary. The brushing should always be in the direction of the hair growth, and never be done roughly. The oily matter in the hair will not then be forced out too quickly, and there will be no need for artificial oils or greases. When this secretion, however, is insufficient to render the hair flexible, soft and glossy, the following formula should be used: Four ounces cologne water, one ounce glycerine, one-eighth ounce of ammonia water, thirty drops oil of origanum. Clip the ends of the hair every two or three weeks.

A shampoo should be given every two weeks when the child is advanced a little more in years. It may be made of two quarts of warm water with a half dram of borax and two drams of water of ammonia added. Tight braiding of the hair is very detrimental to it, and will result in ultimate loss of strength and glossiness.

In all cases it is best to avoid using the public hairdresser, either for children or adults. Nine-tenths of the bald heads are caused by scalp diseases, the seeds of which are sown broadcast by the hairdressers' brushes, which are transferred indiscriminately from head to head. When the brush is formed of hard bristles, a slight puncture is easily made in the scalp, and then the parasitical germs are dropped in to take root and bear abundant fruit for decay.

Constant brushing will do more to improve the condition and appearance of the hair than any wash ever invented. The morning is the best time for this to be done, as the hair is then more supple. Not more than twenty minutes should be occupied in the process, and the brushing should not extend beyond the hair. The scalp *should be washed only*, and at least once a week. White soap dissolved in spirits of wine should be used in this operation, the head afterward being rinsed in tepid water. To prevent bleaching of the hair from too much washing, it may subsequently be rinsed in water to which two teaspoonfuls of common salt have been added. Careful dressers frequently use a sponge for the hair when rinsing it, and invariably dry it carefully with a cloth after each operation.

The number of diseases to which the scalp is subject, and all of which have a serious result on the hair, is legion.

Dandruff is one of the most common causes of the loss of hair. There are many remedies advocated for its cure, but none seem to be so efficacious as common flour of sulphur dissolved in water, with which the head should be saturated night and morning. The advantage of this remedy seems to be that it does not impair the hair as certain other compounds do. Castor oil and alcohol or carbonate of potasse and borax have both been considered specifics for dandruff.

A remedy for falling hair when not traceable to any direct cause is to soak the scalp before going to bed with one part of crude white birch oil and five parts of alcohol. The treatment must sometimes be continued for a couple of months, during which time the hair should be kept cut short and the head left uncovered as much as possible.

Another method is to shampoo the scalp with green soap and tepid water several times a week, after which a lotion should be well rubbed in, which is composed as follows: Four ounces bay rum, half ounce glycerine, two drams spirit of rosemary, and one dram tincture of cantharides. Another hair grower is made of: Cologne water, three ounces; glycerine, one ounce; tincture of cantharides, one ounce; camphor water, three ounces; rosemary oil, one dram. Apply morning and night. Also four ounces of boxwood shavings steeped in eight ounces of proof spirit at a temperature of sixty degrees for twelve days. Strain and add half an ounce each of rosemary and spirit of nutmegs.

Loss of hair may often be traced to scurf in the scalp. For this take a quarter pint of lemon juice, dissolve therein two drams of salt of tartar, and add fifteen drops each of tincture of cantharides and spirits of camphor. Keep this tightly corked.

The whites of eggs beaten up thoroughly and applied to the scalp will render the hair rich and glossy if the hair is afterward cleansed with bay rum.

Clipping the ends of the hair occasionally, and always when it is broken, will be found conducive to its development. The brushes and combs should always be kept clean.

An excellent plan for keeping black hair from turning gray is to take small doses of iron periodically. It is said that this prevents the hair from ever losing its original color.

Another method of preventing the hair from turning gray or restoring it to its pristine color is to take half a tumbler of strong tea and apply it to the hair with maiden-hair fern, as if the latter were a sponge. A little liquorice

may be advantageously added to the tea. The tea and fern combined are certain restorers of the coloring matter. The roots of the hair should be thoroughly rubbed every day for two months with this decoction, when the good results will begin to be visible, if not sooner.

Black hair can be readily changed to a golden hue by the use of peroxide of hydrogen. The hue changes gradually, passing through the various shades of brown until the golden tint is reached. Red or auburn hair can be produced by the use of henna.

An infallible method of coloring the hair either black or brown can be found in the following formula: Two ounces of tincture of sesqui-chloride of iron, two ounces of acetic acid, and five grains of acid of gall. Add the acetic acid to the others after the gall has been dissolved in tincture of iron, and apply after thoroughly washing the head.

To apply this dip the points of a fine tooth comb into the fluid and draw the comb slowly through the hair, from the roots downward, until the hair is thoroughly saturated. If the dressing be applied while the hair is moist the hair will change to black, but if not put on until thoroughly dry it will assume a brown shade. After applying, the hair can be oiled, brushed and dressed at once.

With reference to superfluous hair, an excellent specific has been given in the section on hands. The undesirable growth on the face has baffled physicians and dermatologists for years, and most modern works on this subject contain descriptions of more or less barbarous methods for removing it. Many recommend the use of the tweezers, entailing the removal of each hair individually. But the tweezer is not infallible, as a recurring growth generally shows. Plasters made of galbanum and pitch spread upon leather and laid upon the hair growth are also used. They are said to bring away the hair, and generally the roots, if laid on carefully, and allowed to remain for several minutes. They should be drawn off slowly.

The electrolytic needle is probably the most popular means of removing superfluous hairs. If used properly it undoubtedly destroys the individual hair follicle treated, but it is said that a weaker and thicker growth of hair appears on the same surface as the operations have covered.

The spirit of sulphur, as prescribed for the superfluous hair on the hands, will be found the simplest, most convenient, and efficacious of all known remedies. It is a new discovery, and is being extensively advertised as a specific at exorbitant prices. The real cost is trivial.

For curling the hair take two ounces of borax, one dram gum arabic, one quart of hot water, not boiling. When the ingredients are amalgamated add three tablespoonfuls of strong spirits of camphor. Wet the hair with this wash at night and do it up in curling paper.

THE EYES, EYEBROWS, AND EYELASHES.

One of the best methods of strengthening and brightening the eyes is to indulge freely in the use of the cold water douche for them. This will render them bright and sparkling unless some serious defect exists. Plenty of sleep in a pure atmosphere, and as much as possible before midnight, will enhance their brightness. Care should be taken to avoid reflections of the sunlight from water, which often produces lasting trouble to the eyes. Sudden awakening in a glare of sunlight is as dangerous as to have the moonlight playing on one's eyes while asleep.

The glare of the ballroom and the effect of long periods spent under the study lamp are bound to impair the natural brilliance of the eyes.

As a soothing and restorative agent when the eyes are overtired, there is nothing to excel a gentle bathing with opodeldock. Witch hazel is sometimes substituted for this, but is not so efficacious.

The following is recommended as an eyelash or eyebrow developer: Two ounces of vaseline, one ounce of glycerine, quarter ounce of cantharides, and ten drops each of rosemary and lavender water. The eyes must not be touched with this lotion.

The eyebrows can be dyed by any of the formulas given for the hair.

The custom of clipping the eyelashes is believed to be conducive to their beauty, as it has been followed in the Orient for ages with well-known results.

The languid expression of the eyes affected by some can be produced by rubbing a small quantity of bella donna ointment on the brow over each eye. Darkness or discoloration around the eyes can be hidden by a small application of French chalk, supplemented by rouge. Artificial brightness of the eyes is produced by placing one drop of diluted prussic acid in the bottom of an eye cup and holding it against the eye for a few seconds while the vapor effects it.

MEDICAL TREATMENT FOR SKIN DISEASES.

It must be steadily borne in mind that many of the imperfections of the skin are due to de-

rangements of the internal organs, and will entirely disappear when proper medical attention has been given to such diseases.

There are other conditions under which the skin affection may be partially due to such internal troubles; while there are yet others which are entirely of a local nature, and where medicine would naturally be superfluous.

Eczema, many forms of pimples, sallowness, paleness, redness of the face, boils, and many less common forms of skin disorder, frequently come from dyspepsia.

In these cases the dyspepsia must be cured before any permanent results can be received from external treatment.

Biliousness causes many of the same outward symptoms.

Many more skin affections are the direct result of liver and kidney troubles, while yet others are due to an impoverished condition of the blood.

Sometimes in females they are due to conditions peculiar to certain ages of women.

A disordered liver is apt to be responsible for yellow and muddy skin, one particular form of which is chloasma or liver spot, which is a very great disfigurement to the face, especially in the case of a blonde complexion. It is caused by an irregular distribution of the coloring matter in the skin. Blotchy faces are very often due, especially in the case of middle aged persons, to liver disorder.

Defective action of the kidneys will frequently produce roughness of the skin, pallor and blackheads.

Acne, on the other hand, is often the result of impoverished blood, due either to non-assimilation of healthy food, or too rapid growth or overwork.

Again, certain forms of pimples, more especially the white ones, flesh-worms, blackheads, freckles, tan, and even boils, may be due to no internal disturbance whatever.

If the soreness be due to lack of action of the sebaceous glands, or to oversusceptibility of the cuticle, it may develop into permanent disfigurement from exposure to sun, wind, dust or bacterial germs.

There are many simple remedies which can be used when the correct diagnosis has been made of a case. To do this usually calls for the interference of a physician.

A good general rule, however, is to keep the bowels well open, that being the first essential to health and beauty, and the blood as pure as possible.

The household scrap-book generally contains a good many of these simple remedies, but so many new substances are being continually added to the materia medica that a first-class physician should be consulted when practicable, for obvious reasons. The same local conditions in persons of different habits and temperament would vary the efficacy of any general treatment prescribed.

Many persons are cured of constipation, after having exhausted the skill of the best physicians, by simply drinking a glass of hot water in the morning upon arising. Others have found the same results from taking the hot water before retiring.

In the latter case, relief from insomnia has often been experienced from drinking the hot water, sometimes accompanied by a warm foot bath.

A good laxative for temporary constipation is fluid extract of cascara sagrada, twenty or thirty drops of which can be taken in water, morning and evening.

The constipation may be, and generally is, accompanied by biliousness, in which case a lemon squeezed into the water without sugar added will prove beneficial, gently warding off the nausea until the fecal matter has been dissolved by the hot fluid, and peristaltic action has set in.

Fullness after eating, and flushing of the face, are due to indigestion, which may be caused by improper diet or weakness of the organs acting upon the digestive tract.

For this trouble, in its immediate shape, pepsin is usually prescribed, and it may be taken to advantage, sometimes with the following admixture: Powdered pepsin, 140 grains; pancreatin, 124 grains; dried papaw juice, 15 grains; concentrated lactic acid, 15 minims; hydrochloric acid, 15 minims; sugar of milk, 14 drams.

The minor liver troubles, due to insufficient action of that organ, are known frequently as biliousness. The delayed bile in the stomach enters into the blood and results in making it impure. This condition produces blotches and pimply spots on the skin, or yellowness.

In this case the cup of hot water in the morning should also contain half a teaspoonful of phosphate of soda.

When the condition is serious the diet must be at once arranged to meet the capacity of the liver until it has been restored to healthy action. Greasy foods, salt meats, tinned or shellfish, and very sour foods, must be avoided, as they either clog or irritate the organ. Cereals, fruit, eggs, underdone and rare meats, broiled fresh fish, vegetables, and coffee or tea, in moderation, should be taken, without beer or other stimulants.

Medicine will also be needed, and the follow-

ing prescription might afford considerable assistance: Compound extract of colocynth, 12 centigrams; blue mass, 12 centigrams; extract of belladonna, 15 milligrams; aloin, 7 milligrams; sulphate of strychnine, 1 milligram. This should be taken for several nights in succession, in the form of pills, and every second or third night a five-grain blue pill must be also taken. At the time the medicine is used there should be no attempt to use any local treatment other than keeping the pores of the skin well open by steaming or friction.

The medical treatment may be continued every two or three weeks, and local remedies applied as prescribed elsewhere for the particular form of skin trouble indicated.

In the treatment of boils springing from less serious trouble of the stomach and blood, a good dose of Rochelle salts should be taken every morning and a one-fifth grain pill of sulphide of calcium every five hours.

Boils are seldom cut or poulticed nowadays. Boric acid, in alcohol, is used for a dressing. It can be applied with a camel's hair brush.

In cases of acne, which are generally the result of poor blood, a more liberal diet is prescribed and good meats with nutritious foods advised. Milk, claret, and sometimes porter, are advocated to add strength to the system.

If the appetite is poor a good appetizer may be found, early in the morning, in a cup of strong beef tea. Sometimes a raw egg in vinegar, with salt and pepper added, will prove efficacious, or a fruit juice or juice of lemon may be substituted for the vinegar.

Iron should be taken, in some form, to change the chemical constituents of the blood, and the following old time prescription makes an excellent tonic: one-half pint of spirits frumenti; three-fourths oz. tinct. cardamom comp.; one and one-half drams tinct. nux vomica, one-half dram each pulv. gentian, pulv. columbo, pulv. quassia, cinchona red, carb. iron. One tablespoonful is a dose, and should be taken before meals.

Temporary irritations of the skin, such as itchiness, nettle rash, or hives, can be best overcome by strict attention to diet. They usually result from overheating of the blood by indiscreet feeding or drinking, or else an injudicious mixture, which causes annoyance to the intestines. Certain articles, such as shell-fish, cucumbers, or berries, when first in season, will occasion these troubles continually with some individuals. In other cases the effect will be only experienced once, when the blood is in a condition to be easily irritated. Seidletz powders, lemonade, sprudel salts, or some mild laxative can be used to cool the blood and relieve the stomach. When the irritation of the skin is intolerable, ease locally by applying carbonate of soda in warm water to the skin, letting it dry in and afterward dusting with talcum powder. A simple diet of cooked vegetables or white bread and milk are often resorted to in severe cases of hives, to afford a speedy cure.

With plenty of sleep, freedom from annoyance or worry, moderate exercise, healthy air and plenty of mental occupation, such as interesting reading, or quiet diversions, added to this regimen, very serious annoyances may be combated and removed.

The essential point to remember is the relationship existing between health and beauty, both of which require care and vigilance to preserve them at their best.

REHABILITATION AND SUBSTITUTIONAL EFFECTS.

The misshapen mouth, the bridgeless nose, the hare-lip, and many other freaks of nature which it was formerly considered necessary to bear as a heaven-sent burden through life, are now remediable.

Surgery has taken cognizance of these irregularities of feature and successfully coped with them.

The records of some of our leading hospitals during the past few years bear testimony to the fortunate outcome of hundreds of operations designed solely to overcome these unsightly imperfections.

Faces have practically been reconstructed, involving changes in all the principal organs, such as the ears, eyes, mouth, nose and lips. Even the double chin has been relieved of its fleshy incumbrance.

The oversized mouth is corrected by slitting the edges of the lip at each side of the mouth, removing a small piece of the red skin at each end, drawing the flesh together and sewing up at the point desired. A reverse operation enlarges the mouth.

Ears which appear to have been too hastily or clumsily set on by nature are brought to a comely condition by removing some of the bulging growth of cartilage at the point where the ears join the head. A pug nose is transferred into a Roman or Grecian, and a squinting eye corrected with more ease than formerly attended the drawing of a tooth.

The parts are sprayed with cocaine while the operation is performed, so that little pain is felt by the patient, and the result amply repays the inconvenience and expense.

Dressing for defects is an art which many

women understand, but all do not. It is thoroughly understood by the modiste or costumier.

There are many unwritten laws connected with it, which are so obvious as to almost suggest themselves.

Narrow shoulders and long necks, for instance, call for high collars, puffed sleeves and epaulets. The costume for a person of this build should have a plaited waist with plaits running obliquely from the shoulder points to the widest part of the bust and back, thus counteracting the effect of the figure.

On the contrary, persons with ample waists should have their dresses made as plainly as possible at the shoulders, with plaits running to a point at the back of waist and stomacher effect. The folds of a dress can be bunched in front to hide a lack of development in the bust, and the figure lacking development across the hips can be helped by puffing the skirt behind. When this portion of the body is narrow the skirt should taper down to a small circumference at the bottom.

Tall women require ample skirts and flounces, and stout women close fitting garments.

Sallow complexions can be offset by bright colors, while, as a rule, light complexions are enhanced by light, and dark ones by dark clothing.

These few hints are sufficient to suggest many others to the thoughtful dresser.

THE FIGURE.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE BUST—HOW TO AVOID FLESHINESS AND ATTAIN A SYMMETRICAL FIGURE.

"Were I a woman," said a man once—naturally he was a sculptor—"I would prefer at any time to have an exquisite form rather than a beautiful face."

The graceful undulations of the perfect figure are indeed "a thing of beauty and a joy forever."

The nearest to the ideal form that we know of as a universal model is that of the Venus of Cnidus, executed in white marble by Praxiteles.

From the description of this we learn that "the limbs and breasts were fully developed, the mammæ, while not too full, rising from the bosom in graceful curves to the apices. The waist tapered gently to its smallest circumference just above the middle of the body, the lower part swelling out gradually down to the umbilicus. From this point there was a steady expansion to the haunches, the greatest width being reached at the termination of the thighs. The fullness of this region was conspicuous on either side of the spine, descending from the waist line to the swell of the clearly separated hips, on each side of which was a clearly defined dimple. In front the abdomen swelled out gracefully, until its greatest expansion was reached at the umbilicus, from which it sloped gracefully downward, the muscular parts extending from the pelvis standing out distinctly on either side, and the thighs rising upward to the same level.

"The head was rather small and covered with short luxuriant curls. The eyes were gentle and lighted with happiness. The eyebrows were arched and the lower eyelid slightly raised to lend a languishing expression to the face. The nose sloped straight and gracefully from the forehead to an agreeable fullness. The lips were slightly opened at the center, indicative of expectancy, but very slightly developed through a considerable portion of their length, except toward the center. This lent an effect of sweetness and delicacy to the face, which was not marred by any sinister angles at their extremities."

It should be some satisfaction to the modern woman to know that the work of Praxiteles was idealized, for in no one woman yet was found all the charms combined in the famous statue. The best that can be expected is to possess a fair share of them. In this age of corsets and other absurd fashions the woman who can approximate to anything lovely in figure is a paragon. Better figures, in fact, are found among savage tribes than fall as a rule to the women of civilization.

Perhaps the trouble is largely due to the clothing worn. It is so easy to hide defects that women do not take pains to eradicate them, but simply cover them up. At least that would be the impression gained from a summer sojourn at Narragansett or Bar Harbor.

The first question of vital importance in either developing or maintaining approximate perfection of figure is exercise. Nothing will take the place of the daily constitutional, not even the bicycle. In regard to other forms of exercise, the question has been already treated in these papers. Gymnastic exercises are among the most valuable developers of a perfect figure. Where the taste or habits make such exercise distasteful massage will be found a valuable substitute.

Such outdoor games as tennis also serve to strengthen and upbuild certain parts of the muscular system, while rowing is another excellent form of exercise to practice.

Many women suffer from a tendency to fleshiness, and watch with sad misgivings their gradually disappearing contours.

For these there is immediate refuge in exercise, while diet will materially aid them. The kind of exercise will necessarily have to be different and more rigorous than what has been customary, while the diet must be rigidly adhered to. The training to which athletes submit in order to bring their weight within prescribed limits proves conclusively that fleshiness can be counteracted by system without resorting to medicine. Nevertheless, certain kinds of mineral waters have been proven to be valuable as flesh reducers, and they are preferable to any other form of physic. Overindulgence in sleep is conducive to fatness, and an easy pleasant life generally often brings with it a full habit as a necessary penalty.

The hard, active, tireless worker seldom suffers from obesity, unless some constitutional cause is at the root of the matter, thus proving it to be a disease.

The diet necessary is an avoidance of all starchy and saccharine foods, also alcoholic fluids and milk. Among the articles to be specially avoided are: Ale, cocoa, potatoes, beans, peas, oatmeal, succotash, soup, cheese, butter, pastry and confections, and strong condiments.

Those permissible are: Underdone meats in moderation, tea, coffee, light, sour wines, fowl, and lightly broiled meats, cabbage, lettuce, cucumber, spinach, pumpkin, apples, grapes, peaches, cherries, gooseberries, raspberries, strawberries, currants, plums, oranges and lemons, eggs, oysters and clams.

Two cups of hot water should be taken night and morning. Oxygen being the enemy of fat or carbon, outdoor exercise is indispensable. It is best taken before breakfast, as it induces early rising, and the lungs are freer and capable of longer inhalations before food is put upon the stomach. The best system to pursue can easily be decided by the patient, and can only result satisfactorily if these general rules be observed.

Angularity of form and feature is another form of departure from the desired medium. Although leanness or scragginess cannot be so easily overcome as its antithesis it can often be greatly ameliorated.

Women who lead lonely, sedentary lives, and bury their whole existence in household cares, are apt to grow scrawny and peaked looking in the face. Unfortunately many have not the disposition to be cheerful and make the best of circumstances. That is the keynote to many a long life and nicely rounded contour.

Fretful, pining natures never go with a well rounded bust and a rotund face. Let the angular figured woman try to cultivate cheeriness and hopefulness, think less of the thousand and one annoyances which she has to bear, and devote a few hours a day (whether the work is done or not) to some kind of amusement or diversion that is a pleasure to her. Then reverse the diet from that quoted for her expanding sister and increase her hours of ease and rest as much as she possibly can. If she does not become a Venus of Cnidus in a short time a marked improvement will be noticeable and life will begin to take on that charm which it should possess for all rational creatures.

Many women suffer from imperfect bust development due to various causes. Mechanical appliances for the purpose of obviating this are of no value, but electricity, massage, with good skin food and vocal culture, will work wonders for women who will persevere in developing that most conspicuous of the sex's charms.

The value of the Russian bath in cases of extreme development of adipose tissue must not be omitted mention of. It is a valuable auxiliary to the exercise and dieting prescribed.

MISCELLANEOUS RECIPES AND TOILET HINTS.

ARSENIC.

The use of arsenic for the complexion is productive of boils and carbuncles. To persons with delicate skin and fair complexion it causes desquamation of the skin on the parts of the body covered by clothing. It is generally detrimental to the health, although it lightens the pigment on the face and hands.

BROMIDES.

Acne and other pustular eruptions and detrimental results to the hair have been traced to the continued use of bromides.

DRESS PROTECTORS.

Blotting paper encased in gauze is an excellent and harmless substitute for the oil skin or gutta percha article. The latter stop the healthy action of the sebaceous glands and the blotting paper absorbs the perspiration, leaving the pores free to perform their proper functions.

OTTAR OF ROSES.

Although one of the most expensive perfumes, and generally considered a luxury beyond reach of the many, this exquisite article can be cheaply produced by a person possessing an abundance of rose trees. The following plan must be pursued: Take rose leaves sufficient to fill a two-gallon jar when pressed

tightly down and let them be fresh when placed in the jar. Secure a flat two-ounce vial to take the place of a stopper. It must close the jar up tightly and should be filled with strips of sponge steeped in pure odorless olive oil. Set the vial be placed with the mouth downward and the jar be stood in the sun for at least a week. More rose leaves should be added as space is available in the jar. The rose leaves will be distilled by the sun while the aroma rising into the sponge will be absorbed by the oil. A little vial of the genuine ottar of roses will be the result. As it is a spirit the bottle must be tightly corked.

TO DISTILL PERFUMES.

Take any flowers desired and stratify with common sea salt in a clean glazed earthen pot. Fill quite up, cover well, and place the pot in a dark cellar. Forty days afterward place some gauze over a pan and strain the juice out of the flowers over it by pressure. Bottle the essence and expose for several weeks in the sun and dew of the evening to purify. One drop of the essence will scent a quart of water.

THE POT-POURRI JAR.

First gather your rose leaves early in the morning and leave them in a cool airy place until the dew has evaporated. Next place them in a large glass jar, sprinkling salt over half inch layers of the leaves. Continue adding to the contents of the jar until it is filled. For ten days, then, let them stand, stirring the whole thoroughly every day. Take one ounce each of cloves and allspice, coarsely ground, and the same quantity of stick cinnamon, finely shredded. Transfer to another jar and scatter the spices, well mixed together in layers, between the leaves. Cover the jar tightly and let it stand in a dark place for three or four weeks. Then the pourri is ready for its permanent jar, which must have a double cover.

Now take a quarter ounce of mace and half an ounce each of allspice and cloves, all coarsely ground or pounded in a mortar, half of a grated nutmeg, half an ounce of cinnamon, broken in bits, one ounce of powdered orris root and quarter of a pound of dried lavender flowers. Mix all these together in a bowl and as the stock is transferred to the permanent jar place the spice mixture between it in layers. As the jar is filled scatter on the successive layers a few drops each of the essential oils of rose, geranium, bitter almond, and orange flower. Then pour over all an ounce of the favorite toilet water or cologne. You will have sufficient to fill a two-quart jar and the contents will keep for years. From time to time add various sweet things, such as a tuberose, a bunch of violets or a spray of heliotrope. Open the jar for half an hour daily and the atmosphere of the house will be permeated with a delightful, spicy fragrance such as might be imagined to come from an enchanted Arabian garden.

COLOGNE WATER.

To make this toilet necessity take a quart of pure alcohol and add to it sixty drops each of orange flower water, oil of bergamot, oil of lemon and oil of lavender. Cork tightly, shake thoroughly, and allow it to stand for several weeks before opening the bottle. It will excell the imported article.

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